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"APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN THE 21ST CENTURY: LOOKING BACK AND MOVING FORWARD"

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Prof. Dr. Zübeyde Sinem GENÇ

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FULLTEXT BOOK

Baş Editörler

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The Impact of Practicum on Pre-Service FFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs: First Step into Professionalism

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Abstract

This study sought to investigate changes in pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs before and after the practicum experience at school. The data were collected using the same 24-item teacher sense of efficacy (TSE) scale. Three null hypotheses were formulated based on the sub-categories of self-efficacy in the study (i.e. self-efficacy in student engagement, self-efficacy in applying instructional strategies, and self-efficacy in classroom management). The Wilcoxon-signed rank test run on the pre-practicum and post-practicum results suggested that the null hypotheses that practicum would not bring about any change in student engagement should be rejected. According to the second null hypothesis, there would be no significant difference between pre-service EFL teachers' pre-practicum and post-practicum self-efficacy in applying instructional strategies. Results indicated that we should reject the second null hypothesis too, implying that pre-service teachers' scores in terms of this construct have also been significantly different from each other in the pretest and the posttest. The last hypothesis of interest was if pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy in classroom management changes as a result of practicum experience. The data gathered implies that we should reject this hypothesis as well, possibly in favor of the premise that our practicing pre-service EFL teachers have made positive gains in their classroom management ability. If we compare the obtained results based on the effect sizes that we have calculated for them, although all of them are strong effect sizes, we can say that the pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy has improved first in classroom management ($r = 0.77$), second in applying instructional strategies ($r = 0.71$), and third in student engagement ($r = 0.622$). The findings of the study are discussed in the light of implications to the language teacher education programs and to the development of practicum experience.

Key words: practicum, teacher self-efficacy, pre-service teacher, professionalism

Problem statement

Teaching practicum refers to the practical experiences that pre-service teachers obtain during the training course in the classroom before they take over and begin actual teaching profession. This pre-service practical training for prospective teachers is a widely recognized invaluable learning experience in teacher education programs. In the field of language education, language teaching departments at universities similarly give immense importance to teacher candidates' practicum experience by virtue of the fact that in this time period they would find a great opportunity to connect the theoretical knowledge they gain from the teacher education program courses with the actual teaching practices in a classroom setting. In addition, while the practicum provides a wealth of experience that requires the practical application of theory, prospective teachers would also benefit from reflecting on their own learning and teaching expertise, learning from experienced teachers, and making predictions about the kind of work environment they will be likely to work in the near future (Goodnough, Osmond, Dibbon, Glassman & Stevens, 2009; Rozella & Wilson 2012; Vo, Pang, & Kean Wah, 2018).

Indeed, pre-service teachers' perceptions about their profession and abilities are set in their minds before they actively commence their teaching practices (Johnson, 1994; Borg, 2006). Being recognized as one of the most essential and facets of pre-service teachers' education (Farrell, 2008) in the process of learning how to teach (Vo, Pang, & Kean Wah, 2018), teaching practicum seems to be a constructive period for teacher candidates to inherit positive changes in their self-beliefs. In fact, the valuable experiences from the practicum would surely contribute to the teaching knowledge and expertise of the pre-service language teachers.

Notwithstanding a large body of studies in the field of language teacher education which highlight the impact of the teaching practicum on the professional development of pre-service teachers (Numrich 1996; Freeman 2002; Farrell 2007; Chiang 2008; Leijen & Kullasepp, 2013; Canh, 2014; Kayi-Aydar, 2015), the pre-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' self-efficacy perceptions and their potential changes during the practicum experience have not been taken into close scrutiny. Additionally, the majority of the conducted studies rely solely on qualitative methods (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Mattheoudaki, 2007; Debreli, 2012; Seymen, 2012). Therefore, unlike the qualitative approaches adopted in the majority of the studies which have investigated the similar phenomenon, in this study a quantitative-method approach was adopted to explore pre-service EFL teachers' practicum experience in their senior year.

Research methods

In line with the studies conducted to date, there seems to be a gap in pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in their teaching practicum. Tang, Lee, and Chun (2012) similarly suggest further studies that look into teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs and other organizational variables. Although the initial years of teaching could be vital to the long-term development of teacher efficacy, little longitudinal research has been done to trace teacher efficacy over the first years of teaching (Hoy & Spero, 2005). In so doing, this study sought to explore pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs before and after the practicum experience using a quantitative methods approach.

Therefore, unlike the qualitative approaches adopted in the majority of the studies which have investigated the similar phenomenon, in this study a quantitative-method approach was adopted to explore pre-service EFL teachers' practicum experience in their senior year.

In so doing, the aim of this study was to investigate changes in pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs before and after the practicum experience at school. The sub-categories of self-efficacy as hypothesized in the study were self-efficacy in student engagement, self-efficacy in applying instructional strategies, and finally self-efficacy in classroom management. Therefore, three null hypotheses were formulated as follows:

1. The pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy in student engagement will not change as a result of practicum experience.

2. The pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy in applying instructional strategies will not change as a result of practicum experience.

3. The pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy in classroom management will not change as a result of practicum experience.

Expected Results

Given that prospective teachers highly value the importance of self-efficacy in their career (Arnold et al, 2011), the aim of this study was to investigate the changes in the pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy perceptions before and after the practicum experience at school to explore the extent their self-efficacy beliefs in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management would change as a result of practicum experience. In so doing, three null hypotheses were formulated. In the light of the results, the null hypotheses that practicum would not bring about any change in student engagement, that there would be no significant

difference between their pre-practicum and post-practicum self-efficacy beliefs in applying instructional strategies and classroom management respectively were all rejected. Indeed, the findings identified that the pre-service EFL teachers' teaching practicum at school made positive contributions to their attempts to effectively engage students, apply instructional strategies, and conduct classroom management. The present study differs from previous research in terms of facilitating a teacher self-efficacy scale developed to measure teacher efficacy as a multi-dimensional construct with three latent factors: efficacy for classroom management, efficacy to promote student engagement, and efficacy in using instructional strategies.

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Contextualizing Time and place in News: A Corpus-Assisted Discourse Analysis

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Abstract

The goal of the paper is to explore time and place in news discourse, which have been extensively but mostly separately studied from different perspectives (Bell 1991, Montgomery 2007, Chovanec 2014, Hart 2015, etc.). In this connection, we have decided to revisit the analysis of time and place in news discourse from a new perspective that can reshape our understanding of this genre of media discourse, which reflects the real life events happened in the recent past, yesterday, have happened earlier today, are happening now or will happen in the near or distant future in a specific place. So, both time and place matter in news discourse and it is intriguing to study the linguistic representations of the correlation of time and place from the perspective of their multiple functions in this genre of media discourse. Such a linguistic approach can allow a more in-depth analysis of the concepts of time and place and can also help us to understand how these concepts are shaped in news discourse, not only from linguistic, but also from political, social, economic and cultural perspectives. The recent flood of emerging news in connection with the coronavirus pandemic makes this topic extremely relevant and original as this developing topic has very important two dimensions: time and place. It is intriguing to study how these two concepts are shaped in the vast amount of news discourses produced in the first months of 2020. Thus, the study of the language of news and in general of the language of media can shed a light on a better understanding of their nature as the social and cultural phenomena.

Introduction

The crucial role of tense/time and space/place in media and media production is obvious and therefore most of the researchers in the media studies, communication studies, (critical) discourse analysis and in other related fields explored tense/time and space/place in media and in media production. For example, Rantanen discusses time, place and space in the special chapter of her book titled "The Media and Globalization" (2004). In her seminal work on media discourse, Talbot considers time and place as one of the reconfigurations of media discourse (2007). Agha (2007) explores the term "mass mediated spacetime" based on the famous theory of "chronotopes" by Bakhtin (1981). Perrino also uses the theory of chronotopes while analysing narratives in interviews (2011). One of the most important and intriguing issues is whether time or space/place is more important in media and media production. Ryfe insists on the more important role of time in media production (2016 b: 38):

Ethnographies of media production are of course about space –getting to a location and inhabiting that place with others. But they are also about time and, as I think back on my own ethnographic research, I realize that, of the two, time has been the more important.

It is interesting that the most authors in the field use both terms place and space or even prefer place to space. Tsatsou explains the difference between space and place in media as follows: "Space becomes place when it acquires symbolic meaning and a concrete definition marking the whole spectrum of identity and sense of belonging" (2009: 12). From this perspective, the study of concrete place is more preferable than the study of abstract space especially based on media discourse.

The discourse-based study of media in general and particularly news enables to conduct in-depth analysis of the role of time and place in this crucial genre of media. Bell made one of the first attempts in this field focusing on the role of time and place in news in his famous book on The Language of News Media (1991). Meanwhile the analysis of other studies in the field reveals more distinctive attitude to tense/time and space/place. For example, Montgomery discusses space and tense in two separate chapters of his book on the Discourse of Broadcast News (2007). In one chapter, he focuses on space from the perspective of the space of the news studio vs. the space of the news field and in another chapter, on tense while discussing some textual features of television news. Chovanec addresses the whole spectre of issues related to the pragmatics of tense and time in news (2014). On the other hand, Hart attaches a special attention to space and the link between spatial properties and ideological evaluation based on the analysis of online news reports while discussing certain theoretical issues such as the ways

how to formulate a grammar of "viewpoint' (2015). In overall, the researchers in the field prioritize the study of tense/time over space/place in news and do not consider place as the central factor rather playing mostly supportive role. The analysis of the recent literature in the field (Neiger and Tenenboim-Weinblatt 2016, Tenenboim-Weinblatt and Neiger 2018, Sanders and Krieken 2019, Lavi 2020, etc.) suggests that this trend persists with the main focus on tense and time perception in news as well as on the role of time in the construction of news narratives and also in the construction of meaning in news. For example, Sanders and Krieken analyse the linguistic representations of tense and time deixis in news narratives from the cognitive linguistics perspective while considering the role of space (narrative space and reality space) as abstract and supportive (2019). Meanwhile, our work prioritizes neither time, nor place equally focusing on the study of time and place in news discourse especially on their correlation from the linguistic perspective. As the language in news discourse is considered stylistically and functionally as one of the richest, it is intriguing to analyse the ways how time and place are represented linguistically (using the devices from literal and figurative language) in news discourse.

Data and methodology

The goal of the research is to study time and place equally focusing on the both concepts in order to reveal how they are shaped in news discourse. It adds an extensive attention to the issue of correlation of time and place in news discourse which is key in understanding the role of time and place in this genre.

In total, approximately 500 pages of various news texts (political, economic, social, daily life, health, cultural, sport news) produced by the leading news agencies (Reuters, AP), newspapers (Financial Times, The Times, USA TODAY, The Washington Post, The Guardian, Telegraph) and TVs (CNN, BBC) published between 2015 and 2020 have been collected for Discourse Analysis and for the corpus-assisted statistical analysis (Brezina 2018) of the tense forms of the verb, time and place adverbs (now, then, today, there, here, towards, in, on, etc.), other temporally (the names of the week days and months, culture-specific Christmas, Easter, etc.) and spatially (the geographical names, the names of international and regional organizations, culture-specific Scotland Yard, etc.) marked words and phrases used in these texts. A Method for Linguistic Metaphor Identification (Steen et al. 2010) has also been used in order to identify the linguistic metaphors and metonyms which represent time and place in the texts under analysis. Despite the fact that the priority has been given to the qualitative methods, the statistical analysis is important in order to support our arguments. The reason why the focus is

on the news texts from various media outlets is the desire to demonstrate the ways how language shapes time and place in the news discourse regardless of whether the news have been produced by news agency, newspaper, radio and TV or whether we deal with online, print, radio and TV news discourse (Bednarek and Caple 2012).

There is no specific structural criterion for the selection of the corpus under analysis because basically all news texts have the similar structure, which includes the headline and the main body (informative and narrative). Despite the obvious fact that the headline is more dynamic than the main body of any news text and therefore time and place are shaped in a more explicit way in this subgenre, the focus in the paper is on the both subgenres as they are expected to complement each other not only structurally but also pragmatically and cognitively.

News, News Text, News Discourse

News has always been on the top of the media studies because of its historically important mission in society (Rantanen 2009a). In the most cases, printed, electronic and online news are primarily produced by the news agencies which operate almost in all countries fulfilling very important function in society: to deliver information about politics, economy, culture, health, showbiz, sports, weather, etc. Almost all (probably, except some entertainment magazines, movie channels and music channels) traditional media outlets deliver these news and the news produced by their own sources to the audience. New information and communication technologies enabled many of the traditional news-oriented media outlets (British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) News, Associated Press, France Press, etc.) to be global or led to establishing global traditional news-oriented media outlets such as Cable News Network (CNN), Euronews, France 24, Al Jazeera, Russia Today. In addition, new media outlets such as social networks (Facebook, Twitter, etc.) have untraditional forms of presentation or conveying news with their own sources of information.

The presentation of news by various printed, electronic and online media outlets depend on many factors of the linguistic and extra-linguistic nature. The producers of the news try to present them in the most reader-friendly manner in order not to distract the attention of the audience and to keep their interest. In this connection, the role of the structure of news text and news discourse is crucial. Van Dijk introduces the notions “schemata“ and “superstructures” (1988: 26) which are instrumental in constructing news texts and news discourses. Steen et al. suggest that these two notions predict the use of headlines in news discourse (2010: 43) that has crucial role in attracting and keeping the audience`s interest.

On the other hand, news is traditionally neutral and contains main message to be delivered to the audience without considerable emphasizing or salience. Or the receiver of news texts is not entirely the receiver of new information on recent events. He/she is the receiver of selected information on recent events as this information may usually be presented or conveyed with clear political, ideological or cultural marking that makes it very difficult for the receiver to make judgement independently on what his/her actual view point of these events is. The recent studies in the field which analyse the specific ways (such as strategy and issue frames) in conveying political news in new media suggest that these frames affect the audience in a different way: the strategy based news yield more cliques while issue based news yield more comments and reactions (Stroud and Muddiman 2019). The results show that the audience tends to focus on a salient issue which matters in political news and the producers of news take this fact into account.

It is obvious that as newspapers, radio, TV and internet sources contain news reporting particular events the forms of presentation of this news may vary. Despite the fact that with the fast development of online news outlets (online newspapers, sites, social networks, etc.) many traditional rules are changing, all these media sources have the similar characteristics in terms of the presentation of news: some news is presented in the form of information and some is presented in the form of a story-telling or narrative. Meanwhile, regardless of the forms of presentation, news texts and news discourses have a common feature. They must answer to two key questions: *when* and *where*. For the news readers, the importance of *when* and *where* is usually equal to the importance of *what* and *who* and it sometimes even prevails. Actually the real producer of news is society and it is delivered for society and therefore *when* and *where* have been prioritized in news regardless of whether it is presented in the form of informative text or narrative text. Therefore it is intriguing to analyse the ways how *when* and *where* are represented linguistically in news discourse. This event-oriented approach is in contrast to the approach which is characterized as a person-oriented approach (Ryfe et. al 2016 a, Sanders and Krieken 2019, etc.). The event-oriented approach prioritizes the role of social factors over individual factors in the production and delivering news. On the other hand, the role of the news producers (individual factors) should not be minimized as they do not only deliver the facts but also interpret them. The news producers present facts in a way that is designed to arouse the receiver`s interest, attention and curiosity. It is also possible to present facts in a way that will influence and even manipulate the receiver`s view of them.

Intuitively time plays more important role in news than place because the news implies first of all its delivering to the audience, i.e. the related text is expected to tell and to reflect the events as well as to comment and to analyse them as fast as possible. If news is not delivered on time, then it can lose its relevance and market value. On the other hand, the linguistic devices (grammatical, lexical, metaphoric and metonymic) under analysis are used to navigate the audience not only in time, but also in place. Despite the fact that the readers become increasingly well-informed in the era of advanced information technologies, both time and place retain their crucial necessity in news. Actually news outlets are struggling to meet this demand. Therefore the producers of news texts tend to cover the stories in an explicit way focusing on the key linguistic devices, including the linguistic markers of time and place. In fact, the grammatical, lexical, metaphorical and metonymical representations of time and place are very important tools for the receiver of the news text not only to understand, but also to react in an appropriate way, which is the main goal of the news producers.

Grammatical and Lexical Representations Of Time And Place In News Discourse

This chapter of the paper scrutinises the instances of usages of the grammatical (the tense forms of the verb, time and place adverbs) and lexical (temporally and spatially marked words and phrases) devices as the tools extensively used in news discourse for functional- pragmatic and cognitive purposes building the correlation of time and place. For the purposes of our study, the most appropriate time adverbs are *yesterday, today, now* and *tomorrow* and place adverbs are *here, there, towards, in, on.* Tense and time and place adverbs have been extensively and well-studied in terms of their deictic functions and their role in deictic conceptualization of time and place (Huddleston 1969, Levinson 1983, Lenz 2003, Evans 2013, Chilton 2014, etc.). As the news is normally designed to refer to the recent, very recent, developing and future events and stories the grammatical markers of the past simple, the present simple, the present continuous, the present perfect as well as of the future simple tense forms of the verb are crucial in terms of their role as the deictic references to the surrounding world as seen below:

Clemson Tops Coaches Poll

Defending champs No. 1 in preseason ranking for first time (USA TODAY, May 8, 2019).

The present simple form of the verb *top, help* and *trigger* plays an important role in the temporal localization in this news discourse from USA TODAY. The producers of these news texts do not feel necessity to represent place explicitly due to the specifics of this newspaper which is oriented mostly on the national, rather international news. The same is true for The Times. In

the following news text from this newspaper, place is not so explicitly represented even if the story is globally important such as the coronavirus pandemic:

2) Alice Thompson, Rachel Sylvester, Chris Smyth, Oliver Wright

Saturday, April 11,

The Times

Coronavirus vaccine could be ready by September

Leading scientist `80 per cent` sure drug will work

A vaccine against coronavirus could be ready as soon as September, the British scientist leading one of the world's most advanced efforts has said.

Sarah Gilbert, professor of vaccinology at Oxford University, told The Times she was "80 per cent confident" that the vaccine being developed by her team would work, with human trials due to begin in the next fortnight.

The government signalled that it would be willing to fund the manufacture of millions of doses in advance if results looked promising. This would allow it to be available immediately to the public if it were proven to work.

With ministers struggling to find a strategy to exit the lockdown, long-term hopes of a return to normality rely on a vaccine.

The producers of this news article focus on the main topic (pandemic) of their story and on the temporal markers *by September, sure, will work* in the headline as time matters due to the urgency of the vaccine for the country and the world. So, place has only been mentioned in the main body by the use of *Oxford University,* whereas time has been represented by the numerous grammatical and lexical devices as *soon as, September, has said, told, was, being developed, would work, to begin, in the next fortnight, would be willing to fund, looked, would allow, were proven.* Probably the journalists of *The Times* assume that if place has not been explicated in the headline, it means that the story happens in the UK.

In contrast, when media outlets are globally oriented (such as Financial Times), the news producers usually focus on place. It should be underlined that the grammatical and lexical representations of time function in combination with the grammatical and lexical representations of place as seen in the following column titled World Week in Review from Financial Times:

3)Donald Trump agreed with the leaders of Mexico and Canada to renegotiate the trade deal between the three countries after the US president had previously threatened to ditch the accord, the North American Free Trade Agreement.

But while Mr Trump has given up on his plan to announce Nafta`s termination at a rally today commemorating his 100 days in office, he still says he could pull out if the talks with the US neighbours fail.

Nafta underpins more than $1tn in annual trade and many companies` supply chains. Mr Trump`s critics have been aghast at the suggestion of scrapping the deal and argue the confusion highlights the White House`s chaotic style of policymaking. (Financial Times, 29 April/30 April, 2017, p.2)

This news text delivers the news happened in the last week (World Week in Review) and this factor plays very important role in the linguistic representations of time in it. The combination of the usages of the various grammatical (the tense forms of the verbs including Past Simple *agreed*, Past Perfect *had previously threatened*, Present Perfect has given up, have been aghast and Present Simple *says, underpins, argue*, the time adverb *today*) and of the lexical representations of time *today, 100 days in office* shapes a kind of temporal continuity that is crucial in news discourse. The spatially marked words such as *Mexico, Canada, the three countries, the US* add the value associated with place building temporal and spatial harmony in this news discourse.

The same correlation between time and place could be easily observed in the following headlines where this correlation is the crucial factor due to the specific nature of this subgenre:

4) UK PM sends EU unsigned letter asking for Brexit delay (Reuters, 20 October 2019)

In this headline, the present simple of the verb *send* in the third person singular *sends* and the spatially marked words *UK* and *EU* are the key linguistic devices representing time and place in harmony. This harmony makes the headline more dynamic which is crucial in terms of attractiveness and understanding. The readers or viewers prefer dynamic news which tell more about time and place. On the other hand, by perceiving time and place in dynamism, they understand the headline (or any other type of genre of text) in a more comprehensive way.

In one of the recent studies in this field, Sanders and van Krieken explore the ways how tense and time deixis construct news narrative (2019). The analysis of these temporally marked

grammatical elements is a quite productive way to understand the nature of the news narrative as their role in its construction is crucial. The following news narrative from CNN clearly demonstrates it:

5) The world`s billionaires lost a total of $388 billion in 2018

After five years of growth, the collective wealth of the world's billionaires dropped by 4.3%, or $388 billion, according to a new report from Swiss bank UBS and auditing firm PwC. By the end of the year, there were 57 fewer global billionaires, for a total of 2,101 worldwide. (CNN Business, 8 November 2019)

The headline contains the lexical representation of place *The world*, whereas the grammatical representations of time prevail in the main body of this news text. The past simple *dropped, were* and the time adverbs *after five years* and *by the end of the year* construct the narrative based on the mostly temporal markers. But some spatially marked words such as *Swiss bank UBS* have been added in this text which shows that place can`t be ignored in such narrative.

Thus, despite the obvious dominance of time and temporal markers in news narrative, the representations of place is also very important because of the fact that sometimes the role and significance of place for the audience prevail over the role and significance of time in this genre and it is fixed through the various place adverbs and spatially marked words and phrases. Sometimes news producers feel necessity to make temporally and spatially marked words emphatically marked (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004) by using emphatic grammatical elements or constructions. The ongoing coronavirus related news from around the world and especially from Italy are good examples how journalists try to cover these tragic developments by producing the relevant texts with a special explicit focus on place. The nature of the pandemic requires more attention to place rather to time and therefore countries, regions, cities and even towns draw a special interest in the news as seen below:

6) Italians over 80' will be left to die` as country overwhelmed by coronavirus

Erica Di Blasi

The Telegraph March 14, 2020, 7:12 PM+4

Medical staff walk out of a tent at one of the emergency structures that were set up to ease procedures at the Brescia hospital, northern Italy - Luca Bruno/AP

Coronavirus victims in Italy will be denied access to intensive care if they are aged 80 or more or in poor health should pressure on beds increase, a document prepared by a crisis management unit in Turin propose.

Italy has 5,090 intensive care beds, which for the moment exceeds the number of patients who need them. It is also working to create new bed capacity in private clinics, nursing homes and even in tents. However, the country also needs also doctors and nurses - the government wants to hire them - and equipment.

Lombardy remains the most critical region. However, the situation is also serious in neighboring Piedmont. Here, in just one day, 180 new cases were recorded, while deaths numbered 27. The trend suggests that the situation is not about to improve.

The headline and the main body of this piece of the news text published by The Telegraph based on the report from Associated Press clearly demonstrate the strong desire of the author to place emphasis on the place rather time. The numerous uses of *Italy, the country, Brescia hospital, Northern Italy, Turin, Lombardy* in combination with the emphatic deictic uses of the place adverb *here* reflect it. These spatially marked words have been used in correlation with the numerous temporally marked words and phrases in this news discourse. Some of them such as the time adverb *now* and the temporally marked phrase *in just one day*, as well as the future and the present tenses of the verbs *will be, says, remains, aim, want* have also been used emphatically.

For the same reason, place is also in focus in the following news text from The Washington Post:

7) Brady Dennis, William Wan, David Fahrenthold

The Washington Post, Wednesday, April 8, 2020

The US authorities on Tuesday reported 30,700 more people infected with the novel coronavirus and over 1,800 more deaths-the highest daily death toll so far.

But amid the grim data, some officials said they saw the grounds of hope that the pandemic`s devastation would at least be not as bad as the direst projections.

New York, the state hit hardest by the virus, reported its highest daily death toll-731. But Democratic Gov. Andrew M. Cuomo said the number of new patients admitted to hospitals appeared to be trending downwards.

The spatially marked *US, New York, the state* are the key linguistic devices in this news text because they matter more under the current circumstances related with the pandemic. Meanwhile temporal markers *Tuesday, reported, so far, said, saw, admitted* are also very important as their correlation with the spatial markers are crucial in any news discourse So, the grammatical and lexical representations of time and place play important role in the pragmatics as well as in the cognition of this news discourse.

Thus, the language in general and grammar and lexicon in particular enable the producer of news to deliver their messages in the most effective way.

3. Metaphoric and metonymic representations of time and place in news discourse

Time and place can be represented in news discourse also by metaphor and metonymy which have been extensively studied at the conceptual and at the linguistic levels (Lakoff 1993, Semino 2008, Denroche 2014, etc.). One of the most intriguing issues in this field is the analysis of similarities and differences between metaphor and metonymy. Steen et al. focus on this issue suggesting that indirectness is typical for both. On the other hand, they underline the difference between them suggesting that metaphor is based on similarity or comparison (with reference to Pragglejaz Group and Cameron 2003), whereas metonymy is based on contiguity (Steen et al. 2010: 10). Despite these differences, the analysis of the instances of the usages of metaphor and metonymy shows that they are very effective tools at the disposal of the producers of discourses across types and genres. In this connection, the researchers pay special attention to media discourse and its genres especially news discourses (Kennedy 2000, Molek-Kozakowska 2014, Burgars et. al 2018, etc.). News discourse is among the most typical from this perspective as the use of metaphor and metonymy is one of the most productive ways to be brief and effective that are crucially important for this genre. The metaphorically and metonymically used words and phrases make news texts non-redundant and thus very effective instrument to persuade, to control and/ or to manipulate the audience.

Thus the goal of this chapter is the analysis of the ways how linguistic metaphor and metonymy represent time and place in news discourse in combination with the other grammatical and lexical representations. It is obvious that while analysing temporally marked metaphors or time metaphors the researchers have always taken into consideration space/place focusing on their correlation through such concepts as trajectors (i.e. located entities). For example, Johansson writes (2016:28):

On the structure of the inverse Moving Observer/Moving Time metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson 1999) instances such as these should be construed relative to a Moving Observer, and trajectors people that move relative to fixed durations of TIME (as reflected in e.g. when we come to launching the 4th edition in early 1990). My analysis, however, suggests that our understanding of TIME through SPACE is more nuanced than suggested by these metaphors. In this specific context, trajectors are not typically people in motion, but rather events or processes located in, or on, unit of time landmarks.

This approach for analysis of TIME metaphors which prioritizes events or processes is similar to the event-oriented approach for the linguistic analysis of time and place in news discourse suggested in the chapter 3.

News producers use the metaphorical and metonymical representations of time and place in harmony with the tense forms of the verb, the infinitive, time and place adverbs as well as with the temporally and spatially marked words. Take a look at this headline from Reuters:

8) Johnson promises Brexit for Christmas in manifesto

24 November 2019, Reuters

According to A Method for Linguistic Metaphor Identification, the first step is to establish contextual meaning of these words and phrases and the "next step is to check whether there is a meaning that is more basic than the contextual meaning (Steen et al. 2010: 45). In this news headline, the iconic word *Brexit* that has spatial dimension has been used metaphorically with the temporally and culturally marked *Christmas* based on indirectness and contrast building a very interesting spatial and temporal harmony. The present simple of the verb *promise* also plays very important role in building this harmony. In the following piece of the news text, the culturally and temporally marked *Easter* has also been used metaphorically:

9) Charles Trepany, USA TODAY, April 8, 2020

Coronavirus and Easter: 7 tips for making the most of the holiday while in quarantine

Though many celebrations have been cancelled due to the coronavirus pandemic, Easter, occurring this year on April 12, doesn`t have to be one of them.

In the headline, *Coronavirus* has been used in combination with *Easter* to represent time. In the main body, the representation of time is also in focus as *Easter* has been used metaphorically with *doesn`t have to be one of them* based on indirectness in combination with the temporally marked *occurring this year on April 12.* Place is not in focus in this news because of the

orientation of USA TODAY on the local news discussed in the previous chapter. In contrast, the following news text from Financial Times shows how the news producers focus on place:

10) Poland to sell debt at a negative yield

Joel Lewin and Elaine Moore

Poland has become the first emerging market to sell debt at a negative yield, underscoring the relentless decline of borrowing costs in global markets. (Financial Times, 29 April 2015, p. 30)

This news text is quite typical in terms of the instances of the use of metaphor which represents place. The word *Poland* with the basic spatial meaning (the name of the country) has been associated with *market* based on indirectness and similarity between the two semantic domains. An element of similarity could be found between *Poland* (as a place) and *market* (as a place) in this news discourse. The uses of the spatially marked *Poland* in combination with the temporally marked *to sell* in the headline and in combination with the temporally marked *has become* and *to sell* in the main body build another temporal and spatial harmony. The analysis of the data suggests that metonymy is even more frequent choice in news discourse especially in the headline than metaphor. In this connection, the headline *Poland to sell debt at a negative yield* of the above-mentioned news text from Financial Times is quite symptomatic.

It is interesting that some words with basic spatial meaning can be used metaphorically with no reference to place rather to other entities such as government as seen below:

11) Beijing (Reuters)-The United States is the world`s biggest source of instability and its politicians are going around the world baselessly smearing China, the Chinese government`s top diplomat said on Saturday in a stinging attack at a G20 meeting in Japan.

24 November 2019

The contextual meaning of t*he United States* (government) in this news text differs from its basic spatial meaning (the name of the country) as *the United States* has been used with the words *is the world`s biggest source of instability* based on indirectness and contrast. The temporally marked *is, are going, said on Saturday* are very important elements in the building spatial and temporal harmony in this news. The same is true for the linguistic metonymies that have also been frequently used for the same purpose but mostly in the headlines. For example:

12) China can go carbon neutral by 2050 while still growing its economy: report

By Laura He, CNN Business, November 22, 2019

13)England face a tough battle to save the first Test against New Zealand after BJ Watling scored a superb double century on day four in Mount Maunganui.

By Jack Skelton

BBC Sport

24 November 2019

14) Texas prepares for a pandemic first: a jury trial by Zoom

By Nate Raymond, Reuters, May 18, 2020

15)Yard apology after `night stalker` jailed

Vikram Dodd and Amelia Hill

Scotland Yard yesterday admitted one of the biggest errors in its history after it accepted that blunders by officers led to 146 elderly people becoming victims of a "perverted, callous and violent" serial sex attacker and burglar. (The Guardian, 25.03.2019, p. 1)

China, England, Texas and *Scotland Yard* that have basic spatial meaning actually refer to the respective Chinese government, England cricket team, Texas state authority (in the USA) and London Metropolitan Police in the news discourses under analysis. The difference between *China, England, Texas* on the one hand and *Scotland Yard* on the other hand is that the first three words maintain their basic spatial meaning (the names of the countries and of the state), whereas the following phrase has lost its basic meaning and become a linguistic metaphor. Meanwhile, in all four news discourses, the words *China, England, Texas* and the phrase *Scotland Yard* have been used metonymically to refer to place. The uses of these metonymies in the combination with other spatially marked word and phrase *New Zealand, Mount Maunganui,* and also with the temporally marked *can go, by 2050, face, after, on day four, prepares, after, jailed, yesterday, admitted, after, accepted, led* build the same harmony that is crucial in news.

4. Results

The statistical analysis of the data suggests that in total the number of the linguistic representations of time (68) exceeds the number of the linguistic representations of place (34) per analysed 15 news texts. In the two news texts (examples 1, 9) there are no explicit linguistic

representations of place. In the headlines, the number of linguistic representations of time (16) slightly exceeds the number of the linguistic representations of place (12), whereas the number of linguistic representations of time (52) largely exceeds the number of linguistic representations of place (22) in the main body. The headlines contain more linguistic metonymies (examples 10, 12, 13, 14, 15), whereas linguistic metaphors are common (9, 10, 11) in the main body. The reason why the producers of news tend to use linguistic metaphor and metonymy so frequently is that they have strong pragmatic and cognitive effect on the audience. They help the audience to understand the news text in a more specific and sometimes culturally marked (Christmas, Easter, Scotland Yard, etc.) way as all parameters of time and place matter in this genre.

5. Conclusion

Thus various grammatical, lexical, metaphorical and metonymical representations of time and place are among the most common linguistic choices of the producers in news discourse. These devices are used for various construal and pragmatic purposes. In addition to the construal and pragmatic functions, they play the key role in the cognitive processes within news discourse. One of the most interesting is the instances of their usages which build the correlation of time and place and thus temporal and spatial harmony in news discourse. For example, despite the obvious fact that the tense forms of the verb are not as explicit as other grammatical, lexical, especially metaphorical and metonymical representations of time and place, their role is very important in building this harmony that is crucial in the process of perception by the participants within this genre. Despite the fact that in overall the temporal markers prevail over spatial markers, both concepts and their linguistic representations are equally important in the news discourse.

There is only one issue that matters in news discourse, in discourse and, in general terms, in social life. It is meaning. Not only tense/time (Chovanec 2014, Neiger and Tenenboim-Weinblatt 2016, Tenenboim-Weinblatt and Neiger 2018, Sanders and Krieken 2019, Lavi 2020) or space/place (Hart 2015), but both time and place equally play crucial role in the process of meaning construction in news discourse.

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Many-Facet Partial Credit Rasch Model Analysis of Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System

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Abstract

Motivation to learn a second language has been a significant predictor of variable success in L2 ultimate attainment. One prominent L2 motivation theory in SLA is Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* (L2MSS) in which learners' motivation is comprised of *Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self,* and *L2 Learning Experience*, validated through their correlation with one's *Intended Effort* towards learning the target language. This paper aims to address two gaps in the L2 motivation literature. First is methodological: measures of motivation are often collected through questionnaires designed to probe the construct in question and analyzed using descriptive statistics or factor analysis. However, descriptive and inferential statistics often rely on interval data when motivation measures are likely to be ordinal. In this regard, the use of Rasch model as a measure of motivation affords researchers powerful means of comparing motivation levels of participants as objective measures. Second, L2 motivation has been theorized as being dynamic and subject to changes throughout one's L2 learning experience. This study examines motivation questionnaire based on L2MSS and uses partial credit model to analyze the interaction between length of study and learners' motivation as defined by the components of L2MSS. Ninety-one ESL students were given 24-item motivation questionnaire. The result of the analysis showed that the most important aspect of L2MSS was the learners' learning experience. The best method of analysis for Rasch model was to subdivide the questionnaire according to each of Dörnyei's subcomponents (i.e., *Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, L2 Learning Experience*, and *Intended Effort*) instead of analyzing the data as a single dimension of L2MSS. Finally, the findings showed no significant interaction between length of study and learners' motivation.

Keywords Rasch Analysis, L2 Motivation, L2MSS, Survey Analysis, Many-Facet Partial Credit Model

1. Introduction

A common observable phenomenon in SLA is that second language learning in adults is variable in its outcome (Skehan, 1989). Variability in outcome among learners is attributed to differences in learner-internal characteristics, and among all individual difference (ID) variables, motivation is considered as one of the most important variables on par with aptitude in predicting ultimate attainment (Dornyei, 2005). In ID research, motivation's importance is related to its utility as a strong predictor of second language acquisition success because motivation is often associated with intended effort that learners expend at various stages in their L2 development (Dörnyei et al., 2016; Gardner, 2000). For instance, Ehrman and Oxford (1995) examined the role of ID factors such as motivation, anxiety, language learning strategies, learning styles, self- esteem, and personality traits. The study identified aptitude as the factor that most strongly correlated with proficiency, followed by affective and motivation factors as the next highest correlates.

There is a priority of importance on motivation that is uniquely different from other individual differences such as personality, intelligence, or even aptitude. That is, a high level of motivation is seemingly able to overcome low aptitude or other disadvantages in individual differences. Without motivation, even the most talented learner cannot accomplish L2 mastery and neither quality teaching, curricula, nor the environment can make up for lack of motivation (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003). As an aside, Dörnyei (2005) cites Robert Stenberg, a prominent psychometrician, whose comment illustrates the importance of language motivation in L2 learning. Stenberg noted that in Belgium those who learn Flemish are more likely to learn a 2nd and a 3rd language than those who learn French. Based on this trend, he argued that this was obviously not a phenomenon that should be attributed to aptitude but to motivation driven by need. Similarly, the often-ridiculed monolingual aspect of American society is not a reflection of American citizens' language aptitude — no one would assume that Americans in general have lower aptitude compared to Belgians — it is rather a reflection of motivation based on need regarding foreign language learning in America. Consequently, motivation is extremely critical for language acquisition, for without it how can language learning even begin? In fact, L2 learning presupposes motivation from the start and much of ID research is predicated on the assumption that the learner is motivated to pursue a second language (Ushioda, 2016). Much of research in SLA motivation has revolved around the question concerning the different types of

motivation and how they are influenced by various factors that are both learner internal and external.

1.1. *Review of the Literature*

Motivation to learn a second language has been widely acknowledged by researchers and language instructors alike as a key factor in the overall success of second language acquisition (Gardner, 2000; Skehan, 1989; Skehan, 1991). Not only does motivation provide the impetus to initiate L2 learning, it also provides the drive to sustain the pursuit (Dörnyei et al., 2016). R.C. Gardner (1985) defines motivation as a summation of intended effort with desire to achieve the L2 goal and the attitude towards the target language. Motivation in SLA research is described as a composite construct with components that appear to be individual attributes while others are situation-specific (Dewaele, 2009). The works of Gardner and Lambert during the 1950s and 1960s, also known as the social-psychology period of motivation, laid the foundation for the beginning of a large body of research in L2 motivation. Their work on L2 motivation started out with a broad scope of social-psychological view by arguing that learning the language of another community cannot be separated from the learners' social dispositions towards the speech community in question. Gardner's social-educational model claims that what drives L2 learning is *integrative motivation,* which is the learner's willingness or desire to be like a representative member of the target language community. It is reflective of the extent to which the learner desires to be a part of the valued community and communicate with the target language group (Gardner & Lambert, 1965). Thus, motivation has societal influences and factors that are larger than the individual learner.

Following Gardner and Lambert's social-educational theory on motivation, a new generation of cognitive psychologists during the 1990s ushered in what Dörnyei and Ushioda call the 'cognitive-situated period' that focused on the individual (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). As a result, L2 motivation theories have been increasingly interested in the socio-dynamic perspective that is concerned with ideations about the "*self".* Based on Markus and Nurius' (1986) *possible-selves theory*, and Higgins' (1987) *Self-discrepancy theory*, Dörnyei proposed *L2 Motivational Self System* for understanding L2 learner's motivation. Markus and Nurius's possible-selves theory stated that there are three possible-selves: what we would like to become, what we could become, and what we are afraid of becoming. *Self-discrepancy theory* as it applies to SLA argued that the discrepancy between what one would like to become and one's current state acts as a motivational springboard for learning a second language. Encompassing these theories is Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* (L2MSS). The fundamental assumption

in L2MSS is that L2 learners are driven towards the target language when they perceive a discrepancy between their ideal/ought-to self (future L2 using-self) and their current state (Dörnyei, 2005). There are three core components in Dörnyei's theory. First is the *Ideal L2 Self,* a desirable future self-image of the L2 user the person would like to become. The second is the *Ought-to L2 Self* which is the expectations imposed by others (e.g., family or society) that bears little resemblance to one's own ideal self. And the third is the *L2 Learning Experience*, which places the motivational impact of the learner's present learning situation, such as the instructor, peers, and the curriculum. According to this system, the three components reflect the L2 learner's perception of their identity and this perception operates in tandem with the influence of society and the environment to trigger motivation for L2 learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Measures of one's Ideal-Self, Ought-to-Self, and Learning Experience were expected work together to explain the variability found in their Intended Effort towards learning a second language. That is, motivation should able to explain or indicate the amount of effort put out by the motivated learner. Recently, a large-scale predictive validation study (N=360), examined the link between L2MSS and L2 achievement in reading and writing proficiency test. Analysis of results on L2MSS questionnaires revealed that the three main components of *Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self,* and the *L2 Learning Experience* unequivocally had power to predict intended learning behavior. A meta-analysis of L2MSS was also recently reported by Al-Hoorie (2018) based on 39 samples that totaled 32,078 language learners. In this study, the three components of L2MSS were found to be significant predictors of intended effort (rs=.61).

Invoking the *dynamic systems theory* (DST), Dörnyei argues that individual learner differences are dynamic, and they are comprised of different components that interact with each other and the environment. Dörnyei (2010) proposes that the learner differences be viewed as a complex dynamic system with interconnected components that fluctuate over time. Recent research in L2 motivation has begun to reflect this important aspect that motivation is process-oriented, never stable but subject to fluctuations as a state (Dörnyei, 2009). For example, a study of Iranian learners of English on demotivation revealed that the major source of demotivation during their EFL course was their inability to keep up with the class requirements and the rate of curriculum progression (Yaghoubinejad et al, 2016). Similarly, a study by Kruk (2016) showed that L2 motivation changed not only from class to class but also from one lesson to the next within the same class for reasons that included the nature of the activity, topic of the lesson, or even the use of the course book. A longitudinal study of first year German L2 students in UK revealed that although the students' desire to become proficient in German increased, their

effort to engage the language decreased over the course of the year. Their decrease in effort coincided with decrease in the level of intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy beliefs (Busse & Walter, 2013). Summary of findings from studies of demotivation by Kikuchi (2015) identified experience of difficulty, followed by loss of interest and class environment as the best predictors of demotivation in adult English learners.

The most common standard of psychometric measure of motivation is questionnaire/survey. Motivation surveys come in different lengths, designed with specific purposes, for specific audience, use, and theoretical framework. They have been translated and used for a comparative survey in Japan, China, Hungry and Iran, as a scheme for classroom observation, to learn about motivational strategies, self-regulating capacity in vocabulary learning, language orientation survey, and to assess directed motivational currents in others (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012). It is a common practice in social science research to evaluate the suitability of questionnaires based on reliability and validity using various statistical methods such as correlation analysis or factor analysis. L2 motivation measures have been assessed with similar standards in SLA research. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) reported evidence of reliability and validity based on several multi-trait/multimethod analysis. Dörnyei's L2MSS questionnaires have also been vetted for the validity of its components through confirmatory factor analysis (Safdari, 2017) and structural equation modeling (Papi, 2010).

Although factor analysis and SEM have been implemented in the analysis L2 motivation surveys, use of the Multi-Facet Rasch Model (MFRM) has been lacking in the literature. Rasch model is based on the premise that an individuals' responses to a class of items are based on the difficulty of the item and the said individual's ability, as measured by the item. When applied to measuring a single trait, the model assumes that people with high ability are more likely to get the items correct, and items that are easier are more likely to be answered correctly than others (Boone & Noltemeyer, 2017). Rasch analysis uses logit scales (log odds) which can convert nonlinear raw scores to be linear, interval scale. The same concept can be extended for motivation survey data in which the individual's level of motivation comparable to others is determined by that individual's motivation and the probability of endorsing the questionnaire items that purports to measure the motivation in question (Bond & Fox, 2015). In performing linear model analysis with survey data, it is wrongly assumed that Likert scales have equal intervals between them, so that the psychological distance between, for example, Strongly Agree to Agree is treated as equal to the distance between Neutral to Disagree when such uniformity may not exist. MFRM makes possible the analysis of data that is ordinal such as

survey data and convert them to be on equal-interval scales. This allows MFRM to produce measurable information about how survey items are performing with respect to the participants and creates a single frame of reference that facilitates comparisons within and between the variables or facets of the study (Boone, 2016).

The focus of this study is on Dörnyei's L2MSS and the purpose is to address two gaps in the L2 motivation literature reviewed thus far. The first gap is methodological as uses of MFRM to evaluate ordinal data such as surveys has been lacking in SLA literature. Despite the advantages of applying Rasch measurement analysis in SLA research and their psychometric instruments, there is a lack of advance of its use in SLA. Only about 2.01% of publications in linguistics have used Rasch measurement, making the field one of the bottom five adopters of Rasch analysis in social science (Aryadoust, et al., 2019). Given a lack of research in the area, it is unclear what would be the best approach to analyzing a motivation survey made up of multiple subsections. The second is theoretically motivated: investigating dynamic complexity of motivation through length of L2 study. To that end, the following research questions will be explored in the current study:

1.2. Research Questions

R1. What do the components of Dörnyei's L2MSS reveal about the nature of L2 learner's motivation? (i.e., are learners mostly motivated by their Ideal-Self? Ought-to-Self?)

R2. What is the best methodological MFRM approach to analyzing a survey with subsections?

R3. Is there an interaction between length of study and learners' motivation as defined by the components of L2MSS?

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants.

A total of 91 ESL students ranging in proficiency from beginner to advanced participated in the study. Participants were from an institutional ESL program in New York City. There were 22 males (27.5 percent) and 66 females (72.5 percent). The average length of years spent on studying English was 7.6.

2.2. *Instrument.*

A 24-item questionnaire was designed to measure motivation according to the theoretical framework of Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* (L2MSS). Dörnyei's model was chosen because it is the most common theory that has dominated L2 motivation since its introduction

in 2005 (Boo et al., 2015). The questionnaire comprised of items that measured Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, L2 Learning Experience, and Intended Effort. The Ideal L2 Self is measured by the extent to how the respondents envision themselves as English language users in their future. The Ought-to L2 self is measured by one's sense of obligations and duties the respondents feel in order to avoid the negative consequences of not learning the L2. The L2 learning experience is measured by considering their L2 learning context, environment, materials and instructors. Intended Effort measures the participants' willingness to go above and beyond the minimal requirement and extend effort in order to learn the L2. The items were adapted based on the questionnaire by Papi's (2010) structural equation modeling study and Islam and Chambers's (2013) survey of L2MSS. Each item required the respondent to rate how the statement accurately reflected their own opinions based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. All items were positively worded in order to prevent reserve coding and also to align the numeric increase of Likert scale with increasing level of motivation indicated by the participants. This meant that responses of 5s indicated the highest level of motivation while responses of 1s signaled the lowest possible level of motivation towards learning English for all items.

2.3. Data Collection.

Data collection spanned three semesters and all participants were asked to volunteer in a research study. All participants took a brief background survey along with the motivation questionnaire. As part of the demographic survey, the number of years spent on studying English was also reported.

2.4. Analysis of Data

The data from the completed questionnaire were entered into an Excel spreadsheet, exported to FACETS (Linacre, 2007), and calibrated using the Rasch partial credit model. The 5-point Likert scale responses were entered as values 1 through 5. The length of time spent on studying English was dummy coded with a value of "1" for less than a year, "2" for between 1 to 5 years, and "3" for any length greater than 5 years. This resulted in 26 participants in the category of 1 (28.6 percent); 24 participants in the category of 2 (26.4 percent); and 41 participants in the category of 3 (45.1 percent). Three different MFRM analyses were performed on the survey data in order to triangulate the analysis of item, person, subsection, and length of study, and to compare the effectiveness of each method. The first model was a four-facet partial credit model for all items in the survey grouped by four subsections. The model is defined mathematically by the following formula:

$$\log\left(\frac{Pnijk}{Pnij(k-1)}\right) = B_n - D_i - C_j - F_{ik} \quad (1)$$

P_{nijk} is the probability that participant *n* endorses a Likert rating of *k* on item *i* by subsection *j*.

$P_{nij(k-1)}$ is the probability that participant *n* endorses a Likert rating of *k-1* on item *i* by subsection *j*. B_n is the tendency of the participant *n* to report being motivated. D_i is the difficulty of endorsing item *i*. C_j is the difficulty of endorsing subsection *j*. F_{ik} is the difficulty (F) of endorsing a Likert rating *k* averaged across all items but for each subsection *j* separately.

The second model was a three-facet model without the grouping of subsections for all items in the survey, plus the length of study modeled as a dummy facet for the bias/interaction analysis. The model for the second analysis is defined mathematically by the following formula:

$$\log\left(\frac{Pnik}{Pni(k-1)}\right) = B_n - D_i - F_k \quad (2)$$

P_{nik} is the probability that participant *n* endorses a Likert rating of *k* on item *i* $P_{ni(k-1)}$ is the probability that participant *n* endorses a Likert rating of *k-1* on item *i*. B_n is the tendency of the participant *n* to report being motivated. D_i is the difficulty of endorsing item *i*. F_k is the difficulty (F) of endorsing a Likert rating *k* averaged across all items

The third model was identical to the second model, except that the data were split by subsections. Four three-facet models for only the items in each subsection was performed with the length of study bias/interaction analysis. The model for the third model is defined by the same formula as above (2), iterated four times for Ideal-Self, Ought-to-Self, L2 Experience, and Intended Effort.

3. Findings

The results that follow are presented with respect to the three separate MFRM models specified above: Model 1 (full model with no interaction), Model 2 (no subsections + interaction), Model 3 (by subsections only + interaction)

Table 1. Model 1 Summary

	Person	**Item**	**Ideal Self**	**Ought-to-Self**	**L2 Experience**	**Intended Effort**	**Subsections**
Logit Spread	-1.44 to 3.56	-0.98 to 0.79	-0.72 to 0.79	-0.98 to 0.06	-0.03 to 0.65	-0.35 to 0.46	-0.26 to 0.45
Strata & Reliability	4.13 & 0.89	4.52 & 0.91	4.89 & 0.92	4.87 & 0.92	2.10 & .64	2.59 & .74	6.76 & .96

X^2	(90, N = 91) =771.0, p = .001	(23, N = 24) =297.1, p = .001	(5, N = 6) =71.8, p = .001	(5, N = 6) =60.3, p = .001	(4, N = 5) =11.1, p = .03	(6, N = 7) =25.6, p = .001	(3, N = 4) =126.6, p = .001
Misfits	19, 48, 74, 13, 17, 18, 28, 41, 55, 14, 56, 39, 16, 10	7, 16		7			Ought-to-Self

The logit scale provides an equal interval representation for the participants on motivation measures so that they can be interpreted with respect to one another. Table 1 shows the logit spread of the person measures from -1.44 to 3.56 for a total spread of 5.00. A high measure indicates a correspondingly high level of motivation and a low measure indicates a lower level of motivation based on the 24-item questionnaire considered as whole. Only four participants had negative logits while the rest had positive logits. The majority had logits greater than 1 (55% of participants), indicating that, in general, the participants feel motivated to study English. This is hardly surprising for adult L2 learners who choose to take ESL classes by their own volition, unlike secondary school students who are often obligated to satisfy a foreign language requirement.

Figure 1 below also corroborates with the findings from Table 1 above. As expected, the most common Likert rating selected by the participants was 5 (strongly agree) followed by 4 (agree). “Strongly agree” comprised of 46.6 percent of the total responses, “agree” was 29 percent, “neutral” was 13.5 percent, “disagree” was 5.2 percent and “strongly disagree” was 5.7 percent.

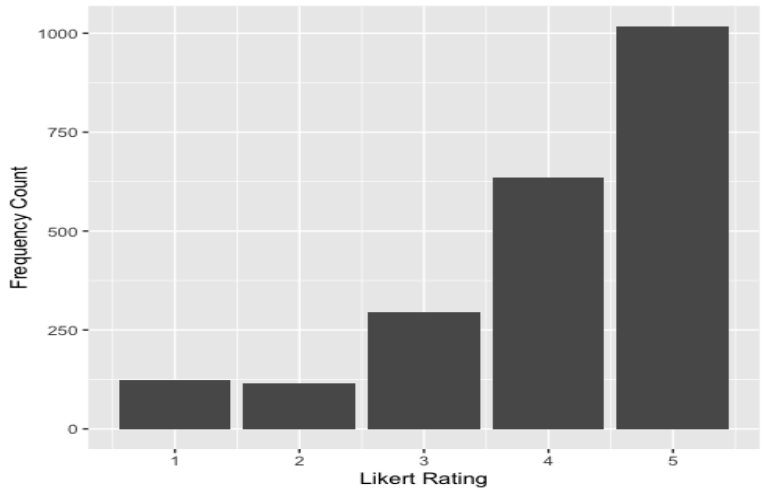

Figure 1. Bar plot of Likert Rating across 24 items

In Table 1, the strata statistic, which is the number of statistically distinct levels of participants' motivation in the sample of ESL students, was 4.13. This indicated that the survey was able to statistically distinguish about 4.13 levels of motivation in the participant group. Since the questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale, 4.13 groups corroborates with range provided by the scale. For the items, Table 1 shows the logit spread of the measures which ranged from -0.98 to 0.79 for a total spread of 1.77. Ten out of twenty-four items were found to have negative logits. Of those ten, five items belong to the subsection that measured Ought-to-Self. This suggests that the most difficult items to endorse (i.e., marks strongly agree or agree on the scale) were the items that pertain to learning English out of obligation or due to others' expectations. Taken together with the results from person measures, it shows that while most learners are motivated to learn English (i.e., have a positive logit), their source of motivation was not based on obligation or expectations of others.

Subsection 1, Ideal-Self, logit spread of the item measures ranged from -0.72 to 0.79 for a total spread of 1.51. Only two items had a negative logit and the rest were positive. The two items were: "I can imagine myself speaking English like a native speaker" and "I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my classes are taught in English." The negative logits on these items are reasonable because most participants have been studying English for years and they may feel that speaking like a native is not one of the most realistic outcomes. Also, not all students intend on going to college in U.S.; consequently, one may be motivated to learn but choose to not endorse either or both of these two statements.

Subsection 2, Ought-to-Self, logit spread of the item measures ranged from -0.98 to 0.06 for a total spread of 1.04. Five out of six items had negative logits. Clearly, this was the most difficult construct to endorse by the participants (Appendix A). It seems that participants wanted to indicate that learning English was their choice and not based on a sense of duty towards others. Interestingly, the only item with the positive logit was the statement "studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English." This was the only statement that did not explicitly mention expectations of other people but state how learning English may improve one's own sense of self-worth as viewed by others. If one's Ideal-Self and Ought-Self is seen to be on a continuum, this item may lie closer to the learner's sense of Ideal-Self than other items since it reflects how they want to be viewed, ideally. Item 7 "I study English because friends and family think it's important", was found to be misfitting with an Infit Zstd of 3.0. Item 7 was also one of the most difficult items to endorse among Ought-to-Self items and the underfit of this may be an indication that highly motivated

individuals do not endorse the statement: "I study English because friends and family think it's important." This item was the only item that mentioned family and friends, and this could indicate that for adult learners who are motivated, external pressures by friends and family have very little effect on one's overall source of motivation, which may not be the case for younger learners.

In subsection 3, Learning Experience, the logit spread of the item measures ranged from -0.03 to 0.65 for a total spread of 0.68. Only item 16 "Time goes by fast when I am studying English" was negative (-0.03). The facet map in Appendix A shows that this component/subscale was the easiest to endorse by the participants. In general, most participants reported strongly positive L2 learning experience. However, this component is also most likely influenced by the learning environment such as the quality of the instructor, learning materials, and the learning institution. This is reflected in the lowest reliability measure among all constructs, at .64, which indicated some variable responses in the questionnaire for this subsection. In addition, the survey was taken during an ESL class while the instructor was present, and this raises doubts about whether the participants were being conscientious about their answers. Interestingly as previously stated, the lone negative logit statement was "Time goes by fast when I am studying English." This statement may have been misunderstood by low proficiency participants as a negative statement or that "times goes by fast" was understood to mean not enough time.

Subsection 4, Intended Effort, the logit spread of the item measures ranged from -0.35 to 0.46 for a total spread of 0.81. Two out of seven items had negative logits (items 18 and 20, at -0.05 and -0.35, respectively) meaning that this construct was overall rather easy to endorse, on par with Ideal-Self but not as much as L2 Learning Experience. Items 18 and 20 state the following: "I would like to spend a lot of time studying English" and "I would like to study English more than any other topics." This could indicate that although the learners are willing to study English, they are not intrinsically motivated, meaning that they are not motivated to learn English simply for the sake of learning the language but for other instrumental reasons. The four subsections considered together as a facet had a logit spread that ranged from -0.26 to 0.45 for a total spread of 0.71. Only the Ought-to-Self had a positive logit, meaning that it was construct to most likely not to be endorsed by the participants as previously discussed. Ought-to-Self was also the only misfitting construct at Infit Zstd of 2.6, most likely due to the underfitting of Item 7 ("I study English because friends and family think it's important"), and also due to the fact that it was the only construct whose elements were mostly negative in logits.

Table 2. Model 2 Summary

	Person	**Item**
Logit Spread	-1.37 to 3.55	-1.09 to 1.37
Strata & Reliability	4.12 & 0.89	6.25 & 0.95
X^2	(90, N = 91) =718.3, p = .001	(23, N = 24) =577.1, p = .001
Misfits	74, 48, 13, 18, 19	30, 82, 16, 41, 17
Bias/Interaction	item 19 (effort) with <1 t= -2.17, p=0.04	

Table 2 shows the key summary statistics of Model 2, which was identical to the first model but without the facet of subsection. Interestingly, the number of person misfit decreased but the number of item misfit increased. When participant's motivation is considered based on all 24 items, meaningful variance from the model may have decreased since the item facets are no longer divided into subsections. However, when items are considered together as a single motivation construct, this resulted in more misfits. One possible explanation is that due to the contradicting functioning of Ought-to-Self relative to other constructs, there were more items that appeared to be misfitting. While the second model assumes that the 24 items are unidimensional, they were in fact comprised of four dimensions. Failure to account for the difference in dimensionality may have led to more items being misfitting. Model 2 showed one statistically significant interaction between Item 19 (effort) with length of study less than one year (t= -2.17, p=0.04). However, the t-statistics was barely over 2 and the fact that only one item was found to interact indicates that there is likely to be no substantial interaction between item and length of study.

Table 3. Ideal-Self Only

	Person	**Item**
Logit Spread	4.82 to 5.30	-1.26 to 1.49
Strata & Reliability	2.52 & 0.73	6.72 & 0.96
X^2	(90, N = 91) =391.7, p = .001	(5, N = 6) =4.8, p = .001
Misfits	30, 82, 16, 41, 60, 17	
Interaction	item 2 with <1 t= -2.73, p=0.0147	

Table 4. Ought-to-Self Only

	Person	**Item**
Logit Spread	-3.84 to 4.36	-0.82 to 0.81
Strata & Reliability	3.08 & 0.81	6.07 & 0.95
X^2	(90, N = 91) =387.9, p = .001	(5, N = 6) =93.5, p = .001
Misfits	31, 74, 12, 51, 48, 40, 56,	12
Interaction	None	

Table 5. L2 Experience Only

	Person	**Item**
Logit Spread	-2.67 to 6.16	-0.57 to 0.58
Strata & Reliability	2.58 & 0.74	2.88 & 0.79
X^2	(90, N = 91) =357.6, p = .001	(4, N = 5) =18.6, p = .001
Misfits	36, 39, 54, 88, 90, 20, 8	None
Interaction	None	

Table 6. Intended Effort Only

	Person	**Item**
Logit Spread	-2.35 to 4.85	-0.46 to 0.66
Strata & Reliability	2.35 & 0.70	3.12 & 0.81
X^2	(90, N = 91) =324.8, p = .001	(6, N = 7) =35.3, p = .001
Misfits	83, 61, 39, 57, 88	None
Interaction	item 20 with <1 t= 2.16, p=0.0447	

(First introduce Model 3 here. Something like, Model 3 represented the four subsections in separate Rasch analysis, with only persons and items as measured facets, along with length of study as a background/dummy variable.) Table 3 shows the summary statistics of Ideal-Self only data. Logit spread was from -4.82 to 5.30 for a total spread of 10.12. Twenty participants had maximum possible extreme score and one participant had the minimum possible extreme score; thus, their fit statistics could not be computed. There was one statistically significant interaction between Item 2 and a group of learners with less than a year of studying English. Item 2 states "I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends." Beginners were more likely to agree with this statement than more senior groups, which reveals the language use realities of the more versus less experienced learners. In other words, beginners are more optimistic about their ultimate attainment (i.e., being able to speak with ease in English) compared to advanced learners with more years of English education.

Table 4 shows Ought-to-Self only: logit spread was from -3.84 to 4.36 for a total spread of 8.2. Seven participants had maximum possible extreme score and three participants had the minimum possible extreme score; their fit statistics could not be computed. Table 5 shows Experience Only with logit spread from -2.67 to 6.16 for a total spread of 8.83. Thirteen participants had maximum possible extreme score; their fit statistics could not be computed. Table 6 is Effort Only summary statistics. Logit spread was from -2.35 to 4.85 for a total spread of 7.2. Fourteen participants had maximum possible extreme score; their fit statistics could not be computed. There was one statistically significant bias/interaction of item 20 with a group of learners with less than a year of studying English. Item 20 states "I would like to study English more than any other topics." Beginners were more likely to agree with this statement than more senior groups. It's possible that beginners are more enthusiastic towards studying English than other topics because it is a relatively new pursuit for them.

4. Discussion

Even when anonymity is guaranteed and there is no incentive to answer in any particular way, responders to motivation questionnaire can be biased to make themselves look studious or to confirm to the expectations of the instructor/researcher. L2 motivation questionnaires naturally inquire about the students' desire to learn the TL, how they feel about the target language community, and how much they are devoted to their language acquisition goal. Given that most respondents were adult learners who voluntarily chose to enroll, it is somewhat expected that they would answer favorably towards the target language, the learning environment, idealizations about the language culture, and the language-speaking community. This was reflected in 75.6 percent of the responses as being either "strongly agree" or "agree" to the positively worded items (Figure 1).

In light of this tendency, there are few reasons why person misfit on survey data are difficult to interpret. First, there is a general tendency for people to want to present a favorable image of themselves in questionnaires, known as socially desirable responding (SDR) (Mortel, 2008). Socially desirable responding and wanting to meet expectations of the researcher can cause respondents to report an inflated level of their own motivation. This means that the measure of motivation may be biased towards overestimation due to the assumed expectations and wanting to portray themselves as motivated learners. Moreover, since there is no "correct" answer for each item, each participant's measure of motivation is based on how they choose to answer and not based on whether their answer was an accurate measure of their true motivation level (which can never be known apart from a secondary criterion validation). Despite these challenges, extreme misfits do avail some interpretability. For example, both person number 19 and 48 had the highest underfitting of Infit Zstd of 3.6. Person 19's response to 24-items were mostly 1s and 3s except item 8 which had a response of 5. Closer examination shows that a response of 5 to item 8 "If I fail to learn English, I'll disappointment lots of other people" contradicts a neutral response of 3 on item 7, "I study English because friends and family think it's important." However, it is also plausible that this is *not* contradictory at all. The expression "other people" in item 8 do not necessarily include "friends or family" though that interpretation is somewhat unlikely. A more plausible explanation is that even if the two terms are indeed equal, Person 19 might have felt sure that failing in English will disappoint his/her friends or family but still felt ambivalent about whether he/she was studying English because friends and family think it's important. A similar phenomenon is observed for Person 48. Person 48's responses were mostly 5s, expect items 9 ("Learning English is important because the people that I respect think that

I should learn English"), 11 ("Lots of people expect me to learn English"), and 12 ("Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English"), which were all marked as 1s on Ought-to-Self statements. Person 48 strongly disagreed that he/she was learning English because of the expectations of others or because other people will respect him/her more. These responses appear to contradict 5s on an item that says "I study English because friends and family think it's important" and also on an item that says "Studying English is important in order to gain approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss." However, once again in the participant 48's mind, these statements may be referring to separate situations and not indicative of the same phenomenon. The case of participant 48 shows an example of important diagnostic analysis of individual participant afforded by the Rasch model because a lot of times individual anomalies like these would be averaged away into the data, or just considered problematic as simply "outliers" and omitted from the dataset altogether.

The first research question asked about the motivation makeup of ESL students based on Dörnyei's L2MSS. The sample of ESL students in this study demonstrated that their source of motivation was mostly from the Learning Experience and the quality of instruction received in the ESL classes. The Ought-to-Self was the least motivating source for the participants. Another research question was about the role of length of study on learners' motivation as defined by the components of L2MSS. It appears that there were not enough significant interactions between the items and the length of study to support the claim that motivation is dynamic. Thus, based on this set of data motivational makeup of student who had more years of studying English did not appear to be different from those who were beginning learners.

One methodological implication of this study was on how the Rasch model can be used in survey data comprised of sections that measure separate constructs. The best method for analyzing survey data was to include the subsections as a separate facet. Model 1 provided the most useful information and insight into understanding the functioning of items that purported to measure different elements of motivation. Model 2 provided similar information regarding person and item fit as model 1, but an analysis of subsections was missing. In addition, item misfits on Model 2 were misrepresentative of the underlying composite constructs that make up the survey. Finally, Model 3 proved to be the least useful model in terms of interpretability. By dividing the total number of items into its composites and running the analysis as separate sample, a substantial amount of person measures could not be computed. A lot of logit measures became maximum or minimum values because there was not enough items in each subsection

to prevent maximum or minimum value responses. This meant key summary statistics of four separate iterations of Model 3 could not be properly interpreted since maximum and minimum measures do not contribute to Rasch model estimates. It also reduces the data so much that it makes the construct within each component too restricted in a theoretical sense and does not allow for much room for measurement error. Finally, from a pedagogical standpoint, this study highlights the importance of the learner's L2 experience established through the teacher. According to the findings of this study, the role of the instructor and the quality of instruction were extremely important in influencing the motivation of the learner. Experience was the most influential source of motivation which was greater than the role play by one's family obligations, intended effort, and their imagined ideal self. This is commonly supported phenomena in SLA literate; for example, Ushioda (2005) investigated the role of motivation for a self-paced online language course, and the results showed that the instructor was influential in affecting student's motivation to learn.

5. Conclusions

There were two limitations of the study. The first was the limited knowledge of English for low proficiency level participants. Because the survey was in English, for beginner level participants the meaning of the items may have been unclear and this could have results in inaccurate response in the data which could have led to either overfitting (e.g., series of 5s across the board) or underfitting (random responses). The second limitation was the implementation of length of study as a dummy variable. By dummy coding the participants' length of study into three levels, the continuous ratio scale of length in years was forced to become nominal. Unlike gender, race, or political affiliation, length in years is more appropriately considered as ordinal data, thus dummy coding the variable comes at the price of losing continuous interval information. A better way to examine the interaction effect of items with length of study would have been to keep the variable as a numeric ratio, which could have revealed more about its interaction with the functioning of the items.

The motivation survey examined in this study showed that learners are heavily influenced by their learning experience. In fact, the learning experience may be more important than one's Ideal-Self, or one's Ought-to-Self. The finding speaks to the importance of instruction and the quality of the learning environment as one of the most important motivating sources for learners. Regarding the dynamic nature of motivation, not enough evidence was found in this study to indicate that length of study interacted with motivation to any great nor systematic degree. This could be a direction for future longitudinal research since cross-sectional data are

not accurate representation of developmental changes through time. Given the literature on L2 motivation, surveys should be broken into subsections that are composites of the L2 motivation theory. Hence, MFRM by subcomponents provided the best analysis. A unidimensional measure of motivation is not as useful or insightful as a composite understanding of parts (or subsections) that work together to create learner's overall level of motivation. Division of survey data by section if appropriate decreases item misfit but may increase person misfit due to the conflicting dimensionality of the survey's underlying structure. Finally, interpretation of person misfit on motivation surveys is subjective because there is no single "correct" answer and seemingly contradicting statements can have plausible interpretations. Overall, this study demonstrates MFRM as a powerful diagnostic tool for analyzing how the items in questionnaire/survey within the scale are working together according to the theoretical constructs it purports to measure.

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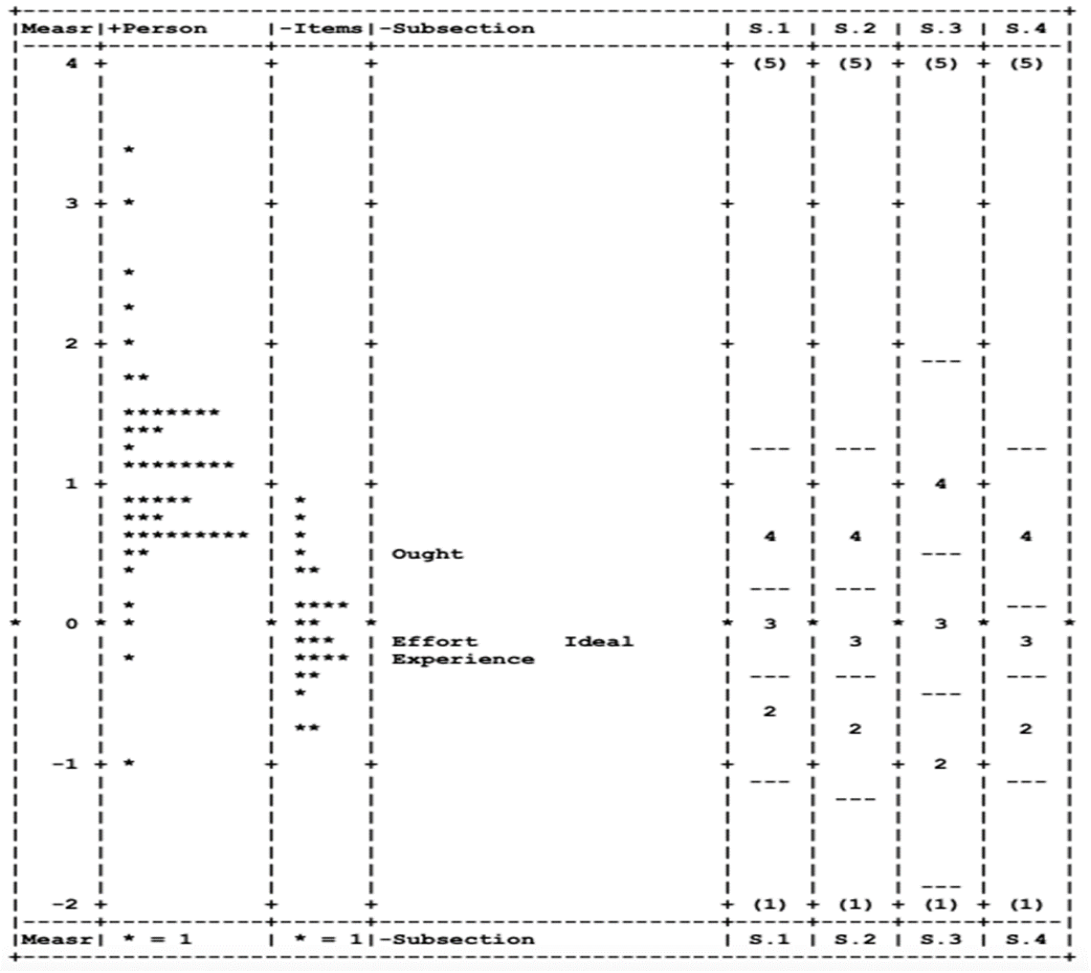
A**ppendix A: Facet Map**

Vertical = (1*,2*,3A,S) Yardstick (columns lines low high extreme)= 0,8,-2,4,End



Research Literacy: Resources for English Language Teaching Professionals

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Abstract

Research literacy (RL) has become a critical topic in English language teaching. Unfortunately, this is mainly due to the fact that so many English language teachers are not research literate. In other words, many English language teachers lack the knowledge and skills to conduct research with their students in their classrooms or understand how the research of others effects their teaching and their students' learning. The purpose of this chapter is to critically examine the status of RL in ELT. After defining what RL is, we will discuss why it is important that teachers are research literate, and we will examine some of the barriers to teachers becoming research literate. We will then propose a course of action to improve RL amongst teachers, such as devising a Research Competency Framework, and helping teachers to become more research literate. We will then move on to report on a number of professional development initiatives designed specifically to improve RL amongst English language teachers in the region.

Keywords: Research, research literacy, English language teaching, research framework

Introduction

Within the field of language teaching and learning, research means many things. In the early 1980s, research in our field meant linguistic analysis, case studies or statistical studies but in the past three decades, the variety of research types has proliferated greatly. The authors have seen new developments in quantitative research methods, and much expansion in the options available in qualitative research methods, as well as the appearance of mixed methods studies which have been used to explain and justify what research literacy means to a typical faculty member. However, there is hardly any research that has been done in the Gulf with regards to understanding research literacy specifically meant for English language teachers in higher education institutions

2 Background Literature

2.1 What is 'Research Literacy'?

In the Introduction to Coombe et al (2012), the authors addressed the issues involved in the notion of "assessment literacy," which is a topic with a large and well-developed literature backing it up (see also Brown, 2013: 9-13). The authors (Brown & Coombe, 2015) began to wonder if any work had been done about a parallel concept that might be coined "Research Literacy." In a review of the literature, they discovered very few books and articles and those they did find were at best tangentially related, focusing on statistical literacy, and the separate methodological frameworks of qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. There was only one volume by Brown and Coombe (2015) that centered around helping language teaching professionals and students develop their research skills.

2.2 Why is research literacy important?

According to Shank and Brown (2007, p. 22), "people who are research literate can read many types of research reports and articles, and benefit in a variety of ways from the practice. One of the basic ways to benefit is to extract information—that is, to be an effective and efficient consumer. We will begin with the process of mastering the art of being a research consumer, and then build upon these skills until we are able to read critically."

They also describe four basic principles that are essential to research literacy:

- It takes skill to read educational research reports;
- Educational research operates within a broad foundation of ideas;
- Literate consumers of research know how educational research is created;
- The article is the basic form of educational research writing (pp. 8-13).

Stiggins (2007, p. 2) discusses the skills required to be assessment literate. Drawing on those ideas and our own experiences with research, especially in writing this chapter, we came up with a similar list of the skills that we believe are necessary for language teaching professionals to be considered research literate. These are the ability to:

- Understand what data-gathering strategies can be used to collect dependable and valid information for research;

- Recognize well formulated research questions and how they differ for qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research;
- Know how data can be analyzed in various research traditions in order to address such research questions adequately;
- Recognize sound research interpretations that are justified by research results;
- Understand the general differences between sound and unsound research and read critically;
- Communicate effectively with others about research results that they have read;
- Use research and research results to maximize the effectiveness of teaching and learning.

3 Teacher research engagement

3.1 The Benefits of Doing Research (Sheetz & Coombe, 2015)

Advocates of teacher research cite its many advantages and describe it as a valuable form of professional development. Zeichner (1999) favors teacher research as it allows teachers to become better at what they do and to find their voice (Rainey, 2000). In addition, it helps teachers become more flexible and open to new ideas. A third advantage is that it narrows the gap between teachers' aspirations and realization. Zeichner (1999) went on to state that teacher inquiry heightens the quality of student learning and stimulates positive changes in the culture and productivity of schools. Teacher research also raises the status of the teaching profession in society. A final advantage is that teacher research produces knowledge about teaching and learning that is useful to teachers, policy makers, academic researchers, and teacher educators (Xerri & Pioquinto, 2018).

The literature clearly shows that language teachers who have carried out research often report significant changes to their understanding of teaching (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Studies have also found that teachers who engaged in research have experienced professional and personal growth and a decrease in feelings of frustration and isolation (Goswami & Stillman, 1987; Noffke, 1997; Oja & Pine, 1987). Research by Boudah and Knight (1996) reported positive effects from participation in teacher research in terms of improved teacher attitudes toward research, increased feelings of self-efficacy related to low-achieving students, and increases in positive interactions with students. Finally, teacher research processes may also help to create

a positive school culture—one that is supportive of teacher reflection and experimentation (Francis, Hirsch, & Rowland, 1994).

For many of us, improving our practice is the primary reason or motivation for involvement in research projects. Teachers are interested in research because it encourages them to reflect on their practice which ultimately leads to professional growth.

3.2 The Obstacles that Hinder Teacher Research Engagement (Sheetz & Coombe, 2015)

Despite nearly widespread agreement on its importance, research is often a much-neglected area in teaching practice especially in the Gulf higher educational sector. There are a number of possible reasons for this neglect, one of which deals with problems of terminology (McGee, 2007). McGee feels that one reason why teachers often *fear* research is that the terminology used in association with research philosophies are often confusing, contradictory, and not easily accessible to the average practitioner. For example, Khun's term *paradigm* (1970) has been widely used and cited in the social sciences, and he suggests various meanings of *paradigm*, which include ideas such as a set of symbolic generalizations, shared commitments to models of shared values about theory and science in general. However, Seliger and Shohamy (1989) use the term *parameters* for similar ideas in association with conceptual frameworks. Moreover, in second language research, terms such as *parameter* and *paradigm* are often used to refer to research methods or strategies.

Borg (2003, 2006) points to several factors that hinder teachers' research efforts and engagement. He cites the following as some of the major inhibitors to teachers successfully engaging in research:

1. Inaccessibility
2. Lack of Local Relevance
3. Lack of Narrative
4. Lack of Ownership
5. Lack of Credibility
6. Pressure
7. Implied Inadequacy
8. Self-image
9. Lack of Recognition

10. Lack of Technical Knowledge

Borg notes that teachers often feel that research is inaccessible to them (p. 1). Their belief is that researchers often write for other researchers rather than for the teachers they are trying to help. This results in much of the published research being not accessible conceptually or linguistically to the teachers.

Another reason for the lack of teacher engagement in research is the feeling that much of the research does not relate to the teachers own teaching/learning contexts. There is some empirical evidence to suggest that teachers are most convinced by research that is (a) specific; (b) contextualized; (c) observable; and (d) testable (Borg, 2003, p. 2). Research conducted by researchers often lacks specificity and does not enable teachers to relate it to their own contexts. To this end, teachers are less likely to be convinced of its relevance and therefore less inclined to read it.

Lack of ownership in the research process is cited as another major inhibitor of teacher research engagement. When teachers are not involved in the research process from the outset, the process can come across as a top-down one in which teachers feel no ownership. This lack of ownership can result in disinterest or even negativity on the part of the teachers.

A lack of the previous three factors (relevance, narrative and ownership) can contribute to a general lack of credibility which research often has in the eyes of the teachers. Teachers often feel that researchers—because of their lack of classroom experience—do not have the credibility to make decisions and recommendations for classroom practice. Such sentiments are based on the belief that researchers live in an *ivory tower* which is far removed from the classroom and have no real knowledge about what happens in the classroom on a day-to-day basis. This sentiment is reflected in research conducted by Crookes and Arakaki (1999) which found that "many participants articulated a strong, stereotypical image of researchers as living in an ivory tower and tended to feel that only working teachers could have credible opinions about good teaching" (p. 16). This sentiment was echoed by others (for example, Goswami & Stillman,1987; Mouhanna, 2009).

Another major factor cited by teachers which limits their research engagement is time pressure or time constraints. Many teachers simply feel that they do not have time for research as they are too busy with coping with the ever-increasing daily demands of their jobs (Mouhanna, 2009).

Implied inadequacy is yet another reason teachers do not conduct research. In fact, it is believed that classroom research in particular takes place to find solutions to problems that exist in the classroom and the very idea of doing research is an admission of a problem. As Borg (2003) puts it, "the suggestion that teachers engage in research, by implying they are inadequate in some way, can in fact be construed as a threat to their competence. When such attitudes prevail, research is seen as an undesirable activity to engage in" (p. 5).

Another obstacle to teacher research involvement is teacher self-image. According to Gurney (1989) teachers see themselves as *knowledge implementers* or those that put into practice the ideas created by others. Researchers are often viewed as *knowledge generators*. The belief that *there's nothing worth studying in my classroom* and *why would anyone want to hear about it?* contributes to feelings of low teacher self-image.

A feeling that academics do not take teacher research seriously is another factor that discourages teachers from conducting research. These stereotypic beliefs stem from popular generalizations about what research is. There is *Research* with a capital *R*, which is used to refer to empirical studies, with control and experimental groups, such as those reported on in journals like *TESOL Quarterly*. There is also *research* with a small *r*, to designate the studies and projects that are often carried out by classroom teachers without training in skills needed to conduct research such as statistical analyses (LoCastro, 2000). Teachers' efforts to contribute to the knowledge base in the field are often undervalued if such a view of research exists in their institutional contexts.

Others simply feel they lack the technical knowledge required to effectively carry out research on their own practice. For example, they may lack knowledge about research design or data analysis techniques.

A final yet very serious obstacle to research engagement might be the intimidation teachers feel by the process itself and by the ethical procedures necessary to conduct quality research. Understanding and being able to implement ethical processes needed like getting permission from their local institution, obtaining human subjects review and informed consent are often daunting processes for a novice researcher and as such could prevent teachers from further research engagement.

Language teachers who involve students in their research will inevitably encounter ethical issues. These teachers already have a duty of care towards their students and should simply exercise professional judgement when planning research that will result in innovations in their

teaching. Thus, in our opinion, the vast majority of teacher research projects likely require no additional ethical permissions.

What probably is important, given that most teachers do not have a background in research, is that teachers have some guidance on ethical issues they might not have considered and a clear pathway to seek advice if ethical issues arise as part of their research projects. Therefore, it would be useful for schools to have guidelines laid out in advance, especially a clear, straightforward policy on research ethics – agreed by the school and shared with teachers who are engaged in research.

There are three main areas of ethics in research that teachers may need to consider when planning research projects: minimizing harm, informed consent and confidentiality. Perhaps the most important ethical rule in research is 'do no harm'. So, research is deemed ethical if no physical, emotional or mental harm comes to the participants. In research, participants should be given sufficient information about the research so that they can make an informed decision as to whether they want to take part. The permission that they give the researcher to use their data for research purposes is called informed consent. Confidentiality is an area where most schools or institutions already have some policy in place. As such, most teacher research projects will simply need to comply with these already existing policies.

4 Research on Teacher Motivators and Obstacles to Research Involvement

Despite the prevalence of research studies highlighting the importance of research in teachers' careers, there is substantially less focus on teachers' beliefs about the factors which encourage and/or inhibit teacher research. In a study by Kennedy (1997), teachers found that much of the research out there lacked authority, was often irrelevant, and did not address teachers' concerns. Another finding pointed to the fact that research findings in general were often too difficult for teachers to understand.

In a study by Mouhanna (2009), teachers in an intensive English program in the Gulf were asked to identify motivating factors as well as obstacles for conducting research in their contexts. His findings indicate that most teachers were motivated by intrinsic factors to conduct research. More specifically, teachers reported that their main motivations for conducting research were self-managed professional development, to improve the teaching situation and to solve practical problems in their own classrooms. Those same teachers reported that the main obstacles they faced when involving themselves in research were overcoming time constraints and a workplace culture that didn't encourage research.

5 Research Competency Guidelines

In order to improve the research literacy skills of English language teachers, we need to follow an appropriate course of action. Firstly, it is necessary to have a set of research competencies that all language teachers must have. We then need to advise teachers on how to attain these competencies, and most importantly we must provide learning opportunities for teachers to reach these research competencies.

A tentative list of the minimal essential research literacy competencies might look something like this:

To be considered research literate, English language teachers need to be able to:

- Understand and communicate the goals and criteria of sound research practice
- Design appropriate research tasks and tools
- Incorporate research/inclusion of research findings as part of effective teaching and learning
- Analyze and interpret research results effectively
- Recognize unethical and inappropriate research practice

6 Developing Research Literacy amongst English Language Teachers

Having defined the concept of research literacy and provided a rationale for its importance for language teachers, in this next section, the authors outline how language teachers can reach the competencies mentioned above. In other words, what can we do to provide teachers with learning opportunities so they can become research literate.

6.1 Graduate and Post-Graduate Programs

One of the most effective places for teachers to learn about research is when they do a research project for their degree. Master's programs, however, vary in whether they require a primary research project in the form of a thesis or dissertation. More commonly in this era of graduate education, Master's degrees are based on taught modules and other programs that are research based. We have found in a focus group discussion on research literacy that the majority of those teachers who participated chose a taught Master's degree rather than a research-based one. Teachers chose a taught Master's program based on a series of seminars, lectures, and activities that would help them acquire more advanced subject-knowledge in their fields of study.

Therefore, based on this conclusion, few teachers, even recent graduates, have research experience and lack research literacy even after a Master's degree in their fields.

6.2 Training within the workplace

One of the best places to learn about research is professional development courses offered from your workplace**.** Many higher education institutions in the Gulf have an online professional development portal for faculty to receive training to develop their research literacy skills. One such training at our own institution is the Research Forum series. Our institution, a major federal higher education institution in the Gulf, has initiated a Research Forum series where once a week, faculty share their research projects with their fellow teachers and students. Such events have helped faculty to learn about research projects in different departments and to initiate interdisciplanry collaborations.

Other training on offer is through the Lynda and Linked In Learning platform where teachers register and complete online courses. Teachers have the option of learning at their own pace through video lectures and online courses. There are over 2, 753 courses on research skills (as of August 30th, 2019). Lynda/Linked In Learning offers seven learning paths on topics such as 'Advance your skills as a user of research', 'Data science skills', and 'Five pathways to train IT specialists to understand how users interact with their design applications'. A search for qualitative research yielded (as of August 30th, 2019) 283 course resullts which primarily focused on focus group interviews and marketing. Some of the relevant courses focused on the 'differences between qualitative and quantitative research' and a couple of courses on how to do 'data analysis using the NVivo and SPSS software'. Even though an initial search yielded a seemingly large number of online courses and learning paths, those courses are not building teachers' research literacy and the advanced nature of some of the course titles could be confusing for teachers who lack knowledge about basic research methods.

6.3 Online Courses

A study by Fan, Wang and Wang (2011) found that a web-based model helped in-service secondary teachers improve their assessment knowledge and enhanced their perspectives on testing. Similar online trainings could help teachers with their research literacy. Online trainings aimed at improving teachers' research literacy include:

6.3.1 Coursera MOOC courses: The highest rated courses on research include topics on the following areas: evaluation, analysis, data anlysis, data structure, research, writing, ststistics,

statistical analysis, data collection, data clusting algorithems, data collection, research design, research methods, statistical methods, and sampling statistics. Available at:

https://www.coursera.org/courses?query=research&

6.3.2 Udemy: Udemy is another popular online learning platform. Some of the research related courses include: Research Methods for Business Students, Custom SEO Strategy: Keyword research, audit and link business, Qualitative data analysis, Ultimate web content writing, Smart marketing with price psychology. More information on Udemy courses can be found at:https://www.udemy.com/courses/search/?src=ukw&q=research

6.3.3 Lynda: A search on the Lynda.com platform revealed a number of courses that could be used by teachers to obtain or increase their research literacy skills. Available courses (as of August 19, 2019) are on SPSS for academic research, UX research, learning design research, writing a research paper, academic research foundations: Quantitative, academic research foundations: Qualitative, marketing foundations, interviewing, business development: researching your market, etc. In addition, there are short videos on topics such as: research fundamentals, user research, research cadence, researching the topic, research goals, researching the opportunity, the importance of research, research and development, researching the details, researching the company, researching the subject, research solutions, researching and preparing, using research, doing research. A more extensive list of courses devoted to research can be found at: https://www.lynda.com/search?q=research

6.3.4 Books on Research

There are many books that teachers will likely find useful in developing their research literacy skills. A look in all the current book catalogs from the major publishing houses in ELT will turn up a wide variety of both practical and research-oriented volumes on the topic of research literacy. Some of the classics that the authors find both comprehensive and accessible and are found in their own personal professional libraries (both print-based and free, Open Access) include:

Print-based Resources:

Avineri, N. (2017). *Research Methods for Language Teaching: Inquiry, Process, and Synthesis* (Applied Linguistics for the Language Classroom). New York, NY: Macmillan Education,

Brown, J.D. (1988). *Understanding Research in Second Language Learning: A Teacher's Guide to Statistics and Research Design*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, J.D. & Coombe, C. (2015). *The Cambridge Guide to Research in Language Teaching and Learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Hatch, E. & Farhady, H. (1982). *Research Design and Statistics for Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge, MA.: Newbury House.

Hatch, E. & Lazaraton, A. (1991). *The Research Manual: Design and Statistics for Applied Linguistics.* New York, NY: Newbury House.

McDonough & McDonough, S. (1997). *Research Methods for English Language Teachers*. London, UK: Arnold.

Nunan, D. (1997). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Sealey, A. (2010). *Researching English Language: A Resource Book for Students*. Abington on Thames, UK: Taylor & Francis.

Free Open Access e-books:

Griffee, D. (2012). *An Introduction to Second Language Research Methods: Design and Data*. Berkeley, CA.: TESL-EJ Publications.

Mackay, J., Birello, M. & Xerri, D. (2018). *ELT Research in Action: Bridging the Gap Between Research and Classroom Practice*. UK: IATEFL.

Smith, R. & Hughes, J. (In press). *Mentoring Teachers to Research Their Classrooms: A Practical Handbook*. New Delhi: British Council.

Smith, R., & Rebolledo, P. (2018). *A Handbook for Exploratory Action Research*. London: British Council. Available at https://goo.gl/iWDR5m

Xerri, D. & Pioquinto, C. (2018). *Becoming Research Literate: Supporting Teacher Research in English Language Teaching*. Sursee, Switzerland: English Teachers Association Switzerland.

Another good source of information on research can be found in the proceedings of conferences, especially those of conferences like the Language Testing Research Colloquium (LTRC), the American Association of Educational Research (AERA), and more locally in the proceedings of professional associations like the Current Trends in English Language Testing (CTELT)

Conference published by the TESOL Arabia Testing, Assessment and Evaluation and Research SIGs (Coombe & Davidson, 2013; Coombe et al, 2015).

6.3.5 Research Journals

It should be noted that the average classroom teacher would likely find it difficult to comprehend articles in these types of journals, and the content may be too specialized for the needs of most classroom teachers. However, as a teacher's research literacy skills develop, they may find major journals of our profession, like *TESOL Quarterly*, *Language Testing* or the *Modern Language Journal* useful and informative. A more accessible journal like the *ELT Journal* features research-based articles that are directly linked to practice. *ELT Journal* is a quarterly publication for all those involved in English Language Teaching (ELT), whether as a second, additional, or foreign language, or as an international Lingua Franca. The Journal links the everyday concerns of practitioners with insights gained from relevant academic disciplines such as applied linguistics, education, psychology, and sociology.

According to Smith (2007) "The journal that gave its name to our field of activity recently reached the age of sixty - in October 1946, the first issue of *English Language Teaching*, now known as *ELT Journal*, was sent out around the world from the British Council's offices in Hanover Street, London. Since then the journal has continuously served as a focal point for the profession, to the extent indeed that its title, abbreviated to 'ELT', began to be adopted as an umbrella term for the whole enterprise of teaching English as a foreign or second language."

In addition to these journals specifically devoted to disseminating empirical research on various aspects of English language teaching and learning and assessment, research-based articles can also be found in other major journals of the field including but not limited to, *Foreign Language Annals*, *Modern Language Journal*, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *Assessing Writing*, and *Applied Linguistics.*

A list of journals, either print-based or open access, can be found in the Appendix and at the following websites:

- https://www.eltresearchbites.com/open-access-journals/
- http://pbi.ar-raniry.ac.id/resources/list-of-refereed-elt-journals/
- https://eltjam.com/5-useful-online-journals-for-elt-professionals/
- https://www.diigo.com/list/nathanghall/elt-journals

6.3.6 Attending workshops and talks on research or research-related topics at conferences

Teachers can also study independently to help develop their research skills. For example, they can do a face-to-face research course. One of the most common professional development activities for teachers is attending pre- or in-service training workshops and academic conferences. Research is often a timely topic or theme at these events so attending workshops and talks are often a beneficial activity and one that can help teachers become more knowledgeable about research.

6.3.7 Attending specialized research conferences

There are a number of specialized research conferences worldwide that teachers can participate in. Using a website that provides you with a conference alert is helpful. An example of such a website is Conal Confererences Alert found at:

https://conferencealerts.com/topic-listing?topic=Teaching%20and%20Learning

Another useful site is the Center for Higher Education Research and Scholarship, a website on which a compiled list of events and conferences can be found. This site is available at:

https://www.imperial.ac.uk/education-research/events/education-conferences/

In our review of some of the most important conferences we draw your attention to the following which might prove useful to teachers wanting to learn more about research and/or share their own research findings:

- **International Conference on Research in Education, Teaching and Learning (ICETL) available at:** https://www.icetl.org/
- European Educational Research Association (EERA) available at: https://eera-ecer.de/
- International Conference on Education (ICEDU) available at:

  https://educationconference.co/
- FLE Learning: Institute for Research, Learning, and Development (FLE) available at:

  https://www.flelearning.ca/
- Association of international Education Administrators (AIEA) available at:

  https://www.aieaworld.org/upcoming-conferences

6.3.8 Joining research associations and/or organizations

Most teachers join professional associations and/or organizations relevant to their field of expertise and interest. Within these associations and organizations, teachers often have the opportunity to join Special Interest Groups (SIGs) devoted to developing their knowledge and skills in certain areas. Teachers can develop their research skills and knowledge by joining associations such as the following:

- Social Research Association (SRA)

  found at: http://the-sra.org.uk/join-options/

- World Researchers Associations

  found at: https://worldresearchersassociations.com/

- Government Research Association

  found at: https://graonline.org/why-join-gra/

- World Education Research Association (WERA)

  found at: https://www.weraonline.org/

7 Research Literacy Resources Project at a UAE-based University

To address the perceived lack of research literacy skills within English language and General Studies faculty at our institution, a large federal university in the UAE, a team of faculty (lead by the authors of this chapter) decided to conduct a study on teacher research engagement and research literacy. To this end, they developed a focus group protocol on research literacy and engagement. Initial focus groups were held with those faculty who we defined as being 'research ready.' The team defined 'research ready' as those who want to conduct research and feel favorably about it but feel they do not as yet have the requisite skills. Data from these initial focus groups was used compile a tentative list of the resources needed for 'research ready' faculty to get started on their research journey.

The purpose of this research was threefold, 1) investigate what research-ready Gulf-based faculty members in General Studies and/or Arts and Humanities programs know and understand about the research process; 2) Investigate what resources research-ready Gulf-based faculty need to better facilitate their research engagement and; 3) Investigate what skills research-ready Gulf-based faculty members most need to move them forward in the research process.

The resources that are in the process of being developed as part of this project on research literacy include but are not limited to the following. They are hosted on our A to Z of Research Literacy website which can be found at https://research-literacy.weebly.com/

- A glossary of research terms written in simplistic, non-technical language to help teachers and students understand important research-related terms and concepts along with classroom tasks that can be used to complement the glossary
- An ebook on Classroom Activities for the Teaching of Research which features 50+ activities written by teachers for teachers
- An online diagnostic assessment entitled "How research literate are you?"
- A pamphlet or brochure entitled "15 Characteristics of a research-literate teacher"
- A series of PPT presentations, screencasts and/or videos on research-related content to be used for professional development, training and instruction
- A manual on how to do research written for faculty who want to engage in research
- An edited volume featuring research-based studies conducted by Gulf-based faculty doing research in General Studies and/or Arts and Humanities programs
- A 'Research Hub' or specially designed space to engage faculty and students in research and research-related activities in our institution's Student Activities Area
- A website featuring resources, a blog and other multi-media
- A MOOC or online course on research literacy
- At the culmination of this project, a conference on 'Teacher Research Engagement' to be held at and hosted by our institution

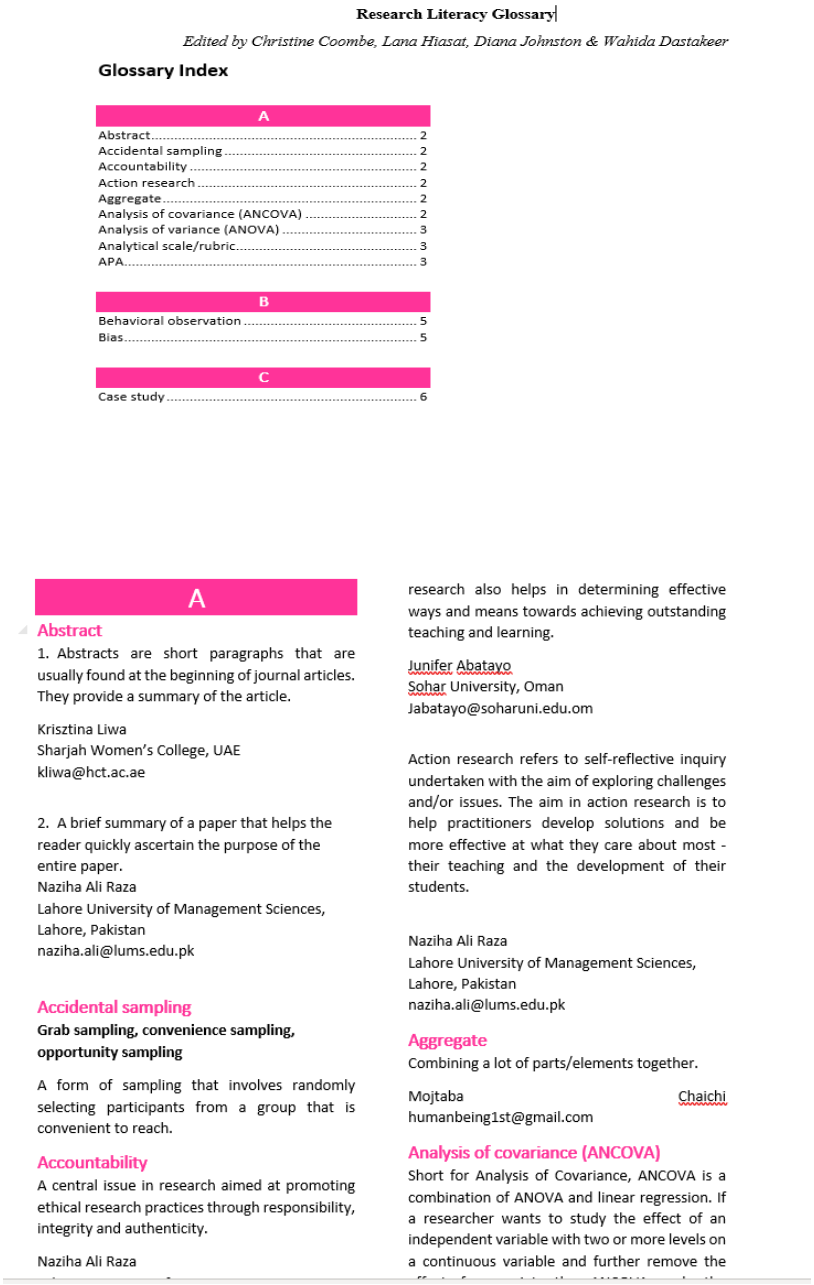
Progress on the above-mentioned resources is ongoing but what follows is a description of and sample of the resources that have been created to date.

7.1 An A to Z of Research Literacy (Coombe, Hiasat, Johnston & Dastakeer, 2018)

We firmly believe that learning the terminology and jargon of a field also means understanding the concepts represented by these terms and understanding how they are interlinked and interrelated. This glossary on research literacy contains 226 terms and their respective

definitions. The definitions represent the collective knowledge of 43 teachers from 17 different countries who responded to a call for contributions in 2017.

An A to Z of Research Literacy is the first resource developed as part of our research literacy project. It is part of a collection of resources designed to increase teacher research engagement and to help teachers increase their knowledge about research. These resources are specifically designed for teachers with all levels of research literacy especially those interested in becoming more involved in the research process. A sample of the online, hyperlinked glossary is found here. A pdf form of the glossary can be found at our website on research literacy https://research-literacy.weebly.com/



Research Literacy Glossary

Edited by Christine Coombe, Lana Hiasat, Diana Johnston & Wahida Dastakeer

Glossary Index

A

Abstract

1. Abstracts are short paragraphs that are usually found at the beginning of journal articles. They provide a summary of the article.

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2. A brief summary of a paper that helps the reader quickly ascertain the purpose of the entire paper.
Naziha Ali Raza
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naziha.ali@lums.edu.pk

Accidental sampling

Grab sampling, convenience sampling, opportunity sampling

A form of sampling that involves randomly selecting participants from a group that is convenient to reach.

Accountability

A central issue in research aimed at promoting ethical research practices through responsibility, integrity and authenticity.

Naziha Ali Raza

research also helps in determining effective ways and means towards achieving outstanding teaching and learning.

Junifer Abatayo
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Action research refers to self-reflective inquiry undertaken with the aim of exploring challenges and/or issues. The aim in action research is to help practitioners develop solutions and be more effective at what they care about most - their teaching and the development of their students.

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naziha.ali@lums.edu.pk

Aggregate

Combining a lot of parts/elements together.

Mojtaba Chaichi
humanbeing1st@gmail.com

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)

Short for Analysis of Covariance, ANCOVA is a combination of ANOVA and linear regression. If a researcher wants to study the effect of an independent variable with two or more levels on a continuous variable and further remove the

7.2 Classroom Activities E-Book on Helping Teachers Teach Research Skills

This publication, tentatively titled, *Getting English Language Teachers Research Ready* is co-edited by Christine Coombe, Lana Hiasat, Diana Johnston and Wahida Dastakeer. Once completed, it will appear as an open source publication available in both an online and downloadable e-book format at https://research-literacy.weebly.com/ .

Contributors to this e book are asked to address one or more of the following themes and write to a specified lesson plan template.

1. Defining and understanding research and research concepts
    (a) What is research?
    (b) Learning the difference between 'search' and 'research'
    (c) Differentiating between 'primary' and 'secondary' research
    (d) Introducing students to the world of research
    (e) Getting students to replicate previous research
2. Preparing yourself for research
    (a) Library skills
    (b) Internet research skills
    (c) Referencing
    (d) Learning about ethics in research
3. Understanding the different types of research, methodological frameworks & data collection techniques
    (a) Demystifying qualitative and quantitative research methodological frameworks
    (b) Understanding mixed methods research
    (c) Engaging in different data collection techniques
        a. Taking part in Interviews in research
        b. Participating in focus groups
        c. Developing, administering and analyzing questionnaires/surveys

d. Using observation as a research tool

e. Testing hypotheses through experiments

4. Teacher Action Research

(a) Reasons for and benefits of action research

(b) Improving professional practice at work

(c) How to conduct an action research study

(d) Opportunities of being a participant observer

(e) Ethics and Permissions

(f) Opportunities for organizational and classroom improvements

(g) Distributing and sharing action research

5. Technology and Research

(a) Using free online tools

a. Referencing tools on Microsoft Word or Referencing Generators/Citation tools

b. Using online tools for literature reviews

c. Using tools for data analysis (Google Forms, NVivo, Survey Monkey, SPSS etc.)

d. Employing game-based learning for exam review

6. Engaging students in research

(a) Every day examples of research

(b) Replicating previous research

7. Analyzing research results

(a) Doing qualitative analysis

a. Thematic analysis

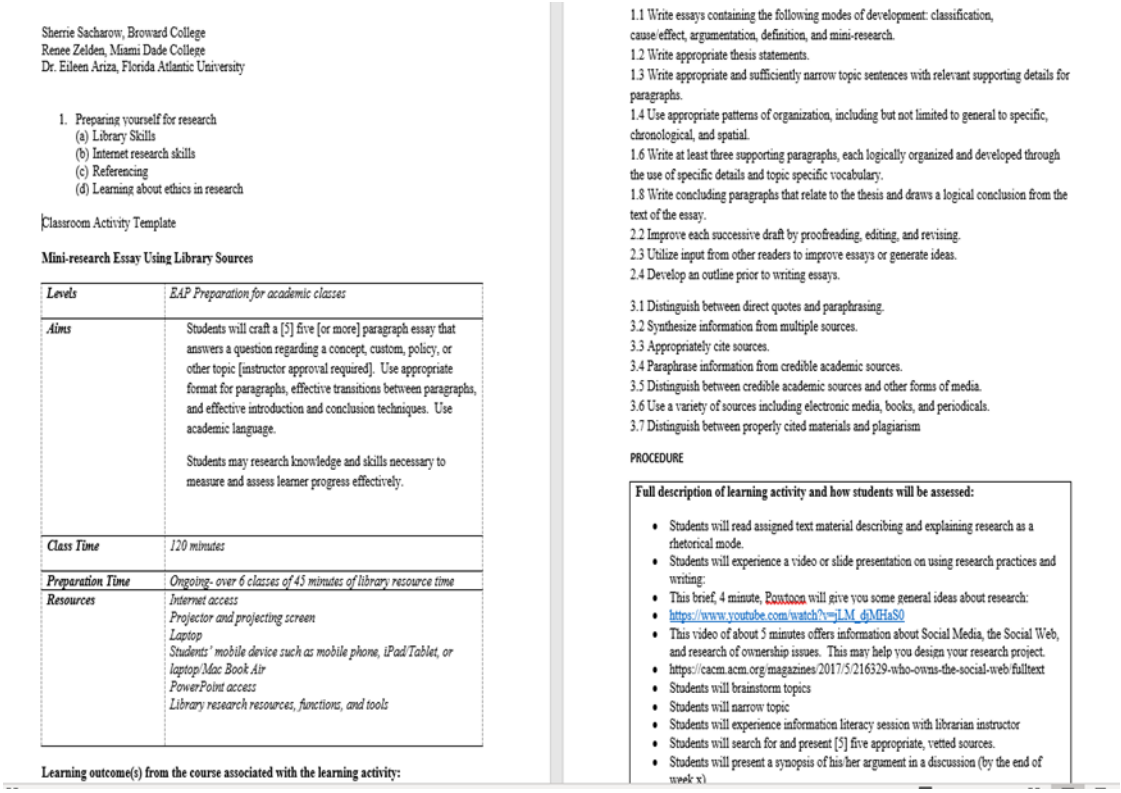
(b) Doing quantitative analysis

a. Demystifying statistics

b. Producing graphs and charts

8. Disseminating your research:
   (a) Presenting
   (b) Publishing
   (c) Discussing your research and/or research results

An excerpt of a sample activity from the 'Preparing Yourself for Research' section of the e book (Sacherov, Zelden & Ariza, 2019) is found here:



Sherrie Sacharow, Broward College
Renee Zelden, Miami Dade College
Dr. Eileen Ariza, Florida Atlantic University

1. Preparing yourself for research
   (a) Library Skills
   (b) Internet research skills
   (c) Referencing
   (d) Learning about ethics in research

Classroom Activity Template

Mini-research Essay Using Library Sources

Levels	*EAP Preparation for academic classes*
Aims	Students will craft a [5] five [or more] paragraph essay that answers a question regarding a concept, custom, policy, or other topic [instructor approval required]. Use appropriate format for paragraphs, effective transitions between paragraphs, and effective introduction and conclusion techniques. Use academic language. Students may research knowledge and skills necessary to measure and assess learner progress effectively.
Class Time	*120 minutes*
Preparation Time	*Ongoing- over 6 classes of 45 minutes of library resource time*
Resources	*Internet access* *Projector and projecting screen* *Laptop* *Students' mobile device such as mobile phone, iPad/Tablet, or laptop/Mac Book Air* *PowerPoint access* *Library research resources, functions, and tools*

Learning outcome(s) from the course associated with the learning activity:

1.1 Write essays containing the following modes of development: classification, cause/effect, argumentation, definition, and mini-research.
1.2 Write appropriate thesis statements.
1.3 Write appropriate and sufficiently narrow topic sentences with relevant supporting details for paragraphs.
1.4 Use appropriate patterns of organization, including but not limited to general to specific, chronological, and spatial.
1.6 Write at least three supporting paragraphs, each logically organized and developed through the use of specific details and topic specific vocabulary.
1.8 Write concluding paragraphs that relate to the thesis and draws a logical conclusion from the text of the essay.
2.2 Improve each successive draft by proofreading, editing, and revising.
2.3 Utilize input from other readers to improve essays or generate ideas.
2.4 Develop an outline prior to writing essays.

3.1 Distinguish between direct quotes and paraphrasing.
3.2 Synthesize information from multiple sources.
3.3 Appropriately cite sources.
3.4 Paraphrase information from credible academic sources.
3.5 Distinguish between credible academic sources and other forms of media.
3.6 Use a variety of sources including electronic media, books, and periodicals.
3.7 Distinguish between properly cited materials and plagiarism

PROCEDURE

Full description of learning activity and how students will be assessed:

- Students will read assigned text material describing and explaining research as a rhetorical mode.
- Students will experience a video or slide presentation on using research practices and writing:
- This brief, 4 minute, Powtoon will give you some general ideas about research:
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jLM_djMHaS0
- This video of about 5 minutes offers information about Social Media, the Social Web, and research of ownership issues. This may help you design your research project.
- https://cacm.acm.org/magazines/2017/5/216329-who-owns-the-social-web/fulltext
- Students will brainstorm topics
- Students will narrow topic
- Students will experience information literacy session with librarian instructor
- Students will search for and present [5] five appropriate, vetted sources.
- Students will present a synopsis of his/her argument in a discussion (by the end of week x)

8 Future Challenges for Research Literacy in ELT

To keep up with the many research-based initiatives that are happening within ELT it is necessary to engage with all the professional development activities that have been mentioned in this chapter. It is also important that institutions create graduate programs that focus on research and research-related fields to provide graduates with a strong grounding in empirical studies. Having a future cadre of language teachers that have been trained with both international and localized research content would be a much-needed breakthrough in the field.

It is also imperative for academics within their respective regions to publish books and journal articles showcasing the depth and breadth of research-based language teaching, learning and

assessment work being done in their countries. An ultimate goal, of course, would be the creation of our own international and then regional specialized professional associations and journals featuring research-based teacher inquiry.

9 Conclusion

The lack of research literacy amongst English language teachers worldwide is a major concern that 21st Century English language teaching specialists need to help address. The ongoing quest to help teachers improve their knowledge about and experience with different types of research is a crucial one and one that can be enhanced with some of the professional development activities and resources that we have discussed in this chapter. It is hoped that these resources will help those teachers who are 'research ready' to get started on their research journey.

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Appendix: **A List of Open-Access Refereed ELT Journals (adapted from Widodo, 2008)**

This list is devoted to providing information on free-online-access refereed journals to language teachers, teacher educators, scholars, and researchers. For undergraduate and graduate students majoring in TESOL/TESL/TEFL and English education, the list is of great help to getting scholarly sources for research/final-term paper, thesis, and dissertation projects. The articles of the respective journals below are fully downloaded in either an html or PDF format. The web addresses of the journals are provided to allow a quick search. The following journals are alphabetically arranged.

(1) **Asian EFL Journal (ISSN 1738-1460)**

http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/index.php

The Asian EFL Journal is published monthly and presents information, theories, research, methods and materials related to language acquisition and language learning. This journal is one of the world's leading refereed and indexed journals for teaching and learning English. It

provides a unique and major forum devoted to discussions on English as an International Language research and development. Our global readership includes linguists, teachers, students of language acquisition and others with a professional interest in English second language acquisition. Journals are produced on-line and in hard cover. Our goal is to bring the highest quality SLA research to the global academic audience.

(2) **Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching (ISSN: 0219-9874)** *http://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/main.htm*

e-FLT is a peer-reviewed academic journal published by the Centre for Language Studies of the National University of Singapore. Its primary objective is to disseminate scholarly information on research and development in the field of Second and Foreign Language Teaching and Learning in Asia and beyond. It publishes articles and book reviews in English as well as in any of the following nine languages taught at the Centre for Language Studies: Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Indonesian, Malay, Tamil, Thai and Vietnamese. It will also welcome any information on upcoming academic conferences, seminars or symposiums as a service to its readers. It is unique in that it is multilingual and practices the policy of accepting and publishing articles in ten different languages.

(3) **English Teaching: Practice & Critique (ISSN: 1175-8708)** *http://education.waikato.ac.nz/research/journal/index.php?id=1*

English Teaching: Practice and Critique is a peer-reviewed journal aimed at encouraging critical reflective practice and classroom-based research. It seeks to promote theorising about English/literacy that is grounded in a range of contexts: classrooms, schools and wider educational constituencies. It provides a place where authors from a range of backgrounds can identify matters of common concern and thereby foster professional communities and networks. Where possible, it encourages comparative approaches to topics and issues. To this end, each issue deals with a distinct topic or issue. The “Topical Articles” section of the journal is peer-reviewed, and there is also a peer review process for “Classroom Narratives”, a section which provides a forum for the stories and concerns of classroom teachers to be aired and shared. In addition, the journal invites “Articles in Dialogue”, which may not be on the topic of the issue but can be seen as entering into dialogue with articles in preceding issues. The journal also invites “Review Articles”, where reviewers nominated by the Review Editor engage with recently published texts which are deemed to be pertinent to the journal’s readership.

(4) English Teaching Forum (ISSN: 1559-6621)
http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum-journal.html

English Teaching Forum is an international, refereed journal published by the U.S. Department of State for teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL). Forum accepts submissions of previously unpublished articles from English teachers, teacher trainers, and program administrators on a wide variety of topics in second/foreign language education, including principles and methods of language teaching; activities and techniques for teaching the language skills and subskills; classroom-based studies and action research; needs analysis, curriculum and syllabus design; assessment, testing, and evaluation; teacher training and development; materials writing; and English for Specific Purposes. Most of the articles published in Forum are submitted by its readers.

(5) **Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication (ISSN 1083-6101)**
http://jcmc.indiana.edu/

The *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication* is a web-based journal that publishes scholarship on computer-mediated communication. Broadly interdisciplinary in scope, the JCMC publishes mostly empirical research making use of social science methods, which should be presented according to the accepted standards for each method. Although the field of computer-mediated communication research is still young, successful original research submissions are expected to include comprehensive literature reviews, and to be theoretically grounded and methodologically rigorous, in addition to advancing new knowledge in innovative ways. Reviews, syntheses, and meta-analyses of prior research are also welcome, as are proposals for special issues.

(6) **Journal of Effective Teaching (ISSN: 1935-7869)**
http://www.uncw.edu/cte/ET/

The Journal of Effective Teaching is a peer reviewed electronic journal devoted to the discussion of teaching excellence in colleges and universities. JET will publish two regular issues per year and possibly a special issue on a current topic. The regular issues will contain articles in two broad Content Areas: effective teaching and the scholarship of teaching. We invite contributors to share their insights in pedagogy, innovations in teaching and learning, and classroom experiences in the form of a scholarly communication. We are particularly interested in topics addressed in the particular Content Areas described at this site, including empirical research on pedagogy, innovations in teaching and learning, and classroom experiences.

(7) **Journal of English as an International Language (ISSN: 1718-2298)** *http://www.eilj.com/*

The *Journal of English as an International Language* is a refereed publication which aims at providing on-line access to all those involved in the research, teaching and learning of English as an International language. The Journal studies the structure and development of English across the globe, and in particular, its relationship to and effect on cultures and other languages. The Journal of English as an International Language is the sister journal to the long established Asian EFL Journal.

(8) **Journal of Language and Learning (ISSN: 1740-4983)** http://www.shakespeare.uk.net/journal/jllearn_home.htm

This journal belongs to e-JLL journals associated with *Journal of Language and Linguistics and Journal of Language and Literature* is free access refereed journals. The Journals will initially be published online. The Journals will appear in regular issues; however, there may also be special issues reflecting areas of particular academic interest. The scope of the journals includes both theoretical and applied topics in language studies, linguistics, literature and language teaching.

(9) **Journal of Language and Linguistics (ISSN: 1475-8989)** *http://www.shakespeare.uk.net/journal/jlling_home.html*

See Journal of Language and Learning.

(10) **Journal of Language and Literature (ISSN: 1475-8989)** http://www.shakespeare.uk.net/journal/jllit_home.html

See Journal of Language and Learning.

(11) **Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies (ISSN: 1305-578X)** http://www.jlls.org/index.htm

Journal of Language and Linguistics Studies is an interdisciplinary, professional academic journal aiming to involve scholars not only from Turkey, but also from all international academic and Professional community. The journal provides a platform for different theoretical and thematic approaches to (a) linguistics: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, semiotics, and stylistics and (b) language teaching: the teaching of native language, the teaching of Turkish as a foreign/second Language, and foreign/second language teaching. Authors may write their articles both in English and Turkish. The editors seek manuscripts that

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

(12) **Journal of Online Learning and Teaching (ISSN: 1558-9528)** *http://jolt.merlot.org/index.html*

The MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching (JOLT) is a peer-reviewed, online publication addressing the scholarly use of multimedia resources in education. JOLT is published quarterly in March, June, September, and December. JOLT welcomes papers on all aspects of the use of online multimedia educational resources for learning and teaching. Topics may include, but are not limited to: learning theory and the use of multimedia to improve student learning; instructional design theory and application; online learning and teaching initiatives; use of technology in online education; innovative online learning and teaching practices.

(13) Korea TESOL Journal (ISSN: 1598-0464) http://www.kotesol.org/?q=KTJ

The *Korea TESOL Journal* is a refereed academic journal concerned with teaching English as a foreign language and related issues. Files of past issues are available for viewing and downloading. Korea TESOL Journal, a refereed journal, welcomes previously unpublished practical and theoretical articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. Areas of interest include: (1) classroom-centered research, (2) second language acquisition, (3) teacher training, (4) cross-cultural studies, (5) teaching and curriculum methods, and (6) testing and evaluation.

(14) **Language Learning & Technology (ISSN: 1094-3501)** http://llt.msu.edu/

Language Learning & Technology is a refereed journal which began publication in July 1997. The journal seeks to disseminate research to foreign and second language educators in the US and around the world on issues related to technology and language education.

Language Learning & Technology is seeking submissions of previously unpublished manuscripts on any topic related to the area of language learning and technology. Articles should be written so that they are accessible to a broad audience of language educators, including those individuals who may not be familiar with the particular subject matter addressed in the article.

(15) **Reading in a Foreign Language (ISSN: 1359-0578)** *http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/*

Reading in a Foreign Language has established itself as an excellent source for the latest developments in the field, both theoretical and pedagogic, including improving standards for foreign language reading. This fully-refereed journal is published twice a year, in April and October. The editors seek manuscripts concerning both the practice and theory of learning to read and the teaching of reading in any foreign or second language. Reviews of scholarly books and teaching materials, conference reports, and discussions are also solicited. The language of the journal is English, but lexical citations of languages other than English are acceptable. Additionally, the journal encourages research submissions about reading in languages other than English. From time to time, special issues are published on themes of relevance to our readers.

(16) **ReCall Journal (ISSN 0958-3440)** *http://www.eurocall-languages.org/recall/r_online.html*

ReCALL is a fully-refereed journal published by Cambridge University Press on behalf of EUROCALL. It is issued three times a year in January, May and September and is also available online to subscribers. The May issue normally contains selected papers from the previous year's EUROCALL conference. The journal contains articles relating to theoretical debate on language learning strategies and their influence on practical courseware design and integration, as well as regular software reviews. Back issues of ReCALL from 1996-1999 (Vol 8 to Vol 11) are available online in PDF format, but no longer in print.

(15) **Reading in a Foreign Language (ISSN: 1359-0578)** *http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/*

Journal of Reflections on English Language Teaching or *RELT* is an international-refereed publication of the Centre for English Language Communication, National University of Singapore. It aims to explore the range of issues of current concern to those who teach and do research in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or as a Second Language (ESL) in Asia and other regions. *RELT* is particularly interested in studies with sound theoretical frameworks and clear pedagogical implications and/or applications in the following areas: new materials or materials preparation; classroom practice or activities that are innovative and motivating; testing techniques and/or evaluation; needs assessment; curriculum design and development and learning/teaching strategies with the application of IT; impact of

language/educational policies on classroom practice; second language writing and reading; cultural dimensions of language teaching and learning.

(18) **TESOL Law Journal (ISSN 1833-2986)**
http://www.tesol-law.com/

The Journal devoted to discussions on legal and ethical issues that encompass all aspects in TESOL. As the TESOL profession develops and advances, we believe it is imperative to complement the academic advancement with legal advancement. We look forward to having you as a regular reader and / or contributor. This journal is developing (a) Ethics in the second & foreign language classroom, (b) The TESOL Code of Ethics, (c) TESOL teachers and the law, (d) Academic malpractice, (e) Laws impacting on the TESOL teacher, (f) International law and the SLA teacher, (g) Employment laws for TESOL teachers, (h) Immigration laws and rules for TESOL teachers, (i) Internet laws, (j) Collateral areas such as ESP and the Law, and (k) The TESOL Certificate Industry.

(19) **TESL-EJ (ISSN:1072-4303)**
http://tesl-ej.org/about.html

TESL-EJ is fully refereed–each article undergoes a review by at least two knowledgeable scholars. Our goal is to shorten the time from submission to publication significantly from what has become the norm in print journals. We aim for a decision in 6 weeks (although 'human factors' occasionally cause delays). We hope to broaden our range of participation. We invite you to submit an article for consideration, to review a book, software, or website, or to serve as a reviewer for manuscripts that are submitted. If you cannot help in this way, we hope that you will share with us the mission of making TESL-EJ known throughout the world as a dynamic and reliable source of research and information in English as a Second or Foreign Language.

(20) **The African EFL Journal (ISSN: 1738-1460)**
http://www.african-efl-journal.com/index.php

Welcome to the African EFL Journal. The *Journal* is a refereed publication which aims at providing on-line access to all those involved in the research, teaching and learning of English as an International language. The African English as a Foreign Language Journal studies the structure and development of English across the Africa, and in particular, its relationship to and effect on local culture and local African languages. The Journal is the sister journal to the long established Asian EFL Journal.

(21) **The Asian ESP Journal (1833-3001)**
http://www.asian-esp-journal.com/index.php

The Journal studies the structure and development of English across the globe, and in particular, its relationship to the special and specific purposes of English. This peer reviewed online Journal is your first step to understanding English for Specific Purposes in Asia. We look forward to having you as a regular reader or contributor. Topics such as the following may be treated from the perspective of English for Specific Purposes: second language acquisition in specialized contexts, occupational needs assessment, ESP curriculum development and evaluation for growing areas of ESP such as: English for Academic Purposes, English for Specific Purposes, Business English, Nursing English, Flight Attendant English, Hotel Industry English, Global EIL English, Legal English, and Tourism English. We also invite works on ESP materials' preparation, teaching and testing techniques, the effectiveness of various approaches to language learning within the ESP context, and teaching of ESP within the culture of the learning zone. The journal welcomes articles that identify aspects of ESP that are both growing and needing growth development, as well as areas into which the practice of ESP is being expanded.

(22) **The English Teacher (ISSN: 0128-7729)**
http://www.melta.org.my/modules/sections/index.php?op=listarticles&secid=1

THE ENGLISH TEACHER promotes effective English language teaching and learning and is intended for teachers and instructors who are primarily involved in teaching schoolchildren and adults. This is a refereed print-based journal published once a year. Authors are invited to submit articles that provide practical techniques and strategies for ELT, identify effective classroom-tested instructional techniques and/or provide descriptions of procedures that can be implemented in classrooms with a variety of students. Articles may also focus on insights and understanding about ELT research and its application to the classroom.

(23) **The International Journal of Language, Society, and Culture (ISSN 1327-774X)**
http://www.educ.utas.edu.au/users/tle/JOURNAL/index.html

Language, Society and Culture (LSC) is a refereed international internet journal publishing articles and reports dealing with theoretical as well as practical issues focusing on the link between language, society and culture within a socio-cultural context or beyond its boundary. The Journal welcomes papers dealing with the following areas which reflect the relationship between language, society and culture: general linguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics,

discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis (CDA), language and learning, interpersonal and intercultural communication, and second language learning.

(24) **The Internet TESL Journal: For Teachers of English as a Second Language** *http://iteslj.org/*

This electronic journal publishes articles, lessons and lesson plans, classroom handouts, and useful classroom aids aimed at helping teachers teach better.

(25) **The Linguistic Journal (ISSN: 1718-2298)** *http://www.linguistics-journal.com/index.php*

Linguistics is the scientific study of language, as such it is comprised of the study of the structure and development of a particular language and its relationship to other languages, the connection between language and mind, the relation between language and society and many other fields. The Linguistics Journal is the sister journal to the long established Asian EFL Journal.

(26) **The Reading Matrix (ISSN: 1533-242X)** *http://www.readingmatrix.com/journal.html*

The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal is a peer-reviewed professional journal with an editorial board of scholars in the fields of second language acquisition and applied linguistics. The journal seeks to disseminate research to educators around the world. It is interested in exploring issues related to L2 reading, L2 literacy in a broader sense, and other issues related to second language learning and teaching. This publication was created as an interactive journal, not an electronic version of a traditional print publication. The journal is published twice a year exclusively on the World Wide Web.

(27) **The *South Asian Journal of Postcolonial English Language Pedagogy (ISSN* 1718-*2298)***

http://www.sajpelp.com/index.php

The Journal is a refereed publication which aims at providing on-line access to all those involved in the research, teaching and learning of English as an International language. The *South Asian Journal of Postcolonial English Language Pedagogy* is a unique journal dedicated to various aspects of the teaching and learning of the English language in the decolonized countries in South Asia. It aims to talk about the changed contexts of English language education in the wake of globalization, democratization and decolonization.

(28) The *Qualitative Report (ISSN 1052-0147)*
https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/

The Qualitative Report (ISSN 1052-0147) is a peer-reviewed, on-line monthly journal devoted to writing and discussion of and about qualitative, critical, action, and collaborative inquiry and research. The Qualitative Report, the oldest multidisciplinary qualitative research journal in the world, serves as a forum and sounding board for researchers, scholars, practitioners, and other reflective-minded individuals who are passionate about ideas, methods, and analyses permeating qualitative, action, collaborative, and critical study. These pages are open to a variety of forms: original, scholarly activity such as qualitative research studies, critical commentaries, editorials, or debates concerning pertinent issues and topics; news of networking and research possibilities; and other sorts of journalistic and literary shapes which may interest and pique readers.

(29) Englisia journal (ISSN: 2339-2576)
http://jurnal.ar-raniry.ac.id/index.php/englisia/

Englisia Journal (EJ) is an open access, peer-reviewed journal that will consider any original scientific article that expands the field of language studies in English Language Teaching and various other related applied linguistics themes. The journal publishes articles of interest to language teachers, practitioners and language researchers. Manuscripts must be original and educationally interesting to the audience in the field. The goal is to promote concepts and ideas developed in this area of study by publishing relevant peer-reviewed scientific information and discussion. This will help language practitioners to advance their knowledge for greater benefit and output in their professional contexts.

(30) Register Journal ((ISSN: 1979-8903)
http://journalregister.iainsalatiga.ac.id/index.php/register/

REGISTER JOURNAL is derived from the word "REGISTER" which is well-known for a linguistic variety regarded as appropriate to use in a particular speech situation. (Kortmann 2005: 255f). (Source: Register (sociolinguistics). **REGISTER JOURNAL** has the perspectives of languages and language teachings. This journal aims at presenting and discussing some outstanding issues dealing with language and language teachings

(31) SiELE (Studies in English Language and Education) (ISSN: 2461-0275)
http://www.jurnal.unsyiah.ac.id/SiELE

Studies in English Language and Education (SiELE) is a peer-reviewed academic journal published by the Department of English Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Syiah Kuala University, Banda Aceh, Indonesia.

(32) IJAL: Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics (ISSN: 2502-6747)
http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL

Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics (pISSN: 2301-9468 and eISSN: 2502-6747) is a journal that publishes original papers researching or documenting issues in applied linguistics. It is published by UPT Balai Bahasa, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. This journal is indexed in DOAJ, EBSCO, Google Scholar, Scopus, and SINTA (S1). Since Volume 7, the journal has regularly published three times a year in January, May, and September. We accept original research, conceptual, and best practice articles related to applied linguistics. The language studied can be any language such as but not limited to Arabic, English, French, German, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, indigenous and modern languages.

(33) CELT: A Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching & Literature (ISSN: 2502-4914)
http://journal.unika.ac.id/index.php/celt

Celt: A Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching & Literature is a double-blind peer-reviewed journal, published biannually in the months of July and December with p-ISSN (printed): 1412-3320 & e-ISSN (electronic/online): 2502-4914. It presents articles around the area of culture, English language teaching and learning, linguistics, and literature. Contents include analysis, studies, applications of theories, research reports, and materials development. It is firstly published in December 2001. Ever since 2005 its manuscripts could be read online through www.journalcelt.com. By the year 2016, it launched its OJS (Open Journal System) through https://journal.unika.ac.id/ index.php/celt and from 2017 it is recorded in Crossref's https://doi.org/10.24167 and in https://doaj.org/toc/2502-4914. Based on the decree from Hasil Akreditasi Jurnal Ilmiah, SK Direktur Jenderal Penguatan Riset dan Pengembangan Kementrian Riset Teknologi, dan Pendidikan Tinggi Republik Indonesia, No. 30/E/KPT/2018 with regards to the accreditation status of academic journals, dated on 24 October 2018, Celt is nationally accredited for five years as a Sinta 2 journal.

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An Analysis of Literature and Culture Integrated into EFL Coursebooks

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Abstract

Considering the intermingled relationship among language, literature, and culture, and their benefits for language learning, it is indispensable to include both literary works and cultural content in EFL coursebooks, "the visible heart of any ELT program" (Sheldon, 1988). Within this scope, this study aimed to find out to whether literary texts are integrated, and literary figures are referred in EFL coursebooks used at high schools in Turkey. The second goal was to investigate the cultural content in these coursebooks of an expanding circle country in terms of L1, L2, international, and culture-neutral types, and explore whether cultural topics were addressed through literature in EFL coursebooks. To this end, the data from seven EFL coursebooks were analysed descriptively, and frequencies and percentages were calculated. The findings revealed that literary texts in EFL coursebooks were limited, and stories and poems had the priority in terms of literary genres. However, there were constant references to literary texts, authors and literary figures. Each coursebook contained cultural content from the concentric circles, including the local culture, in varying degrees, but culture was rarely addressed through the literary texts. These findings bear some implications for ELT field, English language teachers, coursebook authors, and curriculum developers.

Keywords: English Language Coursebook Analysis, Literature, Literary Texts, Cultural Content.

1. Introduction

Over the years, there have been many ongoing debates about the inclusion of literature and culture in English Language Teaching (ELT). The definition of materials by Tomlinson (2012, p. 143) as "anything which can be used to assist the learning of a language, these include: coursebooks, visuals like flash cards, videos, websites, games and mobile phone interactions" leads us to the fact that literary works can be recognised as perfect fit for language learning materials. The first reason is that "literature offers a bountiful and extremely varied body of written material which is 'important' in the sense that it says something about fundamental human issues, and which is enduring rather than ephemeral" (Collie & Slater, 1987, p. 3). Literary works also touch upon "culture-specific issues such as history, traditions, religion, male-female relationships" (Yıldırım, 2012).

There are many reasons behind the desire to integrate literary works into English classes and coursebooks as well as the reasons for not including them. To start with the motives for using literary works to teach English, Duff and Maley (2007) stated the benefits of literature in ELT in three categories: these are linguistic value, cultural value, and affective value. The linguistic value refers to the fact that literary texts are authentic and rich with different range of styles, types of texts and registers. The cultural one is about the literature serving as a tool of transmitting culture. The affective value is what makes literary text memorable to the learners because reading and making interpretations on literary texts "involve a deeper level of mental processing, a greater personal involvement and response" (Duff & Maley, 2007, p. 6). According to Lazar (1993, p. 19), literary works can also "stimulate the imagination of students, develop their critical abilities, and increase their emotional awareness". As for the reasons for not making use of literary works summarized by Khatib (2011), literary works had a complex syntax and mostly advanced vocabulary (Mckay, 1982); selection of literary texts can be cumbersome for teachers as they need to consider the factors such as the learners' language proficiency, age and background knowledge; these type of texts do not facilitate learners' academic English learning process (Mckay, 1982); learners are also burdened with understanding cultural matters as well as literary concepts and notions (Maley, 1989; McKay, 1982).

To continue with the reasons for why culture should be integrated into English language coursebooks, Povey (1967) who asserted that learners would have more difficulty in "cultural comprehension" than they would have in understanding the "syntactic difficulty in ESL

reading". Considering the benefits and challenges of literary works, teaching culture to learners can ease their burden of comprehending the literary work along with the cultural matters in it. As Politzer (1959) also pointed out, "if we teach language without teaching at the same time the culture in which it operates, we are teaching meaningless symbols to which the student attaches the wrong meaning", we should meet learners' needs regarding not only linguistic knowledge but also the cultural knowledge so that what they are learning makes sense to them; they can reflect on their own culture (McKay, 2002); they can be intercultural citizens of the society (Byram, 2008). In addition, teaching culture is proven to increase learners' motivation as well as their curiosity and interest in the target countries and language (Cooke, 1970; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Regarding the benefits of teaching culture and English being an international language (EIL) and lingua franca, it was claimed that ELT coursebooks would include more cultural topics by Phillipson (1997) and Seidlhofer (2003). However, whose culture should be included in ELT coursebooks was another matter of discussion, which leads us to three concentric circles which are inner, outer and expanding as proposed by Kachru (1992). The inner circle countries refer to UK and USA, where English is the native language of people while the outer circle countries such as India and Malaysia stand for the one which uses English as a lingua franca to communicate with people from different language groups. The countries such as China, Russia, and Turkey belong to the expanding circle because English is neither the native language nor the official language in these countries. As inner circle counties are also regarded as "norm providing" in terms of language teaching, the UK or USA cultures are expected to be integrated more into ELT coursebooks. Nonetheless, as the use of English have increased in outer and expanding circle countries, an awareness has been developed regarding the inclusion of the cultures of outer and expanding circle countries (Graddol, 2006; McKay, 2003). Thus, English language teachers started to take the learners' own culture into consideration while teaching language. (Kramsch & Hua, as cited in Hall, 2016).

In light of the aforementioned advantages of teaching English through literature and culture, both literary and cultural components are expected to constitute a significant part of ELT as course materials because "Textbooks should contain material that allows and provokes opinions and discussions on cultural stereotyping. Students should be given communicative and pragmatic tools to 'negotiate meaning', to develop interactive and meta-linguistic skills, to be able to tolerate and endure ambiguity" (Wandel, 2003, p.73). However, the case about ELT coursebooks is that literature is considered as "a subsequent resource following coursebooks" (Gümüşok, 2013), and ELT coursebooks lack diverse cultural elements from different cultures

(Tseng, 2002; Yuen, 2011). Although the inclusion of literature and culture into ELT is a widely discussed topic, there have been few studies focusing on these concepts in language coursebooks (Feng & Byram, 2002) which are recognized as "the visible heart of any ELT program" (Sheldon, 1988). Considering the significance of coursebooks in language teaching and the need for the integration of literature and culture into the coursebooks, the present research seeks to address the following questions:

1. Are literary texts integrated in English language coursebooks used at high school level?

1.a. From the following literary genres, novels, stories, poems, and plays, which literary genre is mostly used in English language coursebooks?

1.b. Do English coursebooks include any reference to writers, characters, novels, poems or quotations by literary figures?

2. How is the cultural content represented in the ELT coursebooks produced in Turkey, expanding circle country, in terms of L1, L2, international, and neutral cultural types?

2.a. Are cultural topics addressed through literature in English language coursebooks?

2. Literature review

2.1. Theoretical Framework

Literature has had a significant role in ELT since the first wave, also named as "linguistic wave" of language curriculum design (Graves, as cited in Hall, 2016). During the times when Grammar Translation Method was implemented in ELT field, language was considered as a set of linguistic systems, and literature was a medium of language teaching as Kramsch and Kramsch (2000) also pointed out "The study of language in those days meant the study of literature". During the second wave, also called as "communicative wave", language teaching field experienced a major shift. As a result of this change, literature was excluded from language curriculum because it was believed that "literature was less relevant to ELT" and not beneficial for preparing learners for actual use of language (Hall, as cited in Hall, 2016). However, as genre and text-based learning regained its importance during the third wave, literature has become popular in the field of ELT as the literary works have been used as the context in language curriculum.

As literary works became an essential part of ELT due to the benefits mentioned above, the question of how to teach literature and what kind of approach should be followed arose. Carter and Long (1991) proposed three main approaches to the teaching of literature which are the

Cultural Model, the Language Model and the Personal Growth Model. By Cultural Model, it is referred that learners discover the social, political, literary and historical background of a specific text. The Language Model requires learners to focus on the literary text from systematic and methodological perspective and analyse linguistic characteristics like literal and figurative language. The Personal Growth facilitates learners by enabling them to state their ideas and feelings, and "relate their own personal and cultural experiences with the ones in the literary text" (Carter & Long, 1991). Likewise, Lazar (1993) put forward three approaches, language-based approach, literature as content, and personal enrichment, to using literature in ELT classroom. With a language-based approach, the focus is on the grammatical, lexical, and discoursal categories of a literary text and also interpretation of the text. In the second approach, literature as content, literary works are employed as the content for the course and the topics such as "the history and characteristics of literary movements, the social, political, and historical context of the text, and literary devices" (Lazar, 1993) are discussed throughout the course. Literature for personal enrichment approach enables learners to reflect on their own personal experiences, feelings and ideas and helps them grow both intellectually and emotionally while they acquire English. Furthermore, the approach to literary analysis is as significant as the approaches for using literature for the comprehension and interpretation of the literary works and there are six approaches of literary analysis identified. These are New Criticism, Structuralism, Stylistics, Reader-Response, Language-Based, and Critical Literacy (Van, 2009). In New Criticism approach, the aim is to understand the literary text with close reading and analysis of literary devices. In Structuralism, the main focus is on the structural form of the literary work and no personal responses are involved in literary analysis. In Stylistics approach, the readers are expected to interpret the literary text by analysing the literary devices and using their linguistics knowledge. In Reader-Response approach, readers need to dwell on their personal experiences and opinions while interpreting the text, therefore, each reader can interpret the text in a different way. In Language-Based approach, the focus is purely on the language of literary texts, and activities for practising any language skills can be implemented. Readers try to improve their language skills including grammar and vocabulary with the help of literary works. The Critical Literacy approach focuses on the context of the literary work because it aims to raise learners' awareness about "the role of language in producing, maintaining and changing the social relations and power" (Wallace, 1992, as cited in Van, 2009), and "how social and political factors affect the language they are learning" (Cummins, 2000, as cited in Van, 2009).

To continue with the culture as an important component of ELT, Kramsch defined "culture" as "membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and common imaginings." (Kramsch & Hua, p. 38, as cited in Hall, 2016). The globalisation of English as a lingua franca also led teachers to take "culture" into consideration while teaching English. As Alptekin (2002) asserted, this endeavour required the inclusion of another competence to the communicative competence which is already defined by Canale and Swain (1980) with four sub-competences, namely, grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic. This competence is Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) which refers to the ability to comprehend the intercultural differences so as to establish effective and successful communication and acquire the set of knowledge, skills and attitudes that are crucial for intercultural communication (Byram, 1997). Recently, ICC has become popular in the field of English Language Teaching and has been recognised as one of the main goals of ELT (Byram, 1997). Byram (1997) proposed a model of Intercultural Communicative Competence Development and stated that ICC includes linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and intercultural competence. The intercultural competence is composed of four main skills which are knowledge, attitude, skills of interpreting, and skills of negotiating. The main objective of this model is to raise learners' awareness about the target culture and international cultures including learners' own culture. Thus, the questions of whose culture should be taught to learners and integrated into ELT coursebooks, and whether learners' culture should be included have become a matter of discussion. Even though some believe that the cultural norms of inner circle countries should be integrated into ELT coursebooks, the cultural norm of the outer and expanding circle countries cannot be ignored considering the increase in the English varieties in the outer and expanding circle countries (McKay, 2003). In order to equip the learners with these skills, and attitudes for having a proper communication with people from various cultures, course materials should contain not only the inner and outer circle countries' culture but also the expanding circle countries' culture (Alptekin, 2002; Cortazzi & Jin, 1997). In the present study, the cultural content types of Cortazzi and Jin (1999) for ELT coursebooks were adapted as analysis framework for cultural content data. Based on this framework, cultural information integrated into ELT coursebooks is divided into three types which are "L1 (source) culture, L2 (target) culture, and international culture". One more category was added based on the study conducted by Tajeddin and Teimournezhad (2014) and this type was named "culture-neutral" which covers the topics which are universal and do not belong to a certain culture as Rashidi and Meihami (2016) did.

Within this framework, the aim of the current study was twofold; the first one was to find out to what extent literary texts are included in English coursebooks at high school level. The second is to explore how the cultural content is represented in English language coursebooks published in Turkey, an expanding circle country, in terms of L1, L2, international and neutral cultural types, and whether culture is addressed through literary texts and activities. Therefore, the previous studies conducted on literary and cultural analysis of English coursebooks were referred respectively in the following sections.

2.2. Literary Analysis of English Coursebooks

There were five studies which aimed to examine the literary works integrated and elements referred in English coursebooks (Andarab, 2019; Aydınoğlu, 2013; Correia, 2011; Fjellestad, 2011; Gümüşok, 2013).

There were two thesis studies with the focus on literary texts and how they were presented in English coursebooks. Fjellestad (2011) carried out the thesis study on four English textbooks, which are *eXperience, Passage, Stunt, and Targets,* so as to identify how literary works were integrated and how they were presented in these coursebooks. The researcher based the data analysis on two theoretical approaches to literary analysis, New Criticism and Reader Response and found out which of these approaches were applied in these coursebooks. The data gathered from these coursebook were examined though content analysis. The findings indicated both similarities and differences among these textbooks in terms of the way they demonstrated these literary works and the number of works and activities included and their types. While both New Criticism and Reader Response approaches were presented in these coursebooks, some were affected by one theory more than the other. The purpose of using literature was to make learners improve themselves both academically and personally.

The other thesis study by Correia (2011) focused on the approaches adopted for presenting literary texts in two English coursebooks, *Englishes and Links,* which were published by different publications for 10^{th} graders. In both of these coursebooks, the findings were as follows; the literary texts were presented in line with the theme of the unit which was technology and its effect on life, so the literature was never the context; therefore, these works do not constitute a major part in the units of each coursebook; the only part where literary works were dealt with deeper analysis was extensive reading part which included either a short story or a chapter from a book.

There were three researches which aimed to analyse the coursebooks in terms of literary components in Turkish context, one of which will be addressed in the following section. Aydınoğlu (2013) examined to what extent and how English coursebooks integrated literary texts. For this purpose, three coursebooks, *Success* Series, *Language Reader* Series, and *face2face* Series, which were employed at the preparatory schools of four state and four private universities in İzmir, were selected to be analysed. The findings of the study revealed that although the number of literary works was low, the names of authors and the characters, and the title of literary works were referred frequently. Making use of literary texts more in language coursebooks was recommended because of the benefits of these texts for language learning.

Likewise, Gümüşok (2013) analysed ELT coursebooks which were used in the last 20 years in the preparatory school of state universities located in Ankara with the same aim as Aydınoğlu (2013). These coursebooks belong to the following series: *Success, English Limited, Language Leader, English File, Headway, and Opportunities.* Twenty-two coursebooks for different language proficiency level were scanned. The results showed that English coursebooks did not allocate enough space for literature, and literary references were also limited. The mostly used literary genre was novel, followed by poem, story and play. In the past twenty years, decrease in the number of literary works included in the ELT coursebooks was observed.

The latest research study on literary analysis of English coursebooks belongs to Andarab (2019) who reported his findings about the integration of literary works of inner, outer and expanding circle countries into five coursebooks which were based on English as an international language (EIL). These coursebooks were *Global series, English across Cultures, Intercultural English, Understanding Asia and Understanding English across Cultures.* For data analysis, Kachru's Circle was used to put the countries into categories, their cultures were categorised depending on dichotomy between small "c" or capital "C". It was found out that 90 percent of literary works included belong to inner circle countries, whereas the literary works of outer and expanding circle countries constituted only 10 percent.

2.3. Cultural Content Analysis of English Coursebooks

In the past decade, there has been a growing body of research on the analysis of cultural content integrated into ELT coursebooks (Arslan, 2016; Böcü & Razı, 2016;Çelik & Erbay, 2013; Demirbaş, 2013; Hamiloğlu & Mendi, 2010; Rashidi & Meihami, 2016; Ulum & Bada, 2016; Yıldırım, 2012; Yuen, 2011).

Yuen (2011) explored if two coursebooks of English, *Longman Elect* and *Treasure Plus*, containing foreign cultures and being used in Hong Kong, represented EIL. All cultural references were put into four categories which are products, practices, perspectives, and people. Whereas the cultures of inner and outer circle countries were included more, the cultures of the countries like Africa occupied less space than expected.

Likewise, Rashidi and Meihami (2016) analysed three ELT coursebooks, which are *Functional Skills English, Celebrate, and Prospect*, in order to explore the cultural content belonging to the inner, outer, and expanding circle countries and the cultural component included in these coursebooks. Three coursebooks were chosen from the countries in aforementioned circles for analysis. It was found out that these coursebooks did not bear similarities in terms of cultural content and components. The amount of L1 and L2 cultural content was more in ELT coursebook of inner circle, whereas expanding circle coursebook included both L1 and cross-cultural content. The coursebook of outer circle consisted of L1, L2, and international cultural content. As for the cultural components, aesthetic cultural items occupied more the coursebooks of both inner and outer circle countries, while both L1 aesthetic and sociolinguistic components existed in the coursebook of the expanding circle country.

Another study by Böcü and Razı (2016) focused on analysing a coursebook series, *Life*, from inner circle countries to be employed to teach English to young adults. In order to gather opinion about the cultural content included in the coursebooks, 4 instructors and 26 students were interviewed. It was reported that there were diverse cultures represented in the coursebooks, whereas no direct reference to local culture, Turkish, was identified.

As for the analysis of coursebooks in terms of cultural content and elements in Turkish context, Hamiloğlu and Mendi (2010) conducted an EFL coursebook analysis study with the aim of searching for any intercultural topics related to various countries around the world. For this purpose, 5 coursebooks, *New Hotline, New Streetwise, Enterprise 2, Matrix,* and *Total English,* were selected. They were published in 1998, 1999, 1999, 2001, and 2006 respectively, and were scanned to see whether there is any increase in the number of cultural topics because the coursebooks were considered to include more cross-cultural topics after communicative approach had been introduced to ELT field. The findings revealed that the number of intercultural topics in EFL coursebooks did not increase in line with the dates when these coursebooks were published. There was no consistency between the publication dates and the frequency of intercultural topics. While one coursebook contained intercultural topics, the focus of two coursebooks were more on the culture of the inner circle countries.

The ELT coursebooks which were published by Turkish authors were scanned for intercultural elements at different levels of Turkish public schools. To start with primary school level, Arslan (2016) conducted content analysis study on the cultural elements integrated into listening scripts in 3rd and 4th grade English language coursebooks for state schools in Turkey. Frequency analysis was run on the number of cultural elements which belong to native culture, target culture and international culture with the help of Checklist and Item Frequency Analysis. It was found out that the number of cultural elements in 3rd grade English language coursebook were more than the ones in 4th grade English language coursebook. As for the cultural elements referring to different types of cultures, the cultural elements of target and intercultural cultures were included more than the cultural elements of native culture in both coursebooks.

To continue with secondary school, Çelik and Erbay (2013) scanned three coursebooks of the same series, *Spot On*, which were published by MoNE publications to be used for secondary school English courses at public secondary schools in Turkey. They attempted to examine the extent to which these coursebooks cover both home and target cultures by forming a meaningful context. The content analysis was adopted in this quantitative study to analyse the culture in terms of four aspects which are products, practices, perspectives, and people. In contrast with the findings of the previous studies, a variety of cultures were represented in all three coursebooks with the main focus on European cultures.

Another study was done by Demirbaş (2013) on intercultural elements included in English coursebooks, *My English 5, Unique 6, Spring 7,* and *Four Seasons English 8,* published by MoNE for public secondary schools in Turkey. The conversational and visuals items composed the main data of the study. The data analysis was done through descriptive content-analysis method in a qualitative manner. The results indicated that the number of intercultural items in conversations and visuals were less than the number of cultural items which belong to target culture. The scope of intercultural items was limited and included specific cultures like Japanese, French, and German. Even though there have been recent advances in integration of cultural elements into English coursebooks, it was also recommended that teachers should design and plan communicative and creative activities by employing the cultural items in local coursebooks.

As for high school level, Ulum and Bada (2016) carried out a cultural analysis study by scanning nine English coursebooks of *Yes You Can* series published in 2012 and recommended by the state to be used at high school level in Turkey. The main goal of the study was to find out to what extent English coursebooks, which were written by Turkish authors, included inner and

outer circle countries' cultural elements and the characteristics of these cultural elements. It was revealed that most of the cultural elements referred belong to not only outer circle but also expanding circle countries. The main reason behind this was considered to be the fact that these coursebooks were authored by writers who come from either outer circle or expanding circle countries.

To date, English language coursebooks have not been extensively examined in terms of whether they covered both cultural and literary content and components despite the entangled relationship among language, literature, and culture. So far, very little has been published on this subject. In the last decade, Yıldırım (2012) investigated how elementary and upper-intermediate levels of three ELT coursebooks, *Speak Out, New Headway, and Global*, included the items of literature and English culture in reading. This study also aimed to present the extent of the space literary works of both English and other cultures occupied in these coursebooks. As a result of the content analysis, it was reported that both local and target cultures were referred in each reading texts, whereas the reference to literary works were rather few and limited to upper-intermediate level. The literary works were mostly in prose. This was the only study focused on the inclusion of literature and culture at the same time in the last century.

Considering the paucity in the literature, there is a need for the newly published English language coursebooks to be scanned so as to reveal to what extent they include literature and which literary genres, novels, stories, poems, and plays, are mostly used; whether there is any literary reference to writers, characters, quotations by literary figures, and the name of literary works. This study also aimed to explore how the cultural content is represented in English language coursebooks published in Turkey, an expanding circle country, in terms of L1, L2, international and neutral cultural types, and whether culture is addressed through literary texts and activities.

3. Methodology

3.1. Coursebooks under Evaluation

The present study is based on a descriptive design with quantitative analysis of literary works, references to literary figures, and cultural content in English language coursebooks which are currently being used in English lessons at high school level in Turkey. Content analysis refers to "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use. It provides new insights and understanding of particular phenomena" (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). As part of this study, 7 ELT coursebooks

were analysed in terms of literary works and references, which are quotations by literary figures, literary works, characters and writers, and the cultural topics covered. The information regarding the books analysed in this study is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: *ELT Coursebooks analysed in present study*

Name of the Book	Grade	CEFR Level	Authors & Publication Dates	Publishing House
Progress Student's Book+ Workbook	Preparatory Class	A1-B1	Altunay, Tanrıverdi, Akbaş Dakni, Demirbilek, Fırat, Yurt, Eren Terzi, Akmanol Çınar, & Tamer, 2019	MoNE Publications
Teenwise Student's Book+ Workbook	9th Grade	B1/B+	Bulut, Baydar Ertopçu, Umur Özadalı, & Şentürk, 2019	MoNE Publications
Relearn! Student's Book+ Workbook	9th Grade	B1/B+	Karamil & Brincioğlu Kaldar, 2019	Pasifik Publications
Secondary Education English Student's Book+ Workbook	10th Grade	B1+/B2	Genç Karataş, 2018	Gizem Publications
Silver Lining Student's Book+ Workbook	11th Grade	B2/B2+	Akdağ, Baydar Ertopcu, Uyanik Bektaş, Umur Özadali, & Kaya, 2019	MoNE Publications
Sunshine English Student's Book+ Workbook	11th Grade	B2/B2+	Akgedik Can & Atcan Altan, 2019	Cem Publications
Count Me in Student's Book + Workbook	12th Grade	B2+/C1	Çimen, Taşkıran Tiğin, Çokçalışkan, Özyıldırım, & Özdemir, 2019	MoNE Publications

All the coursebooks listed in Table 1 have been used in English lessons at high school level in Turkey. *Progress* was published to be used only at the high schools, which have preparatory school programs, starting from 2019. There are two different coursebooks for ninth graders, which are *Teenwise* and *Relearn!*. They were published by Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and Pasifik Publications respectively to be employed starting from 2019. For 10th graders, there is only one coursebook presented by Gizem Publications. For 11th graders, there are two coursebooks, *Silver Lining* and *Sunshine English*, published by MoNE and Cem Publications in order. As for 12th graders, *Count me In* is the coursebook published by MoNE publications for English courses. In this study, only high school English coursebooks were analysed because these recently published coursebooks have not been examined in terms of the literary and cultural aspects since Ulum and Bada (2016) scanned *Yes You Can*, English language coursebooks series published in 2014 in Turkey. In addition, the range of these coursebooks is diverse in terms of the English language proficiency level from A1 to C1 as indicated in English language curriculum for high school of MoNE (2016).

3.2. Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

Descriptive content analysis was employed because it is a research technique used to analyse the content in an objective and quantitative way (Neundorf, 2002). For gathering data for the literary content, the steps used by Gümüşok (2013) were followed. The first step of the data analysis was to analyse the coursebooks page by page and count the number of literary works. Reading texts were counted in two different categories. The first category included the reading passages under "Reading" title while the second category contained the reading texts under the title of "Speaking", "Writing", "Listening", "Grammar". The literary texts were divided into four main literary genres, novels, short story, poem and play. Next, the researcher transformed the number of literary texts to percentages to find out to what extent coursebooks cover literary works. The second part of literary analysis aimed to find out if the coursebooks include any references to literary works and figures. Four components, which are "quotations, references to writers, characters from literary works, and literary works from different literary genres (Gümüşok, 2013, p. 119)" were determined to be used. For all these components, the condition for inclusion was that they belong or refer to literary works and figures. Then, the researcher conducted frequency analysis for each component by counting the occurrence of these four components.

As for cultural content, the frameworks of Cortazzi and Jin (1999) and Tajeddin and Teimournezhad (2014) were adopted to gather relevant data. Within the scope of this study, only the number of readings which contained cultural information were counted because this study aimed not only to find out how cultural content is represented in English language coursebooks of an expanding circle country in terms of L1, L2, international and cultural-neutral types but also whether culture is dealt with in literary works. In addition, as literary works are mostly in prose or verse, the reading texts under the title of reading and the ones integrated into other language skills were included in the analysis. The data were analysed with descriptive analysis. The frequency of the number of reading texts, which included cultural content in aforementioned culture types, were computed for each coursebooks. In order to reveal whether culture is addressed through literary texts, the cultural model of Carter and Long (1991) to teach literature was taken into consideration in this part of the analysis because the literature texts are regarded as the means of conveying "cultural notions such as history, literary theories, genres, biography of the different authors" (Carter & Long, 1991; as cited in Bobkina, & Dominguez, 2014).

4. Results

4.1. Results of Literary Analysis of English Coursebooks

Each coursebook was analysed in terms of the literary texts and references they had. The results of the analysis were provided in Table 2.

Table 2. *Reading Texts and Literary Texts in English Coursebooks for High School*

Coursebook/ Grade	Number of Reading Texts	Number of Reading Texts incorporated with grammar, speaking, writing, listening	Number of Literary texts [f (%)]	Literary Genres and number	
Progress Student's Book and Workbook/ Preparatory School	160	150	12 (4%)	Novel	-
				Story	10
				Play	-
				Poem	2
Teenwise Student's Book and Workbook/ 9th Grade	46	30	-(0%)	Novel	-
				Story	-
				Play	-
				Poem	-
Relearn! Student's Book and Workbook/ 9th Grade	30	32	2 (3%)	Novel	-
				Story	-
				Play	-
				Poem	2
Secondary Education English Student's Book and Workbook/ 10th Grade	40	20	4 (7%)	Novel	-
				Story	4
				Play	-
				Poem	-
Silver Lining Student's Book and Workbook/ 11th grade	54	35	5 (6%)	Novel	-
				Story	3
				Play	-
				Poem	2
Sunshine English Student's Book and Workbook/ 11th grade	30	25	3 (5%)	Novel	-
				Story	1
				Play	-
				Poem	2
Count Me in Student's Book and Workbook/ 12th Grade	51	30	6 (7%)	Novel	-
				Story	4
				Play	-
				Poem	2

To start with the English coursebook for preparatory school at high school, there were 12 literary texts in total, corresponding to four percent of the reading passages. Out of 13 literary

texts, only two of them were poem and the rest of them was story. As can be seen in Table 2, there were not any novels or plays in *Progress*. However, in *Teenwise*, 9th grade English coursebook, no literary text existed among 76 reading passages in total. On the other hand, *Relearn!*, English coursebook of 9th grade published by Pasifik Publications, included two poems out of 62 (3%) reading passages. The English coursebook contained four stories out of 60 reading passages (7%). To continue with *Silver Lining*, English coursebook for 11th grade, out of 89 reading texts, only five literary texts existed (6%). These five literary texts consisted of three stories and two poems. As for the number of literary texts in *Sunshine English*, published by Cem Publications for 11th graders, there were only three literary works (5%) out of 55 reading passages; one of which was story and the other two were poem. Lastly, *Count Me In*, which is English coursebook of 12th graders, was composed of 81 reading passages. The literary texts formed 7 percent (*N*=6) of these reading passages. While four of these literary works were story, two of them were poem. Overall, story was the literary genre which is mostly used in these coursebooks (*f*=22, 69%) followed by poem (*f*=10, 31%). On the other hand, there were not any novels or plays integrated into any coursebooks.

Table 3. *Literary References in English Coursebooks for High School*

Literary References	**Progress**	**Teenwise**	**Relearn!**	**Secondary Education English**	**Silver Lining**	**Sunshine English**	**Count Me In**
Quotations	5	-	1	2	12	3	2
Works	Novel -	Novel -	Novel -	Novel -	Novel 2	Novel 7	Novel -
	Story 1	Story -	Story -	Story 2	Story 1	Story 2	Story 4
	Play -	Play -	Play -	Play -	Play -	Play 2	Play -
	Poem -	Poem -	Poem -	Poem -	Poem -	Poem 1	Poem 2
Writers	5	2	2	2	15	9	2
Characters	17	-	-	-	2	1	-
Total References	28	2	3	6	32	25	10

As for literary references which are presented in Table 3, *Progress* included five quotations, one reference to a literary work, five references to writers, and 17 characters from literary works. The quotations belonged to the following literary figures: George Bernard Shaw, Mevlana, Elbert Hubbard, and Virginia Woolf. The references to literary works were story called “Sherlock Holmes”. The writers mentioned were Arthur Conan Doyle, Orhan Veli Kanık, Melih Cevdet Anday, Agatha Christie, and Virginia Woolf. The characters were mostly composed of the characters from Agatha Christie’s story The Cat among the Pigeons, who are Hercule Poirot, Adam Goodman, Honoria Bulstrode, Ann Shapland, Miss. Chadwick, Eleanor Vansittart, Grace Springer, Angèle Blanche, Eileen Rich, Princess Shaista, Prince Ali Yusuf,

Julia Upjohn, Mrs Upjohn, Bob Rawlinson, and Jennifer Sutcliffe. The last two characters referred to Sherlock Holmes and Cinderella. In *Teenwise*, there were only two references to two writers who are Stephen King and Fatma Aliye. In *Relearn!*, there were three literary references in total. One of these was a quote by Mohith Agadi, an author. The rest referred to two writers who are Angelica N. Brissett and Leo Tolstoy. In the English coursebook of 10th graders, there were six references to literary works and figures. There were two quotes by two authors, Zig Ziglar and Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. Two stories referred to Köroğlu and Nasreddin Hodja stories respectively. Dede Korkut, storyteller, and Mevlana, poet, were the literary figures mentioned in this coursebook. In *Silver Lining*, there were 12 quotes, five of which were extracts from the story "The Little Prince". The rest belonged to Robert Frost, Rumi, Thomas Carlyle, Yunus Emre, Hacı Bektaş Veli, and Elbert Hubbard. There were two novels, My Sweet Orange Tree and Charlie and the Chocolate Factory, and a story referred, The Little Prince. The fourteen writers mentioned in this coursebook were as follows: Arianna Huffington, J. K. Rowling, Howard Maier, Mark Twain, Leo Tolstoy, Orhan Pamuk, Elbert Hubbard, Sunay Akın, G. R. Richard Martin, Yunus Emre, Rumi, Hacı Bektaş Veli, Roja Sharma, and Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. Lastly, Little Prince and Charlie Bucket from Charlie and the Chocolate Factory were the characters referred. The English coursebook by Cem publications, *Sunshine English* included three quotes by Helen Keller, Gustave Flaubert, and Bruce Chatwin. The literary works contained seven novels, Oliver Twist, Hard Times, A Bleak House, Great Expectations, David Copperfield, Pickwick Papers, and A Tale of Two Cities; two stories, A Christmas Carol and How the Camel Got His Hump; two plays, "Hasret Çiçekleri" and "Yün Bebek"; a poem "The Road Not Taken". Rudyard Kipling, Gustave Flaubert, Bruce Chatwin, Yunus Emre, Rumi, Charles Dickens, Robert Frost, J.K. Rowling, and Ümmiye Koçak were the nine writers mentioned in this coursebook. Lastly, *Count Me In* consisted of two quotes; one of which was by Mehmet Akif Ersoy and the other was an extract from Oliver Twist. Charles Dickens and Mehmet Akif Ersoy were the only writers mentioned. There were also four stories and two poems by anonymous writers.

4.2. Results of Cultural Content Analysis of English Coursebooks

Each coursebook was analysed in terms of the cultural content integrated into the reading texts and data gathered were categorised based on the culture types, L1, L2, international cultures or culture neutral. The findings are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. *Number of Readings with Cultural Information in English Coursebooks*

	L1 Culture	L2 Culture	International Culture	Culture-Neutral
Progress	43	45	46	51
Teenwise	4	15	23	9
Relearn	9	12	11	9
Secondary English	12	8	8	9
Silver Lining	9	16	21	5
Sunshine English	13	12	4	7
Count Me In	5	8	4	20

Despite the fact that all ELT coursebooks were authored by Turkish writers and thus belong to an expanding circle country, there was no pattern regarding the inclusion of culture types. To start with the English coursebook of 9th grade, *Progress*, all culture types were included in a balanced way in this coursebook (L1 culture, frequency (*f*) = 43; L2, *f*=45; international culture, *f*= 46; culture-neutral, *f* = 51). The second book under analysis, *Teenwise*, paid foremost attention to international culture (*f*=23), followed by L2 culture (*f*=15). The inclusion of L1 culture and culture-neutral topics were at the same level (*f*=9). Like *Progress*, all culture types were given almost the same amount of attention in *Relearn!*, which is the 9th grade English language coursebook (L1 culture, *f* = 9; L2, *f*=12; international culture, *f* = 11; culture-neutral, *f* = 9). As for the English coursebook of 10th grade level, Secondary English Coursebook, the focus on L1 culture (*f*= 12) was slightly more than the focus on other culture types (L2, *f*=8; international culture, *f*= 8; culture-neutral, *f* = 9). The next English coursebook under scrutiny was *Silver Lining*, English coursebook for 11th grade. Like *Teenwise*, it contained international cultural content (*f*=21) and L2 cultural content (*f*=16) more than it consisted of L1 cultural content (*f*=9) and culture-neutral topics (*f*=5). Table 4 shows that *Sunshine English*, English language coursebook of 11th grade, paid fair attention to L1 culture (*f*=13) and L2 culture (*f*=12), whereas frequency count for culture-neutral topics (*f*=7) and international cultural content (*f*=4) was low. The last English coursebook under analysis was *Count Me In*, which is for 12th grade level. Most of the readings included culture-neutral topics (*f*=20), while the number of readings integrated L1 culture and international culture were almost equal (*f*=5; *f*=4, respectively). Lastly, the attention paid to L2 culture (*f*=8) was more than L1 cultural content but less than culture neutral topics.

As for the last question, all English coursebooks were analysed in order to find out whether these coursebooks addressed culture through literature. There was one story in *Progress* which deals with a detective story by Agatha Christie and gives biographical information about Agatha

Christie. Both *Teenwise* and *Relearn!* did not contain any literary piece of work which addressed cultural content at the same time. *Secondary Education English*, English coursebook for 10th grade, had three stories from Nasreddin Hodja and Köroğlu referring to cultural information as well. *Silver Lining* consisted of a type of poem, Haiku, in the form of a reading providing cultural background of Haiku. Lastly, neither Sunshine English nor Count Me In included activities addressing culture via literature. In addition to these, there was no extra guideline about how to address culture through literary works in teacher's books of any coursebooks.

To sum up, the number of literary works included in ELT coursebooks at high school level was quite limited. Stories and poems occupied more space even though poems, plays, stories, and novels were all recommended to be employed as authentic materials at all grade levels in the language curriculum (MoNE, 2016). In these coursebooks, cultural content was included from different cultures at varying degrees. However, there was no guideline regarding how to address cultural topics through literary works. Unless teachers themselves make use of the cultural model of Carter and Long (1991), the reference to culture through literary works was quite limited to the examples mentioned above.

5. Discussion

This study set out with the aim of evaluating English language coursebooks currently used at public high schools in Turkey in terms of the literary works, literary references, and culture included. The data gathered from 7 coursebooks were analysed with descriptive content analysis. The findings were discussed along with the results of previous studies.

To start with the first research question, the findings of the research indicated that the inclusion of literary texts in these ELT coursebooks were quite limited because the amount of literary works did not constitute more than ten percent of all the reading passages in the coursebooks. This finding corroborated with the study of Aydınoğlu (2013), who also found that the inclusion of the literary texts into ELT coursebooks for tertiary level is limited. This result was also in line with Gümüşok (2013) who explored that literary works were not allocated enough space in the ELT coursebooks used at preparatory classes as well. The ELT coursebook of preparatory school analysed in this study was rich with literary texts because there are 20 units, which should be stated since other coursebooks have ten units. As for the literary genre mostly used, it was story, followed by poem, and there was no novel or play integrated in any coursebook. This was consistent with the study of Correia (2011) who found that short story or a chapter from a book were employed most as literary genre, and the study of Yıldırım (2012) who found

that the literary works were mostly in prose. On the other hand, this finding did not confirm the previous research by Gümüşok (2013) who presented the mostly used literary genres in the following way: novel, poem, story, and play. Even though poems, plays, stories, and novels were also recommended to be employed as authentic materials at all grade levels in curriculum of English language for high school (MoNE, 2016), the number of literary works included in ELT coursebooks at high school level was quite limited to only stories and poems, and there were not any suggested literary texts or readers in teacher' books. The main reason for including story and poem more could be that both literary genres are brief and relatively easier to integrate and there are stories and poems on a variety of topics at any level of difficulty (Collie & Slater, 1987). This difference could also be considered to result from the fact that there is a tendency to make use of shorter literary text, which do not put lots of load on teachers' shoulders when the curriculum is expected to be covered in four hours a week. As to the literary references in the English language coursebooks, literary references were mostly made to writers, or through quotations, or in the form of literary works and characters. Unlike the low rate of inclusion of literary works themselves in the coursebooks, the literary figures were frequently referred, which also substantiated the previous research conducted by Aydınoğlu (2013) and Gümüşok (2013). The fact that literary references was more than the number of literary works integrated in all the coursebooks indicated that ELT coursebooks are expected to draw learners' attention to literary texts by making learners get familiar with the literary figures through quotations, titles of literary texts, and their authors (Aydınoğlu, 2013). When all literary works and references are considered, this study also confirmed previous research by Andarab (2019) who reported that the literary works integrated into ELT coursebooks come more from the inner circle countries and less from expanding circle countries. In addition, the distribution of literary references to coursebooks for different language proficiencies was not equal and the number of references did not increase based on the proficiency level for which the coursebooks. This result was not in line with what Yıldırım (2012) found out because she reported that the reference to literary works were rather few and limited to upper-intermediate level. In terms of approaches to teaching and analysing literature, no explicit approach was identified either in students' book or in teacher's book unlike Fjellestad (2011); therefore, teachers are responsible for how to teach and analyse the literary texts included. Overall, the fact that the language used in literary works is representational (McRae, 1991), which can provide learners many opportunities to use their imagination and creativity (Widdowson, 1982), and facilitate their linguistic knowledge as well as their "personal growth" (Kramsch, 1993), proves that learners miss the chance of improving their creativity, one of the 21st century skills. The reason could be that it was

concluded that literary works were not employed enough in language coursebooks and stories and poems are the only literary works included. However, they were frequently referred.

Concerning the second research question, this study also attempted to probe how the English language coursebooks of an expanding circle country, in this case Turkey, represent the source, target, and international cultures and culture-neutral topics. Although the ELT coursebooks for high schools in Turkey were authored by writers from Turkey, an expanding circle country, no trend was identified concerning which culture type was the focus across these coursebooks. Even though some coursebooks, *Progress, Teenwise, Silver Lining, Count Me In*, were distributed by the same publishing house, MoNE, there was still no pattern in terms of whose culture was addressed more. The reason for which there were differences among the ELT coursebooks in terms of whose culture is mostly addressed could be due to the fact that these ELT coursebooks were written by different groups of authors. Three ELT coursebooks, which are *Progress, Relearn, and Secondary English*, paid fair attention to all culture types, which means that they referred to inner, outer, and expanding circle countries. This finding bore similarities with the study of Çelik and Erbay (2013) who also found that various cultures were represented in ELT coursebooks used at secondary school English language coursebooks in Turkey. On the other hand, this result was partially in correlation with the previous study of Ulum and Bada (2016) in the sense that ELT coursebooks of expanding circle countries consisted native and international cultural content and did not allocate much room to the culture of inner circle countries. The justification for displaying a balanced view of different cultures could be that learners get the opportunity to be exposed to various nations, cultures, and different lifestyles throughout the coursebooks (Çelik & Erbay, 2013). However, two coursebooks, Teenwise and Silver Lining, focused more on target and international cultures, which could mean that they included the cultural content about inner, outer, and expanding circle countries, but the source culture did not occupy too much space. This finding shared similarities with the study of Arslan (2016) who also found that ELT coursebooks of 3rd and 4th grade levels consisted of the cultural elements of target and intercultural cultures more than the source culture (L1). Likewise, Böcü and Razı (2016) reported that ELT coursebooks used at tertiary level were composed of various cultures but included little amount of the source culture. Nevertheless, this result differed slightly from Yuen (2011) who stated that the coursebooks paid foremost attention to the cultures of inner and outer circle countries and less attention to the cultures of the expanding circle countries. This finding was in contradiction with the study of Hamiloğlu and Mendi (2010) because they reached the conclusion that no coursebooks

contained both intercultural topics and the culture of the inner circle countries. In addition, this finding did not confirm the study of Rashidi and Meihami (2016) who reported that the source and international cultures were represented more than the culture of inner circle countries in expanding circle countries. The rationale behind the use of target and international culture components could be explained by the fact that learners should be trained in terms of both linguistics and culture because "they inevitably fail to understand some utterances specifically used by the native speakers for different purposes" (Çakır, 2010, p.188). On the other hand, *Sunshine English* paid attention specifically to local and target cultures, which also confirmed the findings of Yıldırım (2012) as it was indicated that local and target cultures were referred in each reading texts of elementary and upper-intermediate levels of three ELT coursebooks. This finding did not appear to corroborate Demirbaş (2013) who concluded that English coursebooks published by MoNE publications for public secondary schools included mostly target culture and limited international culture. Integrating both source and target cultures can prevent learners from feeling isolated or left-out during language learning process as Zu and Kong (2009) pointed out that one of the purpose of language teaching is to raise "culturally double-directional learners" so that they can both learn the target culture and reflect on their own culture in relation with the target culture. Lastly, *Count Me In* included mostly culture-neutral topics like human rights with minor focus on source, target, and international cultures. Overall, it could be stated that there have been advances in paying attention to all cultures in the ELT coursebooks produced for high schools in Turkey since the previous series were examined by Ulum and Bada (2016). The rationale could be explained by the motive for aligning the English language curriculum of Turkey with the objectives of CEFR as pointed out by Çelik and Erbay (2013). The reason could be also related to that ELT coursebooks were aimed to contribute to students' intercultural competency as well as communicative language ability (Tajeddin & Teimourizadeh, 2014). As for the issue of whether culture was addressed through the literary texts in English language coursebooks, the occurrences of literary texts referring to cultural content was so rare and limited to only two coursebooks despite the fact that "literature is the culture of the people using that language" (Keshavarzi, 2012). As the number of literary texts was not high, this finding was as expected. Even though MoNE curriculum of English language for high school (2016) pointed out the significance of cultural awareness, there was no extra guideline about how to address culture through literary works in teacher's books of any coursebooks. Considering this, it could be suggested that teachers should focus on both literature and culture even if there is no guideline.

All in all, it was concluded that inclusion of literary texts into ELT coursebooks for high schools in Turkey was limited, and stories and poems had the priority in terms of literary genres. Although rare usage of literary works could hinder learners reaping the benefits of literary works, making constant references to literary texts, authors and literary figures could assist in raising awareness about these and encourage learners to read more. As for the integration of culture into ELT coursebooks, it was found out that each coursebook contained cultural content from inner, outer, and expanding circles, including the local culture, in varying degrees as some coursebooks paid more attention to some types of culture than the others. Lastly, as there were limited literary texts included, the instances of cultural content addressed through literary works were quite rare and only two coursebooks included occurrences of addressing culture through literary works.

6. Conclusion with implications

Analysis of 7 English language coursebooks for high school level in Turkey indicates that although literary texts are recommended to be used as authentic materials in language curriculum (MoNE, 2016), literary texts or references are not integrated much into ELT coursebooks. In spite of the benefits of literature for language learning, it is not preferred by the authors. However, the numbers of readings including cultural content is more than the number of literary texts and references. All culture types are integrated but the coursebooks differ from each other in terms of whose culture to focus. Even though reading texts include cultural information, culture is rarely addressed through the literary texts in these ELT coursebooks.

The main findings of the current study bear some implications for the field of ELT, English language teachers, instructors, coursebook authors, curriculum developers, and material designers. Regarding the literary works, most of the language coursebooks produced by inner circle countries offer online library section or readers to be read along with the coursebooks, which can be adapted to our ELT coursebooks. As Hall (2016, as cited in Hall, 2016) suggested, literary text can be read during extensive reading activities. Online libraries, which are appropriate for their language level, can be employed as an extensive reading activity if literary works cannot be integrated into the coursebooks. Thus, learners can read any book of their choice. In addition, in teacher's manual, some suggestions on readers can be offered because it does not seem to be enough to recommend literary texts as authentic material in the curriculum because it does not ensure the inclusion of the literary works in English courses. Hence, teachers and instructors can make use of literary texts in relation with theme of the unit. Concerning the

inclusion cultural content, the coursebooks can be designed in a balanced way so that the culture of each circle is represented. Another implication can be that as the coursebooks vary from each other in terms of cultural content, teachers can provide support to learners with relevant supplementary materials. Thus, we can contribute to learners being "intercultural citizen" by making them familiarised with cultures of different countries rather than focusing on specific countries' culture. In addition, situation analysis can be carried out to find out teachers' needs in terms of training in use of literary works (Graves, 2016, as cited in Hall, 2016). After the analysis, English language teachers can be trained in how to make the best of literary texts and cultural content during in-service trainings, and webinars and workshops can be conducted to hold discussions and do some hands-on activities with both in-service and pre-service language teachers.

The present study is limited by the fact that only reading texts were analysed to find out literary texts, cultural content, and whether culture is addressed through these literary texts within the scope of this study since literary texts are either in prose or verse. Another limitation is that these coursebooks are republished or revised every five years. The English language coursebooks under scrutiny were published in 2019, except Secondary English coursebook published in 2018. The findings might not apply to the new language coursebooks to be published but can provide valuable feedback for what to cover and include regarding literature and culture. Lastly, the analysis of data did not meet the criterion of interrater reliability since the data were analysed only by the researcher, which is reserved for future work.

Future studies should deal with how these coursebooks are put into practice by gathering opinions of students and teachers about literary texts and cultural content covered. With the help of surveys and interviews so as to find out to what extent literary works and culture are being integrated in practice, and whether any supplementary materials are employed in English language classes. Additional research on the analysis of other language skills for cultural content would help to see the big picture in terms of whose culture was referred in addition to the ones mentioned in reading texts. Lastly, further work can be carried out to compare ELT coursebooks published for different grade levels in order to investigate the improvement in the inclusion of literature and culture over the years and provide constructive feedback to teachers, instructors, education policy makers, curriculum developers, and coursebooks authors.

Research and Publication Ethics Statement

Since document analysis is conducted in the article, ethics committee permission or special permission is not required.

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Declaration of Conflicting Interest

The Author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

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English Speaking Anxiety and Accent in an Online Speaking Classroom

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Abstract

Anxiety is one of the obstacles in the language learning process in terms of speaking. By virtue of anxiety, learners find speaking in the target language difficult, particularly in face-to-face-classroom situations. Nowadays, face-to-face classrooms have moved to online platforms. Several studies aiming to uncover whether speaking anxiety is affected in online situations differently from face-to-face situations have concluded online environments' positive decreasing effect on speaking anxiety while also showing language learners might have speaking anxiety in every situation due to various reasons. Therefore, this study set out to clarify the effect of Google Meet on speaking anxiety, and tried to identify whether accent is one of the reasons for speaking anxiety. Mixed research design was carried out. The results showed that learners had a low moderate level of speaking anxiety in Google Meet compared to their general English-speaking anxiety and the accent was not found directly interrelated with it.

Keywords: English-speaking anxiety, accent, identity, online speaking, online education

Introduction

The basic way to communicate is the language itself and language is a complex phenomenon. In a similar vein, language learning is a complicated and a demanding process, as well. This process can easily be affected by a number of reasons such as learner differences and may vary depending on these. One of the most important learner differences influencing the language learning process is the "anxiety". According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986, p.125), anxiety is defined as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system". Anxiety might be considered as one of the most powerful obstacles posed in the process of language learning. While having language anxiety decreases the learners' motivation and desire to learn the language, it makes it highly difficult for learners to produce utterances in the target language.

Language anxiety might be in a form of anxiety which is related to language learning, or a form of which is related to speaking. The main issue in the present study is concerned with English speaking anxiety of English language learners. Foreign language speaking anxiety may differ in different platforms and may be affected by some factors.

Face-to-face classrooms and online platforms might be considered as examples of these different situations. As a result of living in a technology-centered era, the use of online platforms for language teaching has increased to a large extent. Nowadays, face-to-face classrooms have moved to online platforms. By means of the widespread use of distance education environments due to Covid-19 pandemic, lectures have started to be delivered on online platforms more than before. Depending on the need to use emergency remote education as a conclusion of Covid-19 pandemic, it is a matter of curiosity about whether technology has a positive or negative effect on the anxiety concern of language learners.

Even if various platforms have influences on English speaking anxiety, there must be other factors which are more important than the platforms, such as differences in personality traits, low vocabulary knowledge, fear of making mistakes, being judged by others but what about having a non-native accent? In this study, it is also aimed to determine if accent has any effect on speaking anxiety or not. According to Merriam-Webster Dictionary (n.d.), accent can be described as ''a distinctive manner of expression: such as a way of speaking typical of a particular group of people and especially of the natives or residents of a region or an individual's distinctive or characteristic inflection, tone, or choice of words''. Accents are

divided in two main groups such as native vs. non-native accents. However, non-native English speakers already surpassed the number of native English speakers in 2003 (Crystal, 2003) and it seems that it continues to exceed this ratio as becoming a more global language each day.

There have been some researchers in the literature studying for the legitimization of non-native accents and there have been different names used for this purpose. Lingua franca movement by Elder and Davies (2006), Holliday (2008), English a Lingua Franca by Seidlhofer (2000), Jenkins (2000), Sifakis (2009), and Cogo and Dewey (2006), Lingua Franca English by Mauranen (2003) and Canagarajah (2007) are the examples of this. Kurtuldu (2019) indicates that only academic settings could serve as a bridge for the approval of these non-native forms and this may reduce anxiety if accent has any effect on it.

Literature Review

Online platforms and foreign language speaking anxiety

The use of technology in the learning process, in fact, dates back to a long time with the emergence of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in the 1960s. CALL may be defined as the use of any kind of technological tools and platforms in the process of language learning and teaching (Levy, 1997; Chapelle, 2002). The effect of CALL, the attitudes and beliefs of both learners and students have been heavily investigated over the years, and the results have demonstrated almost the same results, which is having a positive attitude and a meaningful contribution to the process (Saglam & Sert, 2012; Ozel & Arikan, 2015; Ionescu, 2017).

CALL is an umbrella term and, as it claimed before, it includes 3D virtual environments in it. Second Life can be counted as one of the most well-known virtual environments, and the effect of it has been investigated much. It might be claimed that Second Life is an environment in which learners feel more motivated based on the studies on this issue (Kamali, 2012; Uzun, 2017).

On the other hand, pursuant to the reason for being one of the most powerful obstacles posed in language learning, anxiety, as well, has been searched and investigated by some researchers. Hereby, the effect of Second Life in terms of reducing learners foreign language speaking anxiety has been found in a positive direction in the research of Abal (2012), Bautista (2013), Gao (2015), Guzel and Aydin (2016). On the other hand, a research carried out by Oh and Nussli (2014) reported that 3D environments like Second Life were challenging for learners and there was a need for simpler and easier platforms to be used in the language learning

process. Punar and Uzun's (2019) study investigating Skype Conference Call, which is a simpler and easier online platform, by comparing a face-to-face group and Skype Conference call group, reported that online platforms decreased English speaking anxiety level of learners. Briefly, literature on English learning anxiety in online platform shows that online environments can reduce the students' anxiety and lead to a less stressful classroom environment (Alshahrani, 2016; Aydın, 2018; Huang & Hwang, 2013; Kruk, 2016; Punar & Uzun, 2019). Nevertheless, there is limited research on the issue of specific online platforms' influences on foreign language speaking anxiety and their deliberating reasons. Due to Covid-19 pandemic, emergency remote education has come into action, and the need for such studies has increased to be able to make learners feel more relaxed and more successful while learning and speaking English. One of the purposes of the present study is to investigate the effect of Google Meet group speaking sessions, which is commonly used during the pandemic in Turkey, on English preparatory class students' English speaking anxiety.

Foreign language speaking anxiety and accent

Since investigating the effect of Google Meet group speaking on English speaking anxiety of learners will not be adequate, there is a clear need to investigate the reasons behind this anxiety. One of the frequency sources of anxiety was found as interaction with native speakers by Woodrow (2006), Çağatay (2015) in their studies investigating language speaking anxiety. Accent might be the first topic appearing in mind when interaction with native speakers are considered. Kachru and Nelson (2011, p.11) defines accent as "the pronunciation of sounds, to stress and intonation, or to the rhythm of speech". Therefore, "like it or not, we all judge others by how they speak" (Cavallaro & Chin, 2009, p.143).

There have been studies in the literature examining non-native accents and anxiety as separate areas of interest. However, the conclusion from the review of the existing literature on ELT shows that accent has not been investigated in terms of being the main variable or not which causes anxiety, especially from the language learners' point of view. The literature on anxiety is divided into parts such as speaking, listening, writing anxiety, foreign language teaching anxiety from teachers' perspectives, etc. Accent and its effects on anxiety if there are any has not been comprehensively studied yet. As a reason for this, the existing literature is presented below as a summary by being associated with the present study.

İpek (2016) conducted a study on language teachers' anxiety and tried to find the probable reasons. One of the reasons for their anxiety was the students' expectation of perfect pronunciation in the target language from their language teachers, which could be associated

with the accent. Another study by Wilang and Singhasiri (2017) investigated out-of-class anxiety in line with its effects on intelligibility and found that when anxiety was increased, intelligibility was decreased. Intelligibility might be counted as one of the basic components of any accent. Kralova and Mala (2018) carried out a study on language teachers' anxiety in terms of pronunciation in Slovak context. Foreign language anxiety negatively influenced teachers' communication skills. Takkaç Tulgar's (2018) researched the speaking anxiety of Turkish language learners and claimed that language learners are afraid of negative evaluation during their speech as seen in other studies by Kitano (2001) and Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009). Therefore, this could be easily interrelated with accent. In Kurtuldu and Özkan's (2019) study, teachers having knowledge of World Englishes and a variety of accents had a welcoming attitude towards the styles of their students' speaking on condition that their accent could be understood and they could express themselves. From this perspective, language teachers informed on this issue could assist their students to feel more relaxed while speaking enabling the reduction of anxiety. In Kurtuldu and Özkan's (2019) study, teachers having knowledge of World Englishes and a variety of accents had a welcoming attitude towards the styles of their students' speaking on condition that their accent could be understood and they could express themselves. In their studies, Öztürk (2009) and Yoshida (2013) highlighted that their participants were afraid of making mistakes and this was also one of the reasons for anxiety. From these perspectives, language teachers informed on the existence of different English accents could assist their students to feel more relaxed while speaking enabling the reduction of anxiety and fear of making mistakes.

Taking all of these issues into consideration, it might be claimed that English speaking anxiety is a problem for language learners since it hinders their fluency and accuracy in speaking. Even if different platforms have different effects on learners' foreign language speaking anxiety, having a non-native accent might be considered as a problematic aspect for some individuals especially in the duration of speaking. The ways of reducing anxiety have been investigated in the literature, accent perception and enhancing intelligibility, as well. One of these ways might be the use of online environments in language education. To be able to shed light on this issue, the present study tries to clarify the effect of an online speaking environment in order to investigate the anxiety level of learners by considering accent in terms of their perspectives. The present study set out to clarify the effect of Google Meet Group Speaking Sessions on speaking anxiety, and also tried to find an answer for whether accent is one of the deliberating reasons for speaking anxiety. This research seeks to address the following questions:

1) To what extent does an online speaking environment affect learners' English speaking anxiety?
2) What impact does accent have on preparatory class students in an online classroom?
3) What kind of relationship do anxiety and accent have?

Method

In the present study, the mixed research design consisting of quantitative and qualitative data collection processes (Dörnyei, 2007) was utilized.

Participants

The participants of the present study were selected based on convenience sampling (Creswell, 2014). A class of 28 English preparatory students specializing in a state university in Mersin, Turkey was chosen for the study; however, 25 out of 28 students participated in the quantitative data process. The age range of the students was 18-22. The whole process of the data collection was conducted on a voluntary basis. Therefore, the number of the students participating in the Likert and ordinal scale appeared to be 25 in the quantitative data collection , which was the first phase of the data collection. For the second phase of data collection including qualitative data, only 20 students accepted to contribute to the semi-structured open-ended questionnaire. With this regard, it was aimed to reveal a deeper understanding of the quantitative data.Out of 20 participants, 10 were female and 10 were male.

Materials

The speaking sessions were held on Google Meet as group speaking sessions. In these online speaking sessions, 15 questions from the course book dealt within the term were selected and students were asked to answer two questions among 15. All the questions were open-ended, interpretation questions about numbers, colors, hygiene, schools, etc.

Data collection tools

In the present study, three data collections tools were administered.

1. The first one was a five-point Likert scale, modified based on the scale by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) to measure learners' General English Speaking Anxiety(GESA). The scale was coded as (1. Strongly Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly Agree).

2. The second tool was an ordinal scale on a five-point coded from "No Anxiety to High Anxiety" to measure the anxiety level of learners after Google Meet Group Speaking Sessions. The scale was originally constructed by Abal (2012).
3. In terms of extracting the participants' beliefs and opinions about their accent and anxiety, they were requested to fill out a semi-structured open-ended questionnaire consisting of nine questions of which six were yes/no questions and three were open-ended questions. The participants were given the chance of explaining their choices in the yes/no questions, which provided the whole understanding of the underlying reasons for their answers.

Procedure and data analysis

Quantitative data process

As a first part of the present study, at the end of the spring term, the questions were selected randomly from the course book and they were transferred into a PowerPoint presentation. GESA was sent to the students via email in the previous week before the online group speaking sessions started. Then, the students were divided into seven groups of four. The date and time of the Online Speaking Sessions were arranged and scheduled and the students were informed on their assigned timetables via Google Classroom. Google Meet links were shared with each group at the assigned time via email. Each group logged into the online group speaking session based on the shared link of Google Meet. Then, the session started. During the session, the lecturer asked students to tell a number between 1 and 15. When the student told the number, the lecturer opened that number's page to show the question; the student answered the question and this was repeated twice for each student and each of them had five minutes to talk about the two questions. Each session lasted 20 minutes. After completing answering the questions, the second scale (ordinal scale) was sent. While they were completing the scale, the lecturer logged out in advance and when the students completed the scale, they logged out. The quantitative data was transferred into and analysed in SPSS 20. by conducting One-Sample T-test.

Qualitative data process

After the quantitative data collection process was completed, the qualitative data collection process started. The students were sent out the semi-structured open-ended questionnaire on Google Forms via Gmail. The questionnaire included nine questions in total; six yes-no questions having a requirement of giving reasons for their yes-no answers and three open-ended

questions. Besides, the students were asked for further explanations if needed to clarify their reasons. Under the Grounded Theory, open-coding by Charmaz (2006) was benefited to codify the related themes. The codes were extracted out from the participants' answers through a comprehensive reading and decoding process of the data. The grammatical correction for the participants' expressions was ensured to provide an easy reading. Besides, the member check was applied in order to provide the credibility of the data. While presenting the data, the participants were given numbers randomly and their interpretations were shown with the P letter as an abbreviation of the word 'participant' (e.g. P3, P7).

Findings and Discussion

The present study was carried out by conducting a mixed research design. The quantitative process was aimed to find an answer to the question of the extent of the online speaking environment's effect on learners' English speaking anxiety. Related to the first research question, One Sample T-test analysis was conducted and the results showed that at the beginning of the process, the students' general English speaking anxiety level mean was 3,10 demonstrating a moderate level of anxiety. After online speaking sessions, based on the ordinal scale to measure their anxiety level, the mean was 2,72, which can be interpreted as the anxiety level was decreased. The data analysis showed a significant difference between the general anxiety and online speaking anxiety, since the p value was smaller than ,05. The obtained results were demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1

One Sample T-test results comparing General English speaking anxiety and online speaking anxiety.

	N	M	SD	P value
GESA	25	3,1029	,69316	,000*
Ordinal scale after online sessions	25	2,7200	,17400	

As a result of the quantitative data analysis, it might be claimed that learners had a moderate level of anxiety in terms of speaking English in general. When they were exposed to an online speaking environment such as Google Meet Group Speaking Sessions, their English speaking anxiety level decreased and it was observed in a low moderate level. These results of the present study were in line with Abal's study (2012) comparing two groups, which were face-to-face and multi-user virtual environment of Second Life. His study reported that the treatment group demonstrated a greater anxiety reduction. Similarly, Huang and Hwang's study (2013)

assessing the multimedia instruction in English classrooms resulted in reducing students' anxiety. Kruk (2016) investigated the effect of an online environment, again Second Life on language learners' motivation, anxiety and boredom levels. In that study, the students engaged with Second Life reported that they had a low level anxiety during practicing English in Second Life. Except 3D virtual environments' effect on speaking anxiety, Punar and Uzun (2019) compared a face-to-face classroom speaking to an online speaking environment, which is Skype, in terms of students' anxiety level. The results of the study showed that the students exposed to online speaking in Skype Conference Call had a lower moderate level than the students exposed to face-to-face speaking.

Consequently, it might be inferred that the use of online environments can be fruitful for language learners while increasing their English speaking anxiety. Yet, the level of their anxiety is still in existence, and the reasons for this anxiety should be investigated further. The present study tried to identify whether accent is one of the deliberating reasons of this anxiety. The qualitative results of the present study aimed to answer this question.

The definition of "accent"

The participants of this present study preferred to define accent as a speech type or pronunciation choice which differs from individual to individual. Half of them (n.10) dwelled on the effect of regional factors on individuals' accents. Their beliefs put forth the idea that these factors were inevitable in the process of developing an accent in time not only in their mother tongues but also in other languages that were learned later. Some of the participants' interpretations are listed below.

P1: "Accent is a different type of speech in any language."

P2: "It is a speech form that varies from person to person."

P6: "According to me, accent is the different pronunciation of the same words varying from region to region."

P12: "I think accent is something specific to the region where you live. There are different types of speech in different parts of a country, this is how accents occur. "

P19: "It is the way a person pronounces the words as a conclusion of the effect from his/her environment."

Accent tendency

When the participants were asked their opinion about their own accents, the population was split into two; half of them (n.10) reported that they were pleased with their accents because they found it clear, different, rhythmic with correct pronunciation while the other half (n.10) informed that they were not pleased with their accents as a conclusion of lack of fluency and incorrect pronunciation. Either because the participants (n.5) admired the native English accents or because they (n.6) desired to be intelligible and improve themselves, 11 of them stated that they sometimes made extra effort to speak like native English speakers. A few participants (n.5) foresaw that their accent would be improved over time. The other participants (n.12) who did not endeavor to sound like a native English speaker gave their reasons by indicating that expressing oneself was sufficient for them (n.9). Their expressions are presented below:

P3: "I like my accent because I think it is clear and easy to understand."

P4: "I like my accent but I think I need to improve it to be understood by listeners."

P6: "I like my accent because I pronounce the words correctly, I think."

P9: "I like my accent. I think it is a nice accent because I pronounce the words in the correct way."

P12: "I don't like my own accent when speaking in English because I have not developed myself in pronunciation yet. I sometimes do not know how some words are pronounced but I believe that my pronunciation is going to be better when I learn more words."

P14: "I am very excited while speaking so I cannot speak fluently. That is why I do not like my accent."

P19: "I know my pronunciation is bad but I want to speak with an accent that everyone can understand, not very advanced or like an English gentleman. I just want to be understood correctly."

Some (n.3) of them highlighted the identity theme; they expressed that they were Turkish and for this reason, they did not feel the need to sound like those who are native speakers of English. Also, the majority of the population (n.13) in this study had a belief that having a different accent needs to be treated as a richness instead of weakness. The participants listed three factors that lead them to consider an accent is good. According to them, an accent is pleasing as long as the accent is *intelligible*, *fluent,* and *canorous*. Therefore, a good number of them (n.16)

found imitating native accents seemed unnecessary as a general opinion; however, being intelligible while speaking was significant for them.

P6: "In my opinion, everyone speaking the same language doesn't need to speak with the same accent. Sometimes, it is obvious that we are foreigners and English is not our native language so the other speakers should welcome our accent. I think the differences in accents are something nice."

P9: "It is enough if I can explain what I want to say and they can understand me."

P10: "If I can figure out someone's nationality from her/his speech, this makes me happy so we do not have to speak with a native accent."

P12: "The speech of every individual cannot be the same, I think this is impossible. However, you need to pronounce correctly if you want to be understood well."

P15: "As I said in the previous question, the main idea in communication should be intelligibility. Speaking like a native or not to speak is my choice."

Even though the answers were different, the common ground for their answers appeared to be intelligibility. Whether they chose to imitate a native accent as they believed that it would provide an intelligible accent or they chose to preserve their own accent as long as they were intelligible in speaking. It could be inferred from these findings that the participants put remarkable importance on the issue of being intelligible.

Accent vs. anxiety

Among 20 participants, 17 of them asserted that they felt anxious while speaking in English while three of them remained not anxious. They specified different reasons for their anxiety. The first two main reasons were found to be aroused from failing to remember what was going to be uttered (n.4) or not having an idea to express (n.4) and being afraid of making mistakes (n.3) in the duration of the speech. Some participants had an idea that their accent was an unpleasant accent (n.2) and/or their vocabulary knowledge was low (n.2). Apart from that, few of them (n.2) stated that they spoke slowly and thought too much during their speech and this caused anxiety. The participants (n.4), informing that their anxiety increased when they tried to speak with a native accent, were asked for their probable reasons causing anxiety to them. Among them, the majority elucidated that it was difficult to speak with a proper accent, therefore their anxiety level increased when they made a mistake as they were aware of their mistakes during performing a speech. When they were requested to give recommendations for

this situation, they reported that non-native accents should be welcomed by interlocutors and non-natives should not be afraid of their accents.

As an overview of the qualitative data and its analysis, it was demonstrated that 17 participants out of 20 asserted that they felt anxious while speaking in English while three of them remained not anxious. They specified different reasons for their anxiety. The main reasons were forgetting or not knowing what to utter and being afraid of making mistakes in the course of speech. The last reason, being afraid of making mistakes in the course of speech, was in line with the findings of the studies by Öztürk (2009) and Yoshida (2013). Also, they stated that they felt anxious if they thought their accent was an unpleasant accent while speaking or if they felt their vocabulary knowledge was low in general, especially when having difficulty with understanding or explaining something. The participants were afraid of negative evaluation as stated by Kitano (2001), Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009), and Takkaç Tulgar (2018). Consequently, it is possible to assert that the accent was found to be one of the anxiety-creating sub-reasons in the present study because some of the participants stated that they felt more anxious when they tried to imitate a native-speaker accent. The participants of this study highlighted the importance of the intelligibility theme ‘’*being understood by others*’’. In line with Wilang and Singhasiri (2017), it could be inferred that when anxiety was increased, intelligibility which could be referred to as one of the components of accent, was decreased. To provide an anxiety-decreasing atmosphere, much focus needs to be replaced on the intelligibility when the English language is considered as a lingua franca of individuals from various parts of the world.

Conclusion

Anxiety is highly associated with language learning, causing less motivation and less desire to both learn and produce the target language. To date, the ways of decreasing anxiety in the language learning process have been investigated; use of online platforms are one of them. Due to Covid-19 pandemic, emergency remote education has come into action and the use of online platforms has redoubled. Google Meet might be considered as one of the mostly-used online platforms in Turkey during the pandemic, and the present study investigated the effect of Google Meet Group Speaking Sessions on English language preparatory class students’ English speaking anxiety. On the other hand, it aimed to illuminate the influence of accent on anxiety to be able to produce some solutions for anxiety problems. This study used a mixed research design, both including two scales to measure the anxiety levels, and an interview to get an understanding of accent related issues.

The result of the pretest indicated that the learners had a moderate level of English speaking anxiety in general. The result of the posttest showed that online speaking sessions decreased the level of English speaking anxiety of learners. Concluding from, the level of anxiety was low moderate at the end of the online speaking sessions. On the other hand, there was a significant difference between General English Speaking Anxiety and Online Group Speaking Sessions. The results showed that language learners had moderate level of English speaking anxiety in both environments; however, in online environments, they had lower moderate level of anxiety. Therefore, it could be inferred that the use of online environments especially in speaking practice is beneficial for language learners to adapt themselves and reduce or overcome their anxiety within time.

The main reasons for anxiety were caused by being afraid of making mistakes and not being able to remember or know what was going to be said during their speech. A few of the participants in the questionnaire clarified that being negatively evaluated by the listeners was also one of their anxiety-causing reasons. Therefore, the accent could not be counted as one of the main reasons for anxiety. However, it was found to be a sub-reason causing anxiety. Thus, it could be asserted that anxiety and accent did not have a positive strong relationship in this study. Anxiety and accent relationship is still needed to be investigated on a larger population to be able to generalize. Another importance was the fact that it was detected that there was a relationship between anxiety and intelligibility as the participants stated that they used to forget their words or did not know how to explain themselves when they felt anxious.

There are some significant implications of the present study; students should be encouraged to use *Online Speaking Environments* which is possible to enable them to be a bit more relaxed in terms of speaking. Students should be informed that the local accent is a reality in language learning. The focus in speaking should better be moved to *intelligibility* instead of *accent* to enhance intercultural communication. The other reasons behind English speaking anxiety should be investigated comprehensively in order to offer some practical solutions to this problem. With this, we may ensure learners feel more comfortable while speaking English. In line with Kurtuldu and Özkan (2019), the individuals being informed on different English varieties are more probable to have a welcoming attitude towards different accent varieties. From this perspective, to raise awareness on this issue may help students feel more relaxed while speaking by enabling the reduction of anxiety.

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A case study of Arabic Phonological Acquisition of a Simultaneous Bilingual Syrian Arabic- English child in comparing with a Syrian Arabic peer

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Introduction

The present study is a comparative phonological study of a 3;4 years male child who simultaneously has acquired both Syrian Arabic and English since he was four months old and a Syrian Arabic monolingual peer.

The primary objective of this study is to describe the phonetic inventory of the bilingual child in Arabic in comparison with the Arabic monolingual child. Besides, it aims to identify the phonological processes of the subjects.

Research questions

This study tries to highlight the phonological development of the two subjects in Arabic; the two main questions of the study are:

- Is the bilingual subject acquiring phonemes in a similar manner with regard to place and manner of articulation? In other words, how are his phonemes similar to or different from the monolinguals' ones?
- What are the kinds of phonological processes that the bilingual child has (substitution, deletion, insertion…etc.) and how these are similar or different from the monolinguals' ones?

Arabic and English phonologies

Arabic and English descended from two different families; English is from the Germanic languages which are a branch of the Indo-European languages; on the other hand, Arabic is a Semitic language. Their linguistic systems have quite different structures in terms of the four linguistic components (phonology, morphology, semantics and syntax). Table 1 outlines the basic differences in the phonological systems of English and Syrian Arabic.

	English[1]	Syrian Arabic[2]
Vowels and diphthongs	/i/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ɜ/, /ə/, /ʌ/,/ɑ/, /u/, /ʊ/, /ɔ/, /ɒ/ /ʊə/, /oʊ/, /aʊ/, /aɪ/, /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/ /ɪə/, /eə/	/iː/, /eː/, /aː/, /oː/, /uː/, /i/, /e/, /a/, /o/, /u/, /ə/, /æ/ /aj/, /aw/
Initial consonants	/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /m/, /n/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/, /w/, /j/, /l/, /ɹ/. /ʧ/, /ʤ/	/b/, /t/, /d/, /tˤ/, /k/, /m/, /n/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, /s/, /sˤ ,/z/ ,/zˤ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /ʕ/, /h/, /ʔ/, /ħ/, /ɣ/, /x/, /w/, /j/, /l/, /r/.
Final consonants	/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /ʧ/, /ʤ/, /l/, /ɹ/.	/b/, /t/, /d/, /tˤ/, /k/, /m/, /n/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, /s/, /s/ ,/z/ ,/zˤ/ ,/ʃ/ ,/ʒ/ ,/ʕ/ ,/h/ ,/ʔ/ ,/ħ/ ,/ɣ/ ,/x/ ,/l/, /r/.
Syllable/ word structure	CV, CCV, CCCV, VC, VCC, CVCCC, CVCCCC.	CV, CVC, CVCC, CCV, CCVC, CCVCC, CCCV, CVV, CVVC, CCVV, CCVVC, CCCVV.

Development of Phonemic inventory in Arabic

In a series of studies conducted in Jordan on different ages of acquisition of Educated Spoken Arabic[3], they found the results as shown in Table 2.

Early (<2;0–3;10)		Intermediate (4;0–6;4)		Late (6;6–>8;4)	
Consonant	age	consonant	Age	consonant	Age
/n/	<2;0	/x/	4;6 /	/tˤ /	8;4
/w/	<2;0	/s/	5;0 /	/dˤ /	7;4
/m/	2;0	/ʃ/	5;0 /	/ʔ/	7;4
/t/	2;6	/h/	5;0 /	/θ/ 7;4	
/k/ 2;6		/r/	5;6 /	/ð / >8;4	
/f/ 2;6				/z / 7;4	
/ ħ / 2;6				/sˤ / >8;4	
/b/ 3;0				/ʕ / 7;4	
/d/ 3;0					
/l/ 3;6					

[1]The description of the English phonological system is taken from Holm and Dodd study (1999).

[2] The description of Syrian Arabic phonology is collected from different references, basically from Shaheen (2017), McCarthy (1980).

[3] "Educated Spoken Arabic is a form of Arabic comprising parts common to all dialects and is a mixture of the formal and vernaculars used by educated Arabs of different dialects as a means of informal communication." "Classical and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), is the formal form of Arabic and is used in formal instances such as schools, radio and TV programmes, meetings, conferences, newspapers, books, and religious functions."Educated Spoken Arabic is a new tendency used specially in teaching in schools and universities, and it is common in the case of teaching Arabic for non-native speakers.
Retrieved from: https://www.jesoc.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/KC4_16.pdf.

Table 2. Arabic consonants from two studies, on early and intermediate acquisition (Amayreh & Dyson, 1998), **and late acquisition** (Amayreh,2003).

Phonological processes

Children during the course of acquisition do a lot of sound changes or patterns of 'errors' (e.g. substitution, deletion, assimilation). Such patterns occur due to lack of vocal matureness, so children try to simplify their speech. However, these types of sound change disappear gradually with their increasing ability to appropriately coordinate their lips, tongue, teeth, palate and jaw for clear speech.

Dyson and Amayreh (2000), in a study on fifty Arabic monolingual children aged between 2;0 and 4;4, elicited samples from different regions in Jordan with different dialects and compared the samples to Educated Spoken Arabic as a standard. They concluded that de-emphasis (de-pharyngealization) is the most dominant processes which was at least repeated half of the times in the samples, with 25± 50% times of occurrence for stridency deletion and lateralization of /r/aathey suggested that the high occurrence of de-emphasis could be a result of the infrequency and low functional load of emphatic consonants in Arabic.

Researchers who study phonological development on normally developing monolingual children concluded that there is a big amount of similarities in 'error' types (e.g. fronting, assimilation and cluster reduction) in normal developing children across the world. (Dyson & Amayreh 2000).

However, studies on bilinguals tend to show that bilingual children may have their ways to develop their phonological systems which assimilate or dissimilate with their monolingual peers. A study on a group of simultaneous Spanish-English bilingual children done by Navarro, Pearson, Cobo-Lewis, and Oller (1995), (as cited in Holm & Dodd (1999)), concluded that bilinguals may have their different ways to arrive at the same goal. so their phonological processes are sometimes different from their monolingual peers.

Asaad (2018) in a study on her English-Arabic bilingual child between the age of 7 and 20 months reported aspects of regressive and progressive assimilation, substitution (stopping, gliding, and fronting), and metathesis, with limited amount of transfer of both languages. She ended up supporting Adnyani and Pastika's (2016) study as well as Genesee's (2001) argument which suggested that the language systems of bilinguals do not develop entirely separately.

Studies on successive Contanese-English bilingual children conducted by Dodd, So, and Li (1996) and Holm (1999) as cited in Holm and Dodd (1999) supported also being bilingual children have different phonological processes from their monolingual peers, these processes in bilinguals' languages seemed to be more likely similar to phonological disorder in monolingual children.

Holm and Dodd in their study (1999) on bilingual Cantonese-English successive children concluded that children have two separated phonological systems. The development of the two phonological systems were similar to their monolingual peers, however, there were some error patterns.

Method

Subjects

1. Nasruddeen

Nasruddeen, a simultaneous Damascene Syrian Arabic-English speaking child was 3;4 years-old when he was first assessed. He had moved to India when he was 2 months old.

Nasruddeen was exposed to only Damascene Syrian Arabic by his father, to both Damascene Syrian Arabic and English by his mother, and to only English by the nanny/babysitter. The babysitter was available from 5 p.m. to 8 p.m. every day. The parents were available for five hours daily.

Nasruddeen joined a play school at 15 months where only English was spoken by the tutor and Telugu by the helpers.

Nasrudden daily watched cartoons in English approximately for one hour and one hour of cartoons in Modern Standard Arabic.

Nasrudeen's birth and medical history were without incident. His hearing had been assessed and was within normal limits. His developmental milestones were age-appropriate.

2. Baraa

Baraa, a Damascene Syrian Arabic speaking monolingual child was 3;4 years old when he was first assessed. Baraa's parents are native speakers of Syrian Arabic. He is their only child and was not sent to any preschool.

Baraa was brought up in Syria and was not exposed to English.

Baraa's birth and medical history were without incident. His hearing had been assessed and was within normal limits. His developmental milestones were age-appropriate.

Data collection

Spontaneous sessions of Arabic were arranged; they aimed to describe the phonemes acquired by Nasruddeen and Baraa in order to highlight the phonetic inventory of them, to identify and classify phonological processes according to their frequency in the collected data.

These assessment sessions involved an adult interacting with the child. The data included spontaneous speech samples collected while playing with toys and looking at picture books.

Procedure of data collection

Three sessions for the bilingual child in Arabic, and three sessions for the Arabic monolingual child were arranged.

The total time for the sessions for both of the children is almost equal. Nasruddeen and Baraa's sessions were audio-recorded, then phonetically transcribed. The sessions were spontaneous conversations between the children and adults who sometimes used toys or books to stimulate the dialogue. The total time for the three sessions of each child is about forty-five minutes.

Analysis

The speech samples were analyzed manually to provide data for the phonetic inventories and phonological processes. The data of the bilingual child was compared to his monolingual peer to find out how the features of the phonological system are similar or not.

Samples of the Arabic transcript of the bilingual child at age 3;4

This session is a spontaneous conversation between Nasruddeen and his father in Arabic.

Note: The words which are written in bold are produced in English.

Session's date: 30/9/2019. Session's duration: 15m.

A: Nasruddeen we are drawing how the bee moves. (his father is asking in Arabic)

C: ʔe: walz/i:/ni:/ 4 morphemes (Arabic transcription)

Yes show.you.me. (the English equivalents)

Ok, Show me. (the meaning in English with the correct word order)

A: What else? what shall we do now? (his father is asking in Arabic)

C: 2- ʔal/faʔr bəd/u: l/ʒbnæ j/u:sal. 8 morphemes. (Arabic transcription)

The. mouse want.it the.cheese it.get. (the English equivalents)

The mouse wants to get the cheese. (pointing to the activity's picture), (the meaning in English with the correct word order).

A: Yes, we will link all of them, will you take the mouse to the cheese? (his father is asking in Arabic)

C: 3- laʔ ʔənte. 2morphemes. (Arabic transcription)

no you. (the English equivalents)

No, you. (the meaning in English with the correct word order)

C: 4- ta:l ʔ/llab hado:l .4morphemes. (Arabic transcription)

Come I. play these. (the English equivalents)

Let's play with these …these…these. (the meaning in English with the correct word order)

A: What are these? What do you mean by (these)? (his father is asking in Arabic)

C: 5- hado:l kel ʔal/shaɣl/a:t hado:l faiə enʒin. 6morphemes, lexical mixing (Arabic transcription)

These all the.thing.s these . (the English equivalents)

These… all the things, these... the **fire engine** (the meaning in English with the correct word order)

An overview of the bilingual child's language

1- The child- as the last sample shows- comprehends the utterances and responds to questions.

2- Table 3. shows some of the Arabic syntactic and morphological features of the child.

The bilingual child's stage according to Brown's stages	Age in months	Mean length of utterance	Upper bound	Morphological structure	Examples
IV	40		18	Present progressive	ʔam/j/lkod (21) Running.

		4,78[4]		Prepositions (in, on)	ʔa/l/ʃaʒala(44) On the tree.
				Regular plural	ʔal /shaɣl/a:t(5) The things
				Irregular plural	ʔal/ʔawla:d.(13) The children
				Articles	ʔal/faʔr(2) The mouse
				past tense	habe/t/a: (39) I liked it.
				Third person	juasl/u (13) they transport.

Table 3. syntactic and morphological features in the bilingual subject.

The mean length of utterance of the two subjects, was calculated - in a last conducted paper- by counting the number of morphemes in each utterance, then dividing the number by the total number of utterances, which is fifty utterances for each subject.

Samples of the transcript of the Arabic monolingual child at age 3;4.

Session's date: 25/9/2019 session's duration: 12m.

A: Baraa where should I keep these? (pointing to spicy jars) (his mother is asking)

C: 1- ʕ/al/ħe:tˤ. (Arabic transcription)

on.the.wall. 3m. (the English equivalents)

On walls. (means shelfs). (the meaning in English with the correct word order)

A: Yas, and for what do you use them? (his mother is asking)

C: 2- ʔa/ttabsæ.1m. (Arabic transcription)

On kabsah. (kabsah is a traditional Syrian dish). (the meaning in English with the correct word order).

A: Yes, I use it for food to taste better. (his mother is responding)

C: 3- be/l/ʔakl.3morphemes. (Arabic transcription)

In.the.food. (the English equivalents)

On food. (the meaning in English with the correct word order).

4

A: What's this? (his mother is asking)

C: 4- θu:ʔ1morphemes. (Arabic transcription)

What? (the meaning in English with the correct word order).

A: For which food we use it? (His mother is asking)

C: 5-ʔa/l/bitza. θu:ʔ (Arabic transcription)

On.the.pitza. what? 4morphemes. (the English equivalents)

For pizza. What is it? (the meaning in English with the correct word order).

An overview of the monolingual child's language

1- The child comprehends the utterances and responds to questions.

2- Table 4. shows some of the syntactic and morphological features of the child.

The bilingual child's stage according to Brown's stages	Age in months	Mean length of utterance	Upper bound	Morphological structure	Examples
IV	40	5,06	23	Present progressive	ʔa/t/əzi: (35) It's coming.
				Prepositions (in, on)	bɛ/l/ʔakl (3) On the food.
				Regular plural	
				Irregular plural	jumman (9) Pomegranate.
				Articles	əd/dəbban (13) the fly.
				past tense	waʔaʕ/ni: (47) made me fall down.
				Third person	təklaʕ(36) it appears.

Table 4. syntactic and morphological features in the monolingual subject.

The results

The target area of the study is phonology; my concern in this study is about the phonemes and the phonological processes in the Arabic data of the subjects. In the following paragraphs, I will go on to describe the phonemes of the two subjects with illustrative examples, followed by frequency calculation of occurrence of each of the phonemes. After that, there will be a description of some of the subjects' phonological processes.

1. Phoneme inventory

The following table (table.5) shows some illustrative data of the acquisition of Syrian Arabic the phonemes by the two subjects.

The table illustrates all the consonant sounds of Arabic as they occur in the initial, medial and the final position. We tried our best to include sounds in all positions but sometimes it was not possible as the conversation was spontaneous as far as the child was concerned. A few Arabic sounds are also not available in all the positions. The Arabic word is given on top and the utterance of the child is transcribed below that. The utterance number in which the word occurred is given within brackets. The transcript of the entire conversation is given in Appendix The target phoneme is in bold in each word. In the appendix, there are 105 utterances produced by the bilingual child Nasruddeen followed by 105 utterances produced by the monolingual child Baraa.

Note: the phoneme in bold represents the target phoneme or its substituted form, as produced by the children.

	The bilingual child			The monolingual child		
/b/	**/b**ədna:/ **/b**ədna:/ (15)	**/b**ihaj/ **/b**ihaj/	/nʒare**b/** /nʒale**b/**(40)	**/b**elʔakl/ **/b**elʔakl/(3)	/də**bb**an/ /də**bb**an/ (13)	/xə**b**z/ /xə**b**z /(7)
t	**t**axdi:on(34) for **t**axdi:on	habe**t**a: (39) for ħabe**t**a:	bana:**t** (22) for bana:**t**	xa:l**t**o: (30) for xa:l**t**o:	mə**t**lek (10) for mə**t**lek	ʔani:ne**t** mˁaj (8) for ʔani:ne**t** mˁaj
ʒ	ʃaʒala (44) for ʃaʒara	wal**z**i:ni:(1) for wari**ʒ**:ni:	mufaʒaʔa (51) for mufaʒaʔa	**z**əbnæ (6) for **ʒ**əbnæ	je**ð**i: (45) for je**ʒ**i:	ʔa**zz**i:ni (40) for ʔar**ʒ**i:ni
ħ	**ħ**abe:t (23) for **ħ**abe:t	wa**ħ**dæ (34) for wa**ħ**adæ	la**h**u: (43) for ra**h**u:	ʕal**ħ**e:tˁ (1) for ʕal**ħ**e:tˁ	sabba**ħ**a (18) for msabba**ħ**a	nəθ**h**ano (23) for nəθ**h**ano
x	ta**x**di:on (34) for ta**x**di:on	ja**x**do (11) for ja**x**do	ʔa**x**zəmon (33) for ʔast**x**dəmon	**x**əbz (7) for **x**əbz	ta:**x**di: (37) for ta:**x**di:	**x**a:lto: (30) for **x**a:lto:
d	**d**aɪnəsɔ: (42) for **d**aɪnaso:r	wah**d**æ (34) for wah**d**æ	ʔamjlk**d** (21) for ʕamjrko**d**	**d**a:ʔ (28) for **d**a:ʔ	bə**dd**i: (19) for bə**dd**i:	ta:x**d**i: (37) for ta:x**d**i:
ð	**ð**ajla: (94) for **ð**ajla:				ʔa**ðð**iʔb (43) for ʔa**ðð**iʔb	
r	**r**ajjek (31) for **r**aʔjek	da:ʔi**l**a (23) for da:ʔi**r**a	minka:**r** (97)for minqa:**r**	**j**umman (9) for **r**umman	**l**əz (22) for **r**əz	sta**l**et (61) for sta**r**et
z	la**z**em (36) for la**z**em	ɣi**z**a:l (88) for ɣa**z**a:l		ʔatˁlami:**ð** (21) for ʔatˁrami:**z**	bit**z**aħlatˁu: (99) for bit**z**aħlatˁu:	ɣa**z**a:l (103) for ɣa**z**a:l
s	**s**a:wi: (51) **s**a:wi:	je**s**sa (34) for le**s**sa	ba**s** (14) ba**s**	**s**abbaħa (18) **s**abbaħa	la:**s**i: (45) ra:**s**i:	baʔdu:ne**s** (15) baʔdu:ne**s**

ʃ	**ʃ**əmma: (19) for minʃəmma:	ʔalma**ʃ**fa: (10) for ʕalma**ʃ**fa:	**ʃ**an (47) for min**ʃ**an	**θ**u: (4) for ʃu:	ʔə**s**lab (10) ʔə**ʃ**rab	**θ**uklan (12) **ʃ**ukran
sˤ	**s**a:l (23) for **s**ˤa:r	jua**s**lu: (13) for juasˤlu:	ɣawwa**s**a (63) for ɣawwasˤa	mas**ˤ**a:s**ˤ**a (60) for mas**ˤ**a:s**ˤ**a	ħis**a**:n (113) for ħisˤa:n	ʔasˤfu:l (85) for ʕasˤfu:r
dˤ	baj**d**awi: (23) for baj**d**ˤawi:	**d**i:fæ (65) for n**d**ˤi:fæ		j**d**ˤal (49) j**d**ˤal	ji**d**ˤlebni (49) ji**d**ˤrebni	ɣla**d**ˤ (65) ɣra**d**ˤ
tˤ	hə**t**o:n (36) for hə**t**ˤo:n	ɣa**t**a: (48) for ɣatˤa:	ħə**t** (24) for ħə**t**ˤ	ba**t**ˤna: (42) for ba**t**ˤna:	ʕa**t**ˤ**t**ˤari:ʔ (35) for ʕa**t**ˤ**t**ˤari:ʔ	tsa**t**ˤaħna: (47) for tsa**t**ˤaħna:
zˤ	**z**i:læ (68) for **z**ˤɣi:ræ			**z**ˤɣi:l (92) for **z**ˤɣi:r		
ʕ	**ʔ**almaʃfa: (10) for **ʕ**almaʃfa:	ʔiss**ʕ**a:f (5) for ʔiss**ʕ**a:f	tə**ʕ**mli (31) for tə**ʕ**mli	**ʔ**albitza (5) for ʕalbitza	waʔa**ʕ**li (45) waʔa**ʕ**li	jikla**ʕ** (41) jitˤla**ʕ**
ɣ	**ɣ**əsna (46) for **ɣ**əsna	ʔalʃa**ɣ**la:t (5) for ʔalʃa**ɣ**la:t	**ɣ**ata: (48) for **ɣ**atˤa:	**ɣ**la:dˤ (65) for **ɣ**ra:dˤ	bel**ɣ**abæ (73) for bel**ɣ**abæ	zˤ**ɣ**i:l (92) for zˤ**ɣ**i:r
f	ʔal**f**aʔr (2) for ʔal**f**aʔr	sa**f**i:næ (56) for sa**f**i:næ	ʃu:**f**i: (78) for ʃu:**f**i:	**s**jjo: (23) for fjjo:	ji**s**taħ (58) for ji**f**taħ	ʔasˤ**f**u:l (85) for ʔasˤ**f**u:r
q	**k**alam (15) for **q**alam	**k**a:leb (59) for **q**a:reb	ʔalhali:**k** (12) for ʔalhali:**q**	ma**k**a:ʕed (57) for ma**q**a:ʕed		
k	**k**el (5) for **k**el	ʔə**k**tob (18) for ʔə**k**tob	rajje**k** (31) for raʔje**k**	ħe:**k** (29) for ħe:**k**	ji**kk**en (49) for jim**k**en	maʕe:**k** (35) for maʕe:**k**
l	**l**azem (18) for **l**azem	ʔaw**l**a:d (13) for ʔaw**l**a:d	ke**l** (5) for ke**l**	**l**u:bjæ (16) for **l**u:bjæ	ħə**l**w (23) for ħə**l**w	jdˤa**l** (49) for jdˤa**l**
m	ʃə**mm**a: (19) for minʃə**mm**a:	ʔa**m**jlkod (21) for ʕa**m**jrkod	təʕ**m**li: (37) for təʕ**m**li:	**m**akkalo:na (20) for **m**aʕkaro:na	ʔ**mm**o: (50) for ʔ**mm**o:	ka**m**a:n (75) for ka**m**a:n
n	**n**aʒdæ (11) for **n**aʒdæ	ʔə**n**te (3) for ʔə**n**te	jimke**n** (14) for jimke**n**	**n**akol (20) for **n**akol	**n**əθha**n**o (23) for **n**əʃha**n**o	mi**n** (10) for mi**n**
h	**h**ado:l (5) for **h**ado:l	**h**aj (51) for **h**aj	ʕale:**h**a (47) for ʕale:**h**a	**ħ**aj (10) for **h**aj	**ħ**a:da: (27) for **h**a:da:	**ħ**e:k (29) for **h**e:k
ʔ	**ʔ**awwal (39) for **ʔ**awwal	daj**ʔ**a (51) for da**ʔ**j**ʔ**a	fo:**ʔ** (45) for fo:**ʔ**	ba**ʔ**du:nes (15) for ba**ʔ**du:nes	**ʔ**ana: (19) for **ʔ**ana:	da:**ʔ** (27) for da:**ʔ**
w	**w**e:n (48) for **w**e:n	da**w**el (34) for nda**w**er	ʔa**ww**al (39) for ʔa**ww**al	ʔa**ww**al (23) for ʔa**ww**al	ħəl**w** (23) for ħəl**w**	za**ww**a:l (25) ʒa**ww**a:l
j	ʕ**jj**u:nek (54) for ʕ**jj**u:nek	la:**j**ek (37) for la:**j**ek	ha**j** (51) for ha**j**	xa**j**tˤi:la:**j**a (42) for xa**j**tˤi:la:**j**a	**j**ikken (49) for **j**imken	belma**j** (84) for belma**j**

Table 5: Examples of phonemes acquired by children.

Note, Numbers in between brackets refer to the complete sentences from which these words were taken in the appendix.

In the appendix, there are 105 utterances produced by the bilingual child Nasruddeen followed by 105 utterances produced by the monolingual child Baraa; if you want to see the complete sentence, make sure that you are in the target part.

The frequency of the phonemes

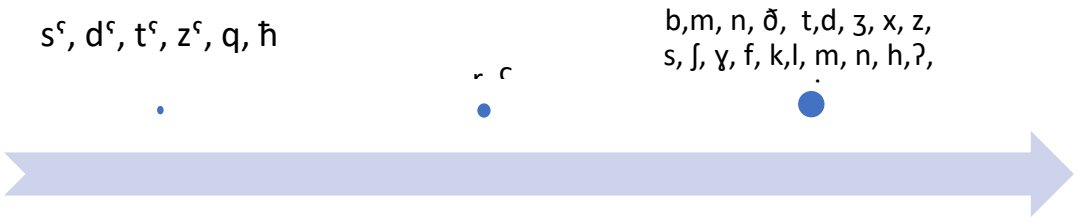
In order to measure the frequency of the phonemes in the subject's data, three indexes were adopted depending on the times of occurrence (used often, used rarely, and never used).

Used often ➡ 5+

Used rarely ➡ 3_5

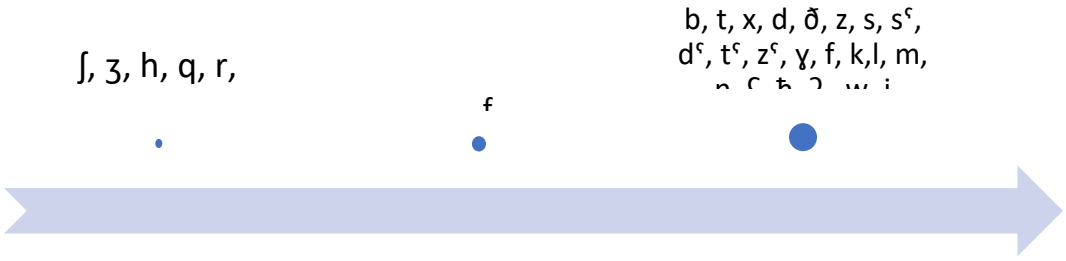
Never used ➡ 0_2

The first graph shows three groups of phonemes in an ascending order according to the times of occurrence in the data of the bilingual subject.



Graph 1. The frequency line of the phonemes of the bilingual child. The size of dots reflects the extent of frequency.

The second graph shows three groups of phonemes in an ascending order according to the times of occurrence in the data of the monolingual subject.



Graph 2. The frequency line of the phonemes of the monolingual child.

Phonemes

- The **common phonemes** which are produced by both of the subjects steadily contain, as graphs 1and 2 show, the following phonemes:

the voiced bilabial stop /b/,

the voiced bilabial nasal /m/,

the voiced interdental fricative /ð/,

the voiced alveodental nasal /n/,

the voiceless alveodental stop /t/,

the voiced alveodental stop /d/,

the voiced alveodental lateral approximant /l/,

the voiced alveodental fricative /z/,

the voiceless alveodental fricative/s/,

the voiced uvular fricative /ɣ/,

the voiceless velar stop /k/,

the voiceless uvular fricative /x/,

the glottal stop /ʔ/,

the voiced labio-velar approximant /w/,

the voiced palatal approximant /j/.

IPA Symbols	affricative	Alveodental	Aveopalatal	Aspirated	Bilabial	Consonant	Continuant	Emphatic	Fricative	Glottal	Interdental	Labiodentals	Labiovelar	Lateral	Nasal	Palatal	Pharyngeal	Plosive	Rounded	Semivoweel	Trill	Unvoiced	Uvular	Velar	Voiced	Vowel	Anterior	Coronal	High
b	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
t	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
θ	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
ʒ	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ħ	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
x	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+
d	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-
ð	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-
r	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-
z	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-
s	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
ʃ	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
sˤ	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
dˤ	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+
tˤ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
zˤ	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+
ʕ	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ɣ	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+
f	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
q	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+
k	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
l	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-
m	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
n	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-
h	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
w	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
j	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
a:	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-
u:	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
i:	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-

Table 6. phonemic inventory of the subjects. Green color refers to common phonemes produced by both of the subjects, blue color refers to the phonemes produced by the bilingual child only, yellow color refers to the phonemes produced by the monolingual child only, and purple color refers to the phonemes that never produced by both of them.

- The bilingual subject (see the table. 6)**has not acquired yet** the emphatic group / sˤ, dˤ, tˤ, zˤ/, the voiceless pharyngeal fricative /ħ/, and the voiceless uvular stop /q/. He

rarely used the voiced pharyngeal fricative phoneme / ʕ/ and the voiced alveodental trill /r/.

- The monolingual subject has not **acquired** the voiceless alveopalatal fricative /ʃ/, the voiced alveopalatal fricative /ʒ/, the voiceless glottal fricative /h/, and the voiceless uvular stop /q/. He **rarely used** the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/.
- The phonemes which are often produced or rarely by the bilingual subject_ but not by his monolingual peer_ are: the voiced alveodental trill /r/, the voiceless alveopalatal fricative /ʃ/, the voiced alveopalatal fricative /ʒ/, the voiceless glottal fricative /h/.
- The phonemes which are often produced by the monolingual subject_ but not by his bilingual peer_ are: the emphatic group / tˤ dˤ sˤ, zˤ/ (the voiceless alveodental emphatic stop /tˤ/, the voiced alveodental emphatic stop /dˤ/, the voiceless alveodental emphatic fricative /sˤ/, and the voiced alveodental emphatic fricative /zˤ/) and the voiceless pharyngeal fricative /ħ/.
- Both subjects never produced the voiceless uvular stop /q/.

2. Phonological processes:

In this section the data of the two subjects is going to be compared in order to identify the phonological processes in their languages.

- The analysis of the data has shown that the **dominant** process for **both** subjects was the lateralization. Look at table 7.
- The **dominant** phonological processes in the data of the **bilingual subject** are the de-emphasis. He deemphasized the four emphatic consonants /sˤ, dˤ, tˤ, zˤ/ in all positions, and the glottalization; he often substituted /ħ/ by /h/ or /ʕ/ by /ʔ/.
- The dominant phonological process in the data of the monolingual subject is the palatal fronting; he often substituted /ʃ/ by /s/, the pharyngealization; he substituted /h/ by / ħ/, and the alveolarization; he often substituted /f/ by /s/.

Phonological processes		The bilingual subject			The monolingual subject		
Omission patterns	Syllable deletion	saʕed (9) for **bət**saʕed	ʔənno: (19) for **la**ʔənno:	ʃəmma: (19) for **mən**ʃəmma:	təli:li: (26) for **iʃ**təri:li:	ʔənno: (46) for **la**ʔənno:	
	Final consonant deletion				bis (11) for bis**m**		

	Cluster reduction	di:fæ (65)for **nd**ˤ i:fæ	zi:læ (68) for zˤ**y**i:ræ	si:t (87) for **n**si:t	ʕaləʔa: (14) for **m**ʕaləʔa:	sabbaħa (18) for **m**sabbaħa	
	De-pharyngealization (De-emphasis)	ħətu: (22) for ħətˤu:	bajdawi: (23) for bajdˤawi:	si:l (79) for sˤi:l	sa:l (47) for sˤa:l	ʔasset (88) for ʔasˤsˤet	biʔæs (53) for biʔæsˤ
Substitution patterns	Fronting	wal**z**ini (1) for war**ʒ**ini			ʔat**t**absæ (2) for ʔal**k**absæ	ʔə**s**lab (10) for ʔə**ʃ**rab	**z**əbnæ (6) for **ʒ**əbnæ
	Backing	ma**k**bax (71) for mat**ˤ**bax			tə**k**laʕ (36) for tə**t**ˤlaʕ		
	Lateralization	sajja**l**et (7) for sajja**r**et	ʔalha**l**i:k (12) for ʔalha**r**i:q	ʔalmad**l**sæ (13) for ʕalmad**r**asæ	**l**ummn (9) for **r**ummn	makka**l**o:na (20) for makka**r**o:na	nah**l** (71) for nah**r**
	Gliding	**j**essa (34) for **l**essa			**j**umman (9) for **r**umman		
	Assimilation	**g**algal (25) for **b**argar	maddasti (119) madrasti		bə**n**na (20) for bə**d**na:	jikken (49) for jimken	**mən**na: (38) for **bəd**na:
	Glottalization	ʔal**h**alik (12) for ʔal**ħ**ari:q	**h**izlak (25) for **ħ**izrak	**ʔ**alʃaʒala (44) for **ʕ**alʃaʒara	**ʔ**albitza (5) for **ʕ**albitza	**ʔ**asˤfu:l (85) for **ʕ**asˤfu:r	
	Pharyngealization				**ħ**aj (10) for **h**ai	**ħ**o:n (13) for **h**o:n	**h**a:d: (27) for **h**ada:
	Alveolarization				**s**jjo: (23) for **f**jjo:	bi**s**alsi: (63) for bit**f**arʃi:	ji**s**taħ (58) for ji**f**taħ
Addition patterns	Pharyngealization (Emphasis)				sajjalˤa: (57) for sajjara:	busˤta:n (74) for busta:n	

Table 7. examples of the phonological processes of the subjects.

Note: In these examples, I am focusing on only one change at a time even though many other changes are going on in the word.

The sound in **bold** is the target phoneme which reflects the target phonological process.

Discussion

In a series of studies conducted in Jordan about ages of acquisition of Educated Spoken Arabic, they found the results as shown in Table 2.

Before comparing the results of the last-mentioned studies with our results, two important ideas in this context should be considered.

Firstly, there is a lack of studies done for Standard Arabic acquisition in general, and about Syrian Arabic in specific.

Secondly, the studies done by (Amayreh & Dyson, 1998), and (Amayreh,2003) _mentioned above_ have mainly depended on Educated spoken Arabic which can explain why the ages of

acquisitions are higher than the two subjects studied in our research. However, I will use the early stage as the approximate normal milestones for a Syrian Arabic monolingual child.

By comparing the subjects with these suggested standards, we observe that both of them were steadily able to produce the phonemes which are expected to be produced by the first youngest group, with the exception of the voiceless pharyngeal fricative /ħ/ for the bilingual child, and the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/ for the monolingual subject. They are also able to produce a variety of the phonemes of the intermediate and late group.

As the results showed, the Pharyngealized and pharyngeal phonemes were more subject to the phonological processes (the de-emphasis and the glottalization) in the data of the bilingual subject, whereas the fronting, the alveolarization and the pharyngealization were the productive processes in the data of the monolingual subjects.

The following paragraphs are trying to figure out the reasons for some of these processes, and why some phonemes have been acquired early by the subjects whereas other phonemes haven't been acquired fully or yet by them.

Syrian Arabic has a class of phonemes whose primary or secondary articulation depends on pharynx. This group of phonemes are either in the the pharyngeal class, including /ħ ʕ/, or in the emphatic or pharyngealized class, including /sˤ dˤ tˤ zˤ/ which, the pharyngealized class has a phonemic contrast to the plain class /s d t z/. Shosted ,Fu & Hermes (2017).

To achieve the secondary articulation, the root of the tongue is retracted into the pharynx. Emphatic consonants in Arabic are /t? / (a voiceless alveodental emphatic stop), /d? / (a voiced alveodental emphatic stop), /s? / (a voiceless alveodental emphatic fricative), and /z? / (a voiced alveodental emphatic fricative).

Arabic-speaking children usually master pharyngealized consonants and pharyngeal ones around the age of 6 years (Amayreh, 2003). However, "they start as uvularized consonants around the age of 4 years" (Al-Tamimi1 , Owais, Khabour & Khamaiseh, 2011). These consonants are usually considered the most difficult sounds in Arabic. As part of the normal consonantal development of non-emphatic cognates of the Arabic phonemic inventory, children usually replace these "late" consonants with their non-emphatic cognates". (Amayreh & Dyson, 2000).

Jakobson has stressed the importance of the **markedness**; he suggested that in each binary one element is less complex and more frequent than the other (Prince & Durand, 2015).

From an **acoustic standpoint**, the pharyngealized phonemes are indeed more complex than non-pharyngealized ones since they have a secondary articulation. The plus value for the [pharyngealized] attribute can therefore be regarded as marked. Typhanie Prince and Jacques Durand (2015) made a different assumption depending on their consideration that 'phonological elements are single valued, or unary, which gives us a direct measure of complexity. The more elements a sound possesses, the more complex it is. This explanation accounts for the fact that the bilingual subject has not acquired the emphatic class yet.

In the data collected from the monolingual subject, both of the **palatal fronting** and (in lesser frequency) the **velar fronting** were productive. Fronting refers to the 'replacement of a target phoneme with another phoneme that is articulated anteriorly to the target phoneme'. It is noticeable that 'Fronting occurs much more frequently than backing'. (Gordon-Brannan& Weiss, 2006)

This may suggest that children tend to do more fronting while they speak because they **can control the initial parts of the mouth better than what they can in the back of the mouth.**

There is another idea that can be functioned to prove this assumption which says that there is a 'relative chronological order of development that remains everywhere and at all times the same' as Jakobson suggested (Typhanie Prince and Jacques Durand 2015). For instance, at a point during the course of phonological acquisition all the children across the world substitute the sound /k/ with /t/. Although the time which children acquire /k/ varies, it seems that it's a **universal fact** that children produce /t/ before /k/.

This assumption helps to explain why some phonemes like **pharyngeal class** in Arabic are acquired late and seem more problematic for the both subjects. They are produced in the pharynx which may mean they are harder to control. 'Pharyngeal sounds are not very common. They are produced by pulling the back of the tongue back toward the back wall of the pharynx. A complete contact between the root of the tongue and the pharynx wall is very difficult to achieve' (Wayland, 2019). It seems that this class of sounds needs **more matureness in the vocal tract** which explains why the subjects haven't fully acquired them yet.

The only phonological process that was dominant for both of the subjects is the **lateralization**. Amayreh (1998) listed /r/ as a sound being mastered between the ages of 4 years and 6 years. And it was one of the most common patterns to be found among those Arabic-speaking children

in his study. The process was completely steady in the data of the monolingual subject, but it was often used by the bilingual subject who rarely produced the phoneme /r/.

Conclusion

The present study shows that it is possible for the bilingual children to acquire two separate phonological systems; however, the nature of development of the two phonological acquisitions may not be alike to their monolingual peers. The bilingual subject in this study has acquired the phonemes/ ʃ, ʒ, h, f/ which have not been acquired by his monolingual peer. These phonemes are common between Arabic and English so the bilingual child has gained necessarily more exposure to these common phonemes in comparing with his monolingual peer. The bilingual subject hasn't acquired fully or yet the phonemes/ sˤ, dˤ, tˤ, zˤ, ħ, ʕ/ that have been acquired by his monolingual peer; the role of exposure may also explain, but in a different way, how the monolingual child acquired them. The monolingual child has generally much more input in his language than what the bilingual has. The acquisition delay of these phonemes can be explained depending on markedness or complexity and vocal matureness.

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Appendices

Session's start

The bilingual child's sessions

1- This session is a spontaneous conversation between Nasruddeen and his father, in this session they had an activity book and a whiteboard which were used by the father to stimulate the dialogue.

Note: The words which are written in bold are produced in English.

Session's date: 30/9/2019. Session's duration: 15m.

A: Nasruddeen we are drawing how the bee moves

C: 1-Ok, Show me.

ʔe: walz/i:/ni:/ 4m

Yes show.you.me.

A: What else? what shall we do now?

C: 2- The mouse wants to get the cheese. (pointing to the activity's picture)

ʔal/faʔr bəd/u: l/ʒbnæ j/u:sal. 8 m.

The. mouse want.it the.cheese it.get.

A: Yes, we will link all of them, will you take the mouse to the cheese?

C: 3- No, you.

laʔ ʔənte. 2m.

no you.

C: 4- Let's play with these …these…these

ta:l ʔ/llab hado:l .4m.

Come I. play these.

A: What are these? What do you mean by (these)?

C: 5- These… all the things, these... the **fire engine**.

hado:l kel ʔal/shaɣl/a:t hado:l faiə enʒin. 6m, lexical mixing

These all the.thing.s these

A: What's the meaning of **fire engine**?

C: 6-These… the **ambulance**

hado:l æmbjelens 1m. lexical mixing.

These.

A: What do you mean? I don't understand

C: 7-This is an ambulance.

haj sajjalet ʔissʕa:f.3m.

This car the.emergency.

A: What does the ambulance do?

C: Neenee(sound of the ambulance).

ni:ni:.

A: I know its sound, I mean what does it do?

C- 8-It helps.

saʕed. 1m.

Help.

A: Whom does it help?
C: 9-It helps children.
saʕed ʔal/ʔawla:d. . 3m.
help the.childern.

A: How? Does it take them to their school?
C:10-No, to the hospital.
la:, ʔ/l/maʃfa:.4m.
No to.the.hospital.

A: Right, it transports them to the hospital if they are sick. What about the fire engine?
C: 11-If someone needs help, it comes.
ʔaza hada 1:/ naʒdæ ja/xd/o.7m.
if someone to.rescue it.take.him.

A: Which kind of help?
C: 12-If there is a fire...
ʔaza fi: ʔal/hali:k. 4m.
If there the.fire.

A:Yah, it puts the fire out. What about this bus?
C:13-It transports children to school.
juasl/u: ʔa/l/madlasæ ʔawla:d..6m.
Transport.they to.the.school children.

A: What are these children doing? (Pointing to a picture)
C: 14-Maybe they are standing only
jimken ja:ʔf/i:n bas..4m.
maybe standing.they only.

C: 15- We need a pen.
bəd/na: kalam.3m.
want.we pen.

A: Ok, let's get a pen, what will we do with it?

C: 16-We want to look for… (pointing to the activity book).

bəd/na: dawel.3m.

want.we search.

A: What are you looking for?

C: 17-you tell me.

ʔənte ʔəl/l/i:.4m.

You tell.to.me.

A: No, you should tell me, it's your book.

C: 18-I have to write, which (activity) I should do.

lazem ʔ/əktob, ʔjja ʔana ʔ/ktob.7m

Have to i.write which I i.write.

A: Ok, let's do this, make a circle around the things that we use as a pair. Are a fish and a flower a pair?

C: Yes.

ʔe:

A: how?!

C: 19-Because we smell it.

ʔənno: ʃəmm/a:.3m.

Because smell.it.

A: Do we smell both of them?

C: Yes.

ʔe:

A: Who said this?

C: 20-Cartoons movies.

ʔalʔffa:n ʔalkato:n. 2m.

Movies cartoons.

A: And why did you make a circle around the dog?
C: 21-Because it's running.
ʔənno: ʔam/j/lkod.4m.
Because ing.it.run.

A: So, you make the circle around it to stop it from running then.
C: 22-Girls use this.
hado:l ħət/u: ʔal/ban/a:t.6m.
These use.it the.girl.s.

A: Yes, girls wear necklaces. Why did you make a circle here?
C: 23-Oh, (it's not a circle), it's an oval. I didn't like it.
sa:l he:k bajdawi:, ma: ħabe/:t bajdawi.8m.
Became like this oval. don't like.i oval.

A: Why you didn't like it. You drew it.
C: 24-It should be a circle.
bədd/i: ħət da:ʔila lazem.6m.
Want.i draw.i circle should.

A: Ok, draw a circle.
C: 25-Where are the two burgers, can you guess? (Pointing to the book)
we:n ʔal/galgal tente:n, we:n fi: tenti:n, ja: hizla/k? 9m.
Where the.burger two, where there two guess.you.

A: Tell me.
C: 26-Here.
ho:n.1m.

A: There is only a burger.
C: 27-I want to do this (activity) now.
ho:n bəddi:.3m.
Her want.i.

A: Here you should tick the farm animals. Which animal is this (pointing to a picture)?

C: 28-A horse.

hisa:n. 1m.

A: Do horses live on jungles?

C: -yes.

ʔe:.

A: No.

C: 29-See, it's with them (pointing to the picture of the activity).

ʃu:f hado:l maʕo:/n.5m.

see.you these with.them.

A: No baby, horses don't live on jungles. Horses should live only on farms. What about monkeys?

C: 30-I want to make a circle around it. I want to make a circle.

bədd/i: hət ʕala/:ha da:ʔi:la.7m.

want.i draw.i on.it circle.

Session's time is over.

2- The coming session is a spontaneous conversation between Nasruddeen and his mother, in this session he had a clay box and some pots In Front of him.

Note: The words which are written in bold are produced in English.

Session's date: 1/10/2019 session's duration: 20m.

C: 31-Mammy shall you do this?

ʃu: rajje/k təʕml/i: he:kʔ6m.

what opinion.your do.you like this.

A: What do you mean by "this"?

C: 32-like this… (throwing a clay).

he:k.lm

A: Do you want me to throw it…Can I keep these pots in the kitchen?

C: 33-No, I want to use them.

laʔ, ʃa:n ʔa/xzəmo/n.5m.

no because I.use.them.

A: How do you want to use them?

C: 34-I still need one more thing. don't take them. I want an **orange** clay.

jessa wahdæ ʃəɣlæ, la: ta/xdi:/on, bedd/i: ɒlɪnʒ kəll/o:n.11m. lexical mixing.

Still one thing don't you.take.them want.i orang all.them.

C: 35-Where are they?

we:no:n? 2m.

Where.they.

A: The clay bars?

Yes

ʔe:.

A: Why do you want ? You have already had two.

C: 36-I want to keep all of them like this (moving his hand inside the mixture). I want all of them. Give them to me to use them as balls.

bedd/i: kəll/o:n ʃan hət/o:n he:k. ʔati:nij/aho: ʃan ʔa/xzəm/o:n ku:l/a:t.18m.

Want.i all.them because make.them like this give.you.them because i.use.them. ball.s.

C: 37-What about if you try to do this? (throwing the clay)

ʃu: la:je/k təʕml/i: he:k.6m.

what opinion.your do.you like this.

A: Ok.

A: Did I succeed?

Yes.

ʔe:.

C: 38-Give me more. Where are the rest? Are they here? Did you keep them here?

ʔat/i/:ni:, bedd/i: kəti:l, we:n ta:nj/a:tʔ9m.

Give/you.me want.i a lot where other.s.

A: No, sit beside me now. We will see them later. I have an idea. Let's draw on the clay.

C: -No.

laʔ.

You didn't like the idea?

39-Yes, I liked it. Shall we make this first?

ʔe: habe/t/a:, ʃu: lajje/k n/əsa:wi: ʔawwal hado:l?11m.

Yes like.i.it what opinion.your we.make firstly those.

A: What's this? This is a bear and this is an owl. Shall we make like them. We need to make two eyes.

C: 40-Ok, let's try.

ʔe: n/ʒaleb.3m.

Yes we.try.

A: Ok, we are trying. I want the blue …we need eyes…this is an owl.

A: When does the owl get up?

C: 41-Only at night.

bas bə/l/le:l.4m.

Only at.the.night.

A: What does it do?

C: -Aooo (imitating the owl's sound).

A: Which animal is your favorite?

C: 42- The **dinosaur**.

daɪməsɔ:.1m.

A: Is the dinosaur alive today?

C: 43-No, they left to yoko. (cartoon movie)

lah/u: ʕənd jo:ko: sa:l/u:.6m.

Left.they to jo:ko: got/they

A: Where does the owl sit?

C: 44-On the tree.

ʔa/l/ʃaʒala.3m.

On.the.tree.

A: On which part of the tree does the owl sit?

C: 45-Up.

fo:ʔ.1

A: Ok, On the tree's branch. Will you repeat what is the name of the part?
C: 46-The tree's branch.
ɣəsna lʃaʒala.3m.
branch the.tree.

C: 47-Now I want to draw on it to be like an owl. (referring to the clay)
halaʔ bəddi/: ʔ/lsom ʕale:/ha ʃan si:l mitla bu:mæ.12m.
now want.i i.draw on.it to get.it like owl.
A: Ok, draw.

C: 48-Where is its cover?
we:n ɣata: tabaʕ/o:4m.
Where cover for.it.
A: What do you mean?

C: 49-The cover of daddy. (gripping a pen)
ɣata: baba.2m.
cover daddy.
A: Ok, you mean the cover of daddy's pen.

A: What are the means of marine transportation? Where are planes? Are they on the ocean?
C: 50-No, up.
A: laʔ, fo:ʔ.2m.
What about ships?

C: 51-One minute I want to do something for you. I want to make a surprise. (going away)
bas dajʔa, bedd/i: sa:w/i: səɣlæ la/ʔəlek, mufaʒaʔa bi/haj.
Only a minut want.i do.i something for you surprise by this.

C: 52- Give me this also.
ʔat/i:/ni: haj kama:n.
Give.you.me this also

A: Ok, come sit here and do what you want to do. I'll close my eyes.
C: 53- Here inside. (going to the bedroom)
hoːn ʒuːuːa.
Come here.
C: 54- Close your eyes.
ɣammed ʕjjuːne/k
close eyes.your

A: What is the means of transportation which goes on water?
C: 55- The **ship**.
ʃɪp
A: In Arabic?
C: 56- A ship.
safiːnæ.
A: Yes. right.

A: What's the name of the small means which transports people on water?
C: 57- I don't know.
ma ʔa/ʕlef.
Not i.know

A: The boat.
C: 58- Turn your head.
dawwel wəʃek halaʔ.
Turn face.your now

A: I will turn my head, but can you repeat the name?
C: 59- a boat.
kaːleb.

A: And what's the name of the one which goes under water?
C: 60- I made something with this red (clay).
sawe:t ʃɣlæ bi/haj bi/hamla.
Made.i thing by this by red.

A: What did you make?
C: 61- Gugu
gu:gu:
What's gugu?

C: 62- (laughing) siraaj says gugu. (Siraj is his baby brother).
sira:ʒ biʔu:l gu:gu:.
A: Yes, he says gaga.

A: What do you like more, a ship or a submarine?
C: 63- A submarine.
ɣawwasa.
A: What would you see, if you went by a submarine?
C: 64- I'd see fish.
ʃu:f samak/a:t.
see fish. Pl mark.

A: And what else?
C: 65- Mama bring me a clean one. (pointing to a pot)
ʒəbl/i: wahdæ di:fæ [ndˁ i:fæ]
brin.me one. Clean

A: Why?
C: 66- Because I want to make the clay with the car. (Incomprehensible sentence)
ʃa:n sa:wi: ʔa/lmaʕʒu:næ bel sajjala.
Because make.i the.clay with car.

A: Come here
C: 67- One minute, I want this, I want to cover it, I want to make something.
bas dajʔa, bəddi: haj, bəddi: ɣatj/ja, beddi sawi: ʃəɣlæ.
Only minute want.i this want.I cover.i. it want I.make thing.

A: What are you making Nasruddeen?
C: 68- I want to cut it into small pieces.
bədd/i: wahdæ zi:læ sa:wi: haj.

Want.i one small make.i this.

A: Why?
C: 69- Because I want to keep it inside.
ʃa:n ht/a: ʒwwa:.
Because put.i.it inside.

A: Inside what?
C: 70- The mixture.
xala:t.

A: From where did you get the mixture?
C: 71- From the kitchen.
men makbax.
from kitchen

A: What are you going to make with the clay now?
C: 72- I need big clay to make dough.
bədd/i: wahdæ kəbi:læ sa:w/i: ʕaʒi:næ.
Want.i one big make.i dough.
A: Later we'll get a big one. sit now.
A: Don’t put the clay inside the mixture; otherwise, it will damage.
C: 73- No, it won’t damage.
laʔ, ma: təzeʕ.
No not damage.it.

A: We use it only for food.
C: 74- For fruits?
la/l/fawakeh?
For.the.fruits.

A: For fruits and vegetables.
C: 75- Where is the dough?
we:n ʔalʕaʒi:næ.

A: Where is it?
C: 76- In the mixture. Oh one minute I forgot (to put) the cover (of the mixture).
bel xalla:t. bas dayʔa si:t ʔalɣata.
In.the.mixture only a minute forgot thing.

C: 77- I want one… (incomplete sentence). Close (pointing to the mixture).
bəddi: wahdæ. sakli:.
want one. close.you.
A: Ok, I'll help you.

A: Where did you keep the clay, I can't see it.
C: 78- Guess where is it… see. (showing it)
we:n hzlak? ʃu:fi:
Where guess.you see.you.

A: I saw it.
C: 79- I want it to be big like this.
bəddi: si:l kbi:læ he:k.
want get big like this.

A: Why did you mix the two bars of clay?
C: 80-I didn't mix.
ma: xalatta
Not mix.i.it.

A: Shall we do something different with the clay? what will we get if we spread it?
C: -81- I don't know.
Ma ʔaʕlef.
Not know.i

A: Let' get it now from the mixture. Come, clay. Tell it to come
C: -Come.
tlaʔ/i:.
come.you.

A: Tell it I am getting you.

C: 82- I am getting you.

ʔana: talʔe/k.

I get.you.

A: I am very strong

C: 83- I am very strong.

ʔana: kawi: ʒeddn.

I strong very.

A: I am a human being.

C: 84- I am a human being.

ʔana: ʔinsa:n.

I human being.

A: You are inanimate.

C: 85 -You are inanimate.

ʔenti ʒama:d.

You inanimate.

C: 86- I want all the bars of the clay. Where did you put them?

bəddi kell/o:n maʕʒu:na:t, we:n hateti:on?

Want.i all.them clay.pl marker. Where put.in.them.

A: Let's look for them.

C: 87- Shall I cut it? I want to make a surprise. I forgot to put it …I forgot to cut it to be small.

ʃu: lajjek kəssa? beddi sawi: mufaʒaʔa, si:t haj hətta. Si:t ʔəssa.

What opinion.you cut,i.it want.i make.i surprise forgot this put.i.it forgot.i i.cut.it

Session's time is up.

3- The coming session is a spontaneous conversation between Nasruddeen and his mother, in this session he had a jigsaw puzzle which was used by the mother to stimulate the dialogue.

Session's date: 3/10/2019 session's duration: 10m.

A: What is there in this piece, baby?
C: 88- The deer's leg.
haj læʒil ʔal/ɣiza:l.
This leg of the deer.

A: Is it here?
C: 89- Which one should be here?
ʔajja ho:n?

Which here?
A: Ok, leave it aside, we'll see it later.
C: 90- This is here. This is maybe here. I forgot where it is.
haj ho:n. jæmken, si:t we:na.
this here maybe forgot.i where.it

A: Get another one. See what's there in this piece and try to complete it.
C: **-Flowers**.
faʊərz.

A: What do you mean?
C: 91- These are the deer's eyes. (picking a new piece)
haj ʕuju:n ʔal/giza:l.
this eyes of the.deer.
A: Did it complete the shape?
C: 92- No…. this is here. This is here. (Placing the piece in another place)
laʔ, he:k haj.he:k haj.
No like this.
A: And what's this?
C: -It's the **sunset**.
sʌnset.

A: What is this?
C: A **sun**.
sʌn.

A: In Arabic

C: 93- A sun.

ʃams.

C: 94- see this is a tail. (pointing to another piece)

ʃu:fi: haj ðajla:.

See.you this tail.its.

A: Yes.

C: 95- See there is **grass** here.

ʃu:fi: hado:l grɑ:s.

A: Grass? (Telling the word in Arabic)

C: 96- Yes, grass.

ʔaʕʃa:b.

A: What's there next to the goose's eye? A beak?

C: 97- Yes, a beak.

ʔe:, minka:r.

C: 98 -A goose is bigger than a frog.

kabi:ræ wazzæ min difdaʕ.

Big goose from frog.

A: Yes, it is. What is this?

C: 99- Its neck.

laʔbəta:.

C: 100- This is the deer's eyes. This is firstly… this is a body…we have a mind we think where to go.

haj ʕuju:n ʔalɣiza:l. ʔwwal haj. haj ʒəsəm… nahna: ʕanna ʔakel. nahna: fakel we:n lu:ħ.

This eyes of the.deer first this body we have mind we think where go.

A: Yes, we do.

C: 101 -the deer has mind.

ɣiza:l ʕando: ʔakel.

Deer have.it mind

A: No, animals don't have minds.

C: 102- Here. (pointing to a piece of the buzzle)

ho:n.

A: No, this is a head.

C: 103- This is the deer's tail.

haj ðajl ʔalɣiza:l.

This tail of the.deer.

A: And what's this?

C: 103- A **bird.**

bɜ:rd.

A: in Arabic.

C: 104- A bird.

ʔasfu:l.

A: Baby do you go to school?

C: Yes.

ʔe:.

A: What do you do there?

C: 105 -I work.

ʔə/ʃtəʒel.

i.work.

Session's time is up.

Baraa's Sessions

1- The coming session is a spontaneous conversation between Baraa and his mother, in this session they are in the kitchen.

Session's date: 25/9/2019 session's duration: 12m.

A: Baraa where should I keep these? (pointing to spicy jars)

C: 1-On walls. (means shelfs)

ʕ/al/ħe:tˁ.
on.the.wall. 3m

A: Yas, and for what do you use them?
C: 2-On kabsah. (kabsah is a traditional Syrian dish)
ʔattabsæ.1m.

A: Yes, I use it for food to taste better.
C: 3-On food.
be/l/ʔakl.3m.
In.the.food.

A: What's this?
C: 4-What?
θu:ʔ1m.

A: For which food we use it?
C: 5-pizza. What (is it)?
ʔa/l/bitza. θu:ʔ
On.the.pitza. what? 4m.

A: Cheese.
C: 6-Cheese.
zəbnæ.1m.

A: What's this?
C: 7-Bread.
xəbz.1m.

A: And for what is this bottle?
C: 8-A water bottle.
ʔani:net mˁaj.2m.
Bottle water.

A: I am thirsty. Are you thirsty?

A: What's this?
C: 9-Pomegranates. Give me pomegranates, I want to eat them.
jumman. ʕatˁ/i/ni: ʔ/akol lumman.
Pomegranates. Give.you.me I.eat Pomegranates. 7m.

A: Later.
C: 10-I'm thirsty too, I want to drink from this. (pointing to a bottle)
ʔana ʕatˁθa:n mətle/k. bədd/i: ʔ/əslab min ħaj.
I thirsty like.you want.i i.drink from this. 10m.
A: Say in the name of allah.
C: 11-In the name of allah.(he's drinking)
bis ellah. 3m.

C: 12-Thank you.
θuklan. 1m.

C: 13-Who put the fly killer here?
Mi:n ħtˁ ʔatˁa:let əd dəbban ħo:n?
Who put killer the fly here?6m
A: Me.

C: 14-I don't want it to be hung.
ma bəddi: ʕaləʔa:.
Not want.i hanging.4m.
A: I will scroll it down.

A: What's this?
C: 15-Parsley.
baʔdu:nes.1m.

A: No, it's not parsley, it's a cowpea.
C: 16-A cowpea.
lu:bjæ.1m.

A: Do you like Cowpeas? They look like beans.

C: 17-Look like.
bətθbah.
It. Look like. 2m.

A: What's this?
C: 18-misabbaha. (traditional Syrian food)
sabbaħa. 1m.

A: Who wants to have medicine?
C: 19-Me… I don't want… I don't want to.
ʔana…ma: bədd/i… ma bədd/i:.
I not want.i not want.i. 7m.

A: You should take it to recover.
A: What's this?
C: 20-Marconi. Mammy let's taste macaroni, We want.
makkalo:na. mˁa:mˁa: ʔimθ/i: nakol makkalona, bənna.
Macaroni. Mother let.us eat.we macaroni want.we. 9m.

A: It needs cooking.
A: What's this?
C: 21-A jar.
ʔatˁlami:ð. 1m.

A: For what?
C: 22-Rice. 1m.
ləz.
2- The coming session is a spontaneous conversation between Baraa and his mother.
Session's date: 29/9/2019 session's duration: 20m.
C: 23-This phone is dead. we have to charge it first.
ma: sjj/o: θaħən, bəd/na: n/əθhan/o: bel ʔawwal.
Not in.it charge, want.we we.charge.it at.the.first.12m.

A: For whom is this phone?
C: 24-For dad.

La/ba:ba:.2m.
For dad.

A: You don’t have a phone, do you?
C: 25-A small phone.
θi: zawwa:l zˤɣi:l.3m.
Such phone small.

A: Do you want us to buy a small phone?
C: 26-Buy a small one for me.
təl/i:/l/i:.4m.
buy.you.for.me.

A: You are a little kid.
C: 27-This one is for your husband… see from here.
ħa:da: la/ zo:ze:/k.
This for.husband. 3m.

A: Why did you get the phone out of its cover?
C: 28-I’m bored of this. (pointing to the cover)
da:ʔ xəlʔ/i: min ħa:da:.
Distressed self.my from this.5m.

A: Why? It's a nice golden one.
C: 29-Like this it’s nice. (without the cover)
ħe:k ħəlw.
This way nice. 2m.

A: Someone is calling you, reply.
C: 30-Hello auntie.
ʔalo: xa:lto:.
Hello auntie. 2m.

A: I am your mother not auntie.
C: 31-Hello mumu.

ʔalo: mu:mu:.2m.

C: 32-I want to speak with untie to come to take Abbaa. (means himself, his full name is Albaraa)

ʔana: bədd/i: ʔəħk/i: maʕ xa:lto:, taʕa:l/i: xəd/i: ʔabba:ʔ.

I want.i i.speak with auntie come.you take.you ʔabba:.12m.

Who is Abbaa? What is your name? (trying to make him correct his name's pronunciation)

C: 33-Bye mumu.

ba:j mu:mu:.2m.

A: What did you tell mumu?

34-I told it to come to take you.

taʕa:l/i: xəd/i: ʔətti:.

Come.you take you you.5m.

A: will it take me?

C: -Yes.

ʔe:.

A: Why? What did I do?

C: 35-It's coming on the way, I let it take you.

xaljj/a ta:xdə/k maʕe:/k le:k/a ʕ/atˤ/tˤali:ʔ ʔa/t/əzi:

Let.it take.you with.you here.it bon.the.way ing.it.come. 14m.

A: No, don't allow it to come, what did I do?

C: 36-It will not appear now, right?

ma: ħallaʔ təklaʕ, mu:?

Not now it.appear. right? m.

A: Call it, ask it to not come. I am scared.

C: 37-Hello mumu, we don't want you to take mammy, don't take mammy.

ʔalo: mu:mu:, ma: mən/na ta:xdi: ʔemm/i:, ma: ta:xdi: ʔemmi:.

Hello ma:mu: not want.we take.you mother.my not take.you mother.my. 14m.

A: Tell it to go away.

C: 38-Go away, we don't want you. Don't take mammy.

lu:ħi: min ħo:næ, ma: mən/na:/ja:ki:

Go.you from here not want.we.you.8m.

A: Take Baraa.
C: -No.
La:ʔ.
A: Yes.

C: 39-I don’t want to.
La: beddi:
Not want.i. 3m.
A: I am kidding.
A: For whom does this mumu appear?
C: 40-show it to me.
ʔazz/i:/ni: ja:ħa:.
Show.you.me it.4m.

A: No, I am afraid of it.
For whom does this mumu appear?
C: 41-It appears…for me.
jiklaʕ ʔəli:.
Appear for.me.3m.

A: When?
C: 42-you gash its tummy then sew it.
ʔənti: θəʔ/i:/l/a: batˁna: xajtˁ/i:/la:/ ja:.
You gash.you.for.it tummy.it's sew.you.for.it(ma:mu:) it (tummy). 12m.

A: Like whom? Who did that?
C: 43-The wolf. (referring to a story)
ʔa/ðði ʔb.2m.
The wolf.

A: Who came to you today?
C: 44-I don’t want (him) to come today.
ma: jeði: laʕandil jo:m.

Not he.come to me today.6m.

A: Why did you fight with Hamuda?

C: 45-He (brought) a pillow and hit me…window. (incomplete sentence)

hu:wæ… mxadæ waʔaʕ/li la:si: min θəbbak.

He pillow cause to fall.he.me head.my from window. 9m.

A: Why you don't allow him to use the laptop with you?

C: 46-Because I don't want to.

ʔənno: ma: bəddi:.

Because not want.i. 4m.

A: Why? He is lovely.

C: 47-He hit me… we laid down, he put the pillow on me and made me fall down then I cried.

Sa:l j/idˁləb/ni tsatˁaħ/na: ħe:kæ ħatˁ əl/mxadæ ʕalaj/ji waʔaʕ/ni: ʕala: la:si: wəbki:t.

Start he.hit.me laid.down.we like this put.he the pillow on me cause to fall.he.me on head.my and cried.i. 23m.

A: He was playing, he didn't intend to hurt you.

C: 48-he hit me, His father didn't tell him that beating is forbidden.

ħu:e jidˁlˁebni:, ma: alo: ʔabu:h dˁalb mamnu:ʕ.

He he.hit.me not tell.him father.his beating forbidden. 11m.

A: He doesn't know, next time tell him.

C: 49-He maybe will still beat me.

ħu:æ jikken j/dˁal ji/dˁlebni:.

he maybe keep.he he.hit.me.7m.

A: Do you know that he goes to school?

C: 50-With his mother?

ħu:æ wə ʔmm/o:.4m.

He and mother.his.

A: No, alone.

C: 51- Does a bus pick him up?

jizi baz j/a:xd/o:?
come bus take.it.him

A: No.
C: 52-Why?
Le:s?

A: Because he is big. He is in the first grade.
C: 53-I want to go with him.
ʔana kama:n bəddi: lu:ħ maʕo:
I also want.i go with.him.

A: Yes.
C: 54-I want to go by bus.
kama:n bəd/i: xall/i: ba:s j/a:xid/ni:.
also want.i make.i bus it.take.me.

A: We went to a nursery a few days ago. Why didn't you accept to stay there?
C: 55-The teacher closed the door.
ʔənnol ʔanse: sakalet el ba:b.
Because the teacher close the door.

C: 56-I want to stay here, I want you to be with me.
ʔana: beddi: dˁal ħo:n, la:ze:m ta:xdi:ni: maʕi:.
I want.i stay here should take.you.me with.me

A: No, you only can go there.
C: 57-There are seats inside the red car.
si: maka:ʕed bi ʔ:lb sajjalˁa: ħamla: sajjala.
there desks in inside car red car.

A: Yes, it’s a very beautiful car.
C: 58- (When the driver) opens the door, all of them enter, he takes children to school after their mothers enroll them.
kəl jistaħ el/ba:b jsu:t/u: kəllo:n jʕmel ħe:k,

when open.he the.door enter.they all.them he.make this
ʔəzzalamæ b/es/sajjala: jwasel ʕalmadlasæ bas sazlo ʔəmmo:n.
The.man in.the.car he.drop the.school when enroll.him mother.their

C: 59-Who is this?
su: ħaj?
What this.

A: A girl.
What is this girl carrying?
C: 60- A candy. Buy a candy for me.
masˁa:sˁa. stəl/i:/l/i: min ħaj masˁa:sˁa
candy buy.you.for.me from this candy.
A: Ok, when we go to the market.
C: 61-The girl bought candy from the market.
bən/æt ʕ/as/su:ʔ stalet masˁa:sˁa:
girl.s from.the.market bought.she candy.

A: Her hair is beautiful.
C: 62- No, it's not beautiful. Her teeth are not white.
sna:n/a: ma: bi:dˁ sa:jl/i:n
Teeth.her not white got.they.

A: Your teeth are white; you always brush them.
C: 63-You always brush your teeth. They are white.
ʔ ənti: dajman bisalsi: sna:nek sa:jl/i:n bi:dˁ.
You always brush teeth.your go.they white.

A: You, too. Are my teeth beautiful?
C: 64-Very beautiful. Daddy always brushes his teeth to be white.
kti:l ħilw/i:n, bˁa:bˁa: bisalsi: sn:no: kama:n.
very beautiful.they daddy brush teeth.his too.
A: Do you have money?
C: Yes.
ʔe:.

A: How much?
C: 64- Five hundred dollars.
xams/mjt dolal
five.hundred dollars

C: 65-I am going from the window to buy things.
ʔana: lˤa:jeħ ʔistli ɣla:dˤ min ʔaθ.θəbbak.
I go i.buy things from the.window
3- The next session for Baraa and his mother.
Session's date: 3/10/2019 session's duration: 15m.
C: 66-paint for me.
lawni:/l/i:
paint.you.for.me.
A: What do you want me to paint?
C: 67-These are his colors. I have all the colors.
ħaj ʔalwano. kelәl ʔalwa:n ʕant/i:.
this colors all colours have.i

A: Listen, the bird is tweeting.
C: 68-Paint this here… don't open. (pointing to the cage)
lsem/i: ħaj. la: tәftaħ/i:.
draw.you this not open.you.

A: Baraa how drew these pictures which are on the wall?
C: 69-Me… see this picture…Daddy.
ʔana. su:fi:ha. ba:ba: ba:ba:
I see.you.it

C: 70-Draw for me this.
ʔilsemi/:/l/i: ħaj.
Draw.you.for.me this.

A: What are there in this picture?
C: 71-A mountain and a river.
zabal w/nahl.

mountain and.river.

A: And what's this?
C: 72-A sun.
sams.

A: Where is the sun?
C: 73-In the forest.
be/l/ɣabæ.
In.the. forest.
No, in the sky.

A: what about this flower? Where can you find it?
C: 74-In an orchard.
be/l/busˁta:n. [busta:n]
in.the.orchard.
A: What is the kind of this tree?
C: 75-An apple tree, it also (lives) in an orchard.
ħaj sazalet tufa:ħ kama:n betʔi:s min busˁtan.
This tree apples also it.live from orchard

A: Which color is this apple?
C: 76-Red.
ʔaħmal.

A: What do you prefer: red or yellow apples?
C: 77- Red apples.
tufaħa ʔaħmal
apple red

A: What's this?
C: 78-An apple.
tufaħa:

A: Who did tear this paper?

C: 79-Daddy.
bˤa:bˤa:.

A: What's this?
C: 80-A hen.
dazaze:.

A: Who drew this picture?
C: 81-Me.
ʔana:.

A: What's this? It says kuak kuak
C: 82-A duck.
batˤa:

A: And this says myao myao.
C: 83-A cat.
ʔatˤa:.

A: And this is fish. Where does fish live?
C: 84-In water. It dives like this. (imitating the movement)
belmaj bətsək ħajk.
In.water it.dive like this.

A: And what's this? It says tweet .
C: 85-A bird. I swear it's a bird like ours.
ʔasˤfu:l, wa/lˤlˤa: ħa:da ʔasˤfu:l mətəl tabaʕ/na:.
Bird in God this bird like for.us.
A: What does the hen say?
C: -Kuak kuak.
kua:k kua:k.

A: Who wrote here?
C: 86-Daddy.
bˤa:bˤa:.

C: 87-Mammy these are colors.
mˤa:mˤa: ħaj ʔalwano:.
Mother this color.

C: 88-Tomorrow bring me a teddy bear's story to paint it.
bukla zib/i:/l/i: ʔasset dablu:b.
Tomorrow bring.you.for.me story bear.

A: Yes.
C: 89-See this also.
su:f/i: ħaj kaman.
See.you this also.

A: Yes, I did.
90-These are stories.
ʔəsas ħado:l.
Stories there.
A: Come tell me one of them. We don't know this story.
C: 91-I know it. It's about snow.
baʕlef/a: ħaj tabaʕ et/talz. [ettalʒ]
i.know.it this for the.snow

A: Tell it to me.
C: 92-I don't know. I am still a young child.
ʔana: ma: ʔaʕlef, lisa:tn/i: zˤɣi:l.
I not know still.me small.
A: What do you have Baraa? should a child take scissors?
C: -No.
laʔ.

A: Why?
C: 93-he will cut his hand.
biʔæs iʔjdo:.
A: Tell me this story.
C: 94-This is about snow…They kept skating.

ħaj tabaʕet talz, dˁall/u: ʕam/j/tzaħlatˁ.
This about snow keep.they ing.he.skate.

A: What is the snow's color?
C: 95-White.
ʔabjadˁ.

A: Have you seen snow?
C: 96-You haven't shown me snow.
ma: falzet/u:/ni: ʕ/at/talz.
Not show.you.me on.the.snow.

A: Because it didn't snow last year. If it snows in the winter, we'll show you.
C: 97-Why?
Le:s.

A: It didn't snow in our country recently.
C: 98-Where does snow live?
tˁaje:b we:n biʕi:s et/talz.
Then where live the.snow

A: When it's very cold, it will snow.
C: 99-See, they all are skiing on the snow.
le:ki: bitzaħlatˁ/u: ʕ/at/telz təman.
See.you skiing.they on.the.snow also.
A: What are they wearing on their heads?
A: They are wearing caps to warm themselves.
C: 100-It warms. Does it warm? yes.
i:/ddafi:, biddaffi si:? ʔe:.
it.warm it.warm do? yes
101-See the dog, it's covered with snow.
su:f/i: əlkalb kəman tʕabba talz
See.you the.dog too full snow.

A: Dogs like snow.

C: 102-Only I want to buy a wool cap.

bas taʔi:æ bədd/i: su:f, ʔitəl/i:/l/i:.

only cap want.i see.i buy.you.for.me

A: Shall I buy you one? We have one, when it gets cold, I will give it you.

What is this animal?

103-Where does this animal live? A deer, dogs like deer.

we:n biʕi:s ħa:d ʔal/ħajwa:n? ɣaza:l, bi:həbbo l kalb ɣaza:l.

where live this the.animal deer like the dog deer.

A: Yes, these are deers.

C: 104-Deer like the dog. it's their friend. (pointing to a picture)

ɣazla:l bihəbbul kalb. lfi:ʔ/o:n.

deer like dog. friend.their.

What is happening here?

105-They are cooking.

ʔajjtˁəbxu: ʔakl.

Cook.they food

Sessions' time is over.

Students' Perspectives on Distance Education

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Abstract

Distance education has been a recent phenomenon all around the world. More and more institutions are using distance education for many reasons every year. Perspectives regarding distance education, which is frequently used these days, needs to be searched. This paper aims to reveal students' perspectives on distance education. It also provides data about the perspectives of students depending on their gender and degree they are studying. The required data has been gained through a questionnaire. Quantitative method has been applied for the analysis process. The results of the study have shown that female and male students have different opinions about self-study and adapting to technological platforms. However, no significant difference has been found between education levels, namely high school and university. While students' overall impression of distance education is mainly positive, they prefer face-face learning more.

Key words: distance education, gender, degree, ICT

A. Introduction

Technological developments have switched the focus of educational methods as well as all the other areas of our lives. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has become an indispensable part of teaching and learning in the last years. Distance education, which is a product of ICT, has become quite popular recently as a result of the changing role of technology and the internet. "Distance education" is defined as a way of studying in which you do not attend a school, college, or university, but study from where you live, usually being taught and given work to do over the internet (Distance education, 2020). As the name suggests, it is a method that enables educational actions from a distance instead of being present at the same time in the same place with learners or teachers.

Distance education provides learners with some benefits. It can be considered as a timesaving education method since learners do not need to be concerned about wasting their time on the way to school or at school. Learners do not have to be physically present in the school building. It means no special building and physical environment is necessary for distance education. However, effectiveness of education quality is a concern of distance education. As it is totally dependent on technology, technical problems might create setbacks to education.

Distance education has been preferred in many formal and educational contexts not only in Turkey, but also across the world because of its convenience. Despite its highly increasing popularity, would it be possible for some groups of learners not to be totally ready for the use of distance education? As it is a relatively new application in education, perspectives of learners who are the primary concern of education is of vital importance to be able to determine its place in education for further improvements.

Considering all the points above, students who are using distance education at Mektebim High School and Antalya Bilim University have been included in this study. The study aims to investigate perspectives of students on distance education. Besides, it examines the perception of students depending on gender and degree. Contributing to further studies is also among the aims of the study as well as providing insight into distance education. Following research questions have been determined in accordance with the aims of the study:

1. Does gender make a significant difference on students' perspectives on distance education?

2. Does educational level make a significant difference in students' perspectives on distance education?
3. What is the general perception of students on distance education?

B. Literature Review

Distance education is a modern type of learning which needs to be analyzed from the perspectives of students considering different categories. Although most of the studies focused on the technical aspects of distance education, the emotional variables are undeniable in order to gather data about perceptions. Hiltz (1994) studied the perceptions of students on distance education in three categories which are convenience, interest and participation. Convenience is the most important variable in the distance education process. Some situations, such as the pandemic we have been living through, make traditional education inaccessible or some students may be in a condition which does not let them have face to face education. Considering these conditions, distance education may be more convenient than traditional education. Students have different opinions about the convenience of online lessons. Those who have internet access in their habitat found distance education convenient while a few of others for whom it was challenging to find an internet network were not pleasant about distance learning.

In addition to convenience, almost all of the students expressed that participation was important in both types of education in order to internalize the subjects. In Kubala (1998)'s research, it was revealed that distance education lessons tended to include more characteristic instructions and as a consequence, students took an active part in lessons. Participants who were motivated students spent a remarkable time on studying for online classes as well as the hardworking students do in the traditional type of education. As well as starting to distance education, the variables which affect students' moving forward in this process are also important. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and confidence take an important part in the success of distance education process. Janaki (2006) expressed that in order to maintain distance education, students expressed that they need to be motivated and feel confident for online lessons.

Considering other students reading or listening to all the comments or questions of the learners, they tend to be more careful while participating in the lesson which directly affects someone's motivation or interest in online lessons. Smaldino (1999) states that learners distinguish online learning processes to be an appealing and progressive involvement after they take a place in online classrooms.

Besides, students generally find online lessons more appealing as they contain a number of visual and auditory aids such as Web 2.0 tools. “Web 2.0 tools” are digital programs which are used by teachers or instructors in order to generate and experience projects and products which are student-centered. These programs are interactive, they are implemented in an easy way and they can be used for various purposes in order to engage students with lessons and their peers. Moreover, learners find distance education more flexible which helps them break their emotional barriers towards the lessons as they feel comfortable with accessing online materials at any time. Most of the students stated that they felt more comfortable with the lessons conducted online and a minority of the students implied that traditional type of face to face education was more efficient than online classes.

It is also possible to claim that students feel more eager to learn and acquire lessons in an adaptable learning environment as in online education there are various places to study or it is possible for them to revise lessons at any time they desire because lessons are recorded online. In Cashion and Palmieri (2002)’s research, the data they collected from Australian students revealed that the adaptability of distance education was the main important aspect in the online learning process in terms of quality. In contrast to flexibility, learners found interaction patterns (student to student interaction, student to teacher interaction or a mixture of online and face-to-face interaction, etc.) less important in terms of quality. Furthermore, students stated that they do not need to be supported at the beginning of the process and training for technology is meaningless. In addition to Cashion and Palmieri (2002)’s study, Ward, Peters, and Shelley (2010) recorded that learners found distance education quality in terms of interaction patterns and instructions.

Cultural difference is an important factor which affects students’ perspectives on the distance education process. Contrary to the researches implemented in the West, Jung (2011) conducted a research which revealed that South Korean students taking online courses found a traditional lesson, which is conducted by a teacher in a face-to-face learning environment, was the most effective way of learning. Considering cultural differences, it is possible to claim that students living in Asia tend to learn more effectively in an instructor centered environment while learners from the West feel more confident to take online courses individually.

As well as cultural differences, other variables such as gender also affect the perspectives of students on distance education. Bhushan (2008) stated that gender is a crucial variable to figure the limits to distance education out in Asia. Jung (2012) found that different genders affect students’ perspectives on online courses. According to Jung (2012), female students generally

sidesteps time disunity by taking exams and attending face-to-face meetings. Female learners tend to be more likely to arrange online or face-to-face office hours in order to get support for learners who are taking distance education in terms of academic issues or content-related help.

In addition to students' emotional circumstances, most of the learners find using technology really challenging because a number of them may not be competent enough to survive online. To solve this problem, they may be supported with software or technological aids which help them convey the process of the online classes. After internalizing the process of online education technologically, students need to access a really efficient hardware platform and this platform is needed to be easily accessible. Some research has been conducted about technological competence of the learners, but most of them were done in Europe where the accessibility of the internet or technological devices is high. Depending on the studies done in technological accessibility, it is not often possible to generalize the results. In conjunction with technological competence, duration of technology use takes role in e-lessons. Jamstsho and Bullen (2010) claimed that an intense implementation of technology is one of the most important variables which affects students' perspectives on distance education.

C. Methodology

a. Context

The study was carried out in two types of Turkish schools, which are a high school and a university in Antalya, Turkey. In each institute, English is used as a medium of instruction during English classes. After the coronavirus outbreak, these lessons have started to take place online. At university, instructors are given a choice to choose from two platforms for lessons, which are Microsoft Teams and Antalya Bilim University (ABU) LMS System. Participants studying at university are mostly familiar with Teams because of their instructors' choice. Similarly, Teams has been chosen as an online platform to have lessons at high school as well.

b. Participants

The survey was collected from 46 students who were conveniently chosen as representative groups of target research population. The study participants are all Turkish native speakers, 26 males and 20 females. The number of university students is 33 while the number from high school is 13. The former are undergraduate students studying at English-language program at ABU. They take 4 hours a day and 20 hours a week in total, of which are reading & writing and listening & speaking classes along with advanced grammar. High school students whose ages

vary from 15 to 18 all attend Mektebim High School. They take 12 hours of main course and skills lessons.

c. Data Collection Procedure

The current study was conducted in spring semester of 2019-2020 in two schools. These two schools were conveniently sampled. First, school managements were contacted to be able to get consent for the data collection. Upon obtaining the consents, surveys were emailed to students and the quantitative data were received. The participation in the study was voluntary; thus, the students were assured of the confidentiality and the anonymity of their data.

d. Data Collection Tools

The instrument used in this study is the survey, which consisted of 24 Likert-scale items. It was prepared on Google Forms and sent as an email to participants. Thus, the data is transferred to SPSS to be analyzed.

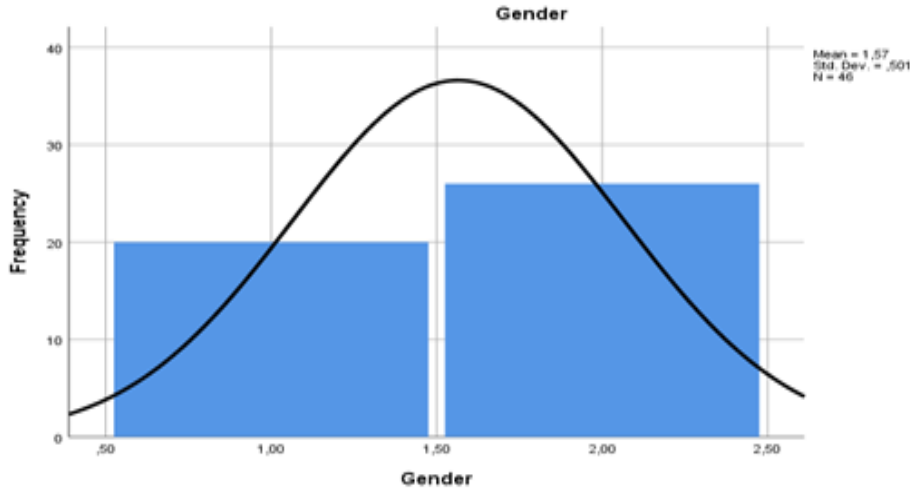
e. Data Analysis

The data of the questionnaires were typed into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 20). First, Kolmogorov-smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are conducted to see the normality of distribution. The results show that there is not a normal distribution for gender and school degree categories. For this reason, the non-parametric equivalent of all tests that will be performed with gender and school degree categories has been applied. Independent samples t-test is used for comparing the means of two independent groups to find out whether they have a significant similarity or difference. Last, its non-parametric equivalent is the Mann Whitney U test. Since school degree and gender categories are not normally distributed Mann Whitney u test is used for comparing the means of these groups.

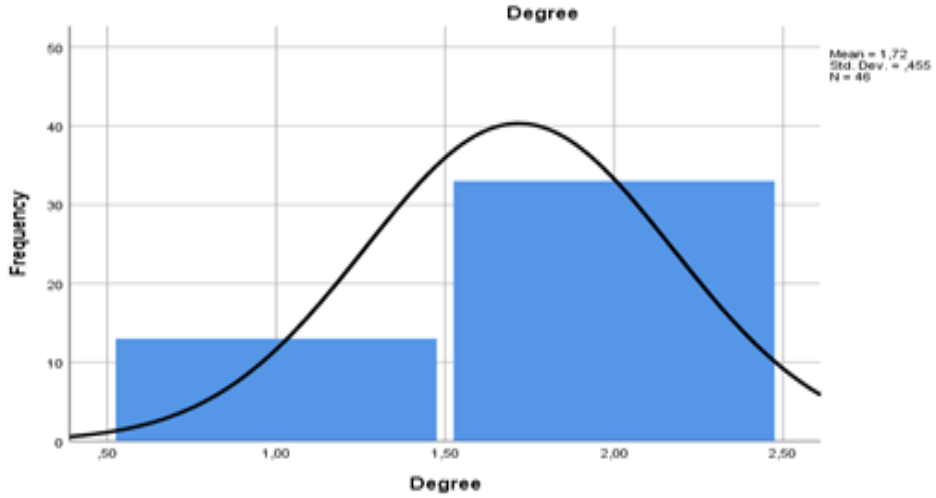
D. Results

The data obtained from the analysis of the surveys will be presented in this section. Gender and school degree were determined as categories to be used for comparison and questionnaire items were analyzed over these categories. The number of participants is 46 and a missing data problem was not encountered. Therefore, the methods of assigning missing data have not been used. Prior to actual analysis results, it can be better to present the distribution of the determined categories.

Graphic 1. Distribution of Gender



Graphic 2. Distribution of School Degree



When looked at Graphic 1 and Graphic 2 it can be obviously seen that gender and school degree categories do not have a normal distribution. However, making concrete inferences about the normality of distribution by only looking at histograms do not always give appropriate results. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests should also be conducted.

Table 1. Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistics	Sd	p	Statistics	Sd	p
Gender	.372	46	.000	.631	46	.000
Degree	.450	46	.000	.564	46	.000

When the sample size is greater than 30, the values provided by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test are generally examined. It can be said that the distribution is normal if the p value is bigger than .05. In accordance with the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests given in Table 1, we can infer that there is not a normal distribution for both categories. For this reason, it would be appropriate to apply the non-parametric equivalents of all tests that will be performed with gender and school degree categories.

The Independent Samples t Test compares the means of two independent populations, in order to assess whether there is statistical evidence that the related population means are substantially different. Since the gender and school degree categories are independent categories from the questionnaire items, it will be appropriate to use independent samples t test. However, as the gender and school degree categories are not normally distributed, Mann Whitney U test, which is the non-parametric equivalent of independent samples t test, should be applied. When the dependent variable is either ordinal or continuous, but not normally distributed, the Mann-Whitney U test is used to compare differences between two separate groups.

Research Question 1: Does gender make a significant difference on students' perspectives on distance education?

Gender is one of the variables that can be considered as a factor in the emergence of differences in education. It is important to take into account that gender may have an impact on students' perceptions about distance education in these days when we are at the distance education phase.

The hypotheses of the first research question are as follows;

H0: Gender does not make a significant difference on students' perspectives on distance education.

H1: Gender makes a significant difference on students' perspectives on distance education.

Table 2. Mann Whitney U test results across Gender (Comparison of Survey Items with Gender Category)

Item	Significance	Decision
1.Distance education is exciting.	. 356	Retain the null hypothesis.
2.Distance education helps me to discover my own learning style.	.613	Retain the null hypothesis.
3. I enjoy studying by distance education.	.854	Retain the null hypothesis.
4. I can easily contact my teacher.	.121	Retain the null hypothesis.

5. Distance education is time-consuming.	.972	Retain the null hypothesis.
6.The feedback by my teacher is enough.	.527	Retain the null hypothesis.
7. I can easily contact other students.	.636	Retain the null hypothesis.
8. I can solve technical problems easily.	.074	Retain the null hypothesis.
9. Distance education helps me to work with other students.	.720	Retain the null hypothesis.
10. I have enough time to complete my assignments.	.488	Retain the null hypothesis.
11. Assignments are challenging enough for my level.	.343	Retain the null hypothesis.
12. Instructions for assignments are easy for me to understand.	.953	Retain the null hypothesis.
13. The feedback by my teacher is easy for me to understand.	.837	Retain the null hypothesis.
14. I can concentrate on my assignments.	.711	Retain the null hypothesis.
15. Distance education enables me to be more productive.	.862	Retain the null hypothesis.
16. I prefer flexible studying times.	.248	Retain the null hypothesis.
17. I prefer a real classroom.	.603	Retain the null hypothesis.
18. I can easily adapt to technological platforms.	.009	Reject the null hypothesis.
19. Self-study is beneficial for me.	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
20. Workload is too heavy for me.	.944	Retain the null hypothesis.
21. Online lessons' duration is enough.	.644	Retain the null hypothesis.
22. The number of online lessons is enough.	.890	Retain the null hypothesis.
23. I can access quality education through distance education.	.367	Retain the null hypothesis.
24. I prefer face-to-face learning.	.419	Retain the null hypothesis.

When interpreting the results of the Mann Whitney U test, p value needs to be checked. If p value is higher than .05 it can be concluded that the null hypothesis should be retained. If p value is lower than .05 it can be concluded that the null hypothesis should be rejected.

A significant difference was only observed in items 18 and 19. In the remaining 22 items, there was no significant difference between gender and students' perspectives on distance education.

Research Question 2: Does educational level make a significant difference on students' perspectives on distance education?

Students' needs and interests differ from each other in relation with the educational phase. As the level changes, the demands and needs change as well.

As the participants consisted of students from both high school and university preparatory class levels, their needs and interests differ from each other. Thinking that the level of education can be effective in distance education, a second research question has been produced.

The hypotheses of the second research question are as follows;

H0: Educational level does not make a significant difference on students' perspectives on distance education.

H1: Educational level makes a significant difference on students' perspectives on distance education.

Table 3. Mann Whitney U test results across Educational Level (Comparison of Survey Items with Educational Level)

Item	Significance	Decision
1.Distance education is exciting.	.433	Retain the null hypothesis.
2.Distance education helps me to discover my own learning style.	.730	Retain the null hypothesis.
3. I enjoy studying by distance education.	.078	Retain the null hypothesis.
4. I can easily contact my teacher.	.836	Retain the null hypothesis.
5. Distance education is time-consuming.	.328	Retain the null hypothesis.
6.The feedback by my teacher is enough.	.145	Retain the null hypothesis.
7. I can easily contact other students.	.348	Retain the null hypothesis.
8. I can solve technical problems easily.	.543	Retain the null hypothesis.
9. Distance education helps me to work with other students.	.079	Retain the null hypothesis.
10. I have enough time to complete my assignments.	.665	Retain the null hypothesis.

11. Assignments are challenging enough for my level.	.152	Retain the null hypothesis.
12. Instructions for assignments are easy for me to understand.	.265	Retain the null hypothesis.
13. The feedback by my teacher is easy for me to understand.	.316	Retain the null hypothesis.
14. I can concentrate on my assignments.	.359	Retain the null hypothesis.
15. Distance education enables me to be more productive.	.602	Retain the null hypothesis.
16. I prefer flexible studying times.	.091	Retain the null hypothesis.
17. I prefer a real classroom.	.651	Retain the null hypothesis.
18. I can easily adapt to technological platforms.	.827	Retain the null hypothesis.
19. Self-study is beneficial for me.	.710	Retain the null hypothesis.
20. Workload is too heavy for me.	.778	Retain the null hypothesis.
21. Online lessons' duration is enough.	.280	Retain the null hypothesis.
22. The number of online lessons is enough.	.272	Retain the null hypothesis.
23. I can access quality education through distance education.	.067	Retain the null hypothesis.
24. I prefer face-to-face learning.	.824	Retain the null hypothesis.

Results provided in Table 3 show that no significant difference was found in any of the items. It can be concluded that educational level does not have an impact on students' perspectives on distance education.

Research Question 3: What is the general perception of students' on distance education?

The survey items are provided in Table 2 and Table 3, the answers given to some of those items will be presented in Chart 1, Chart 2, Chart 3 and Chart 4.

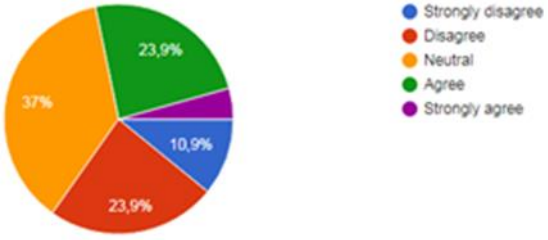


Chart 1. *Distance education is exciting.*

As seen in Chart 1, 39,1% of the students agree that distance education is exciting while 28,3% marked neutral and 26,1% of them disagree on this statement.

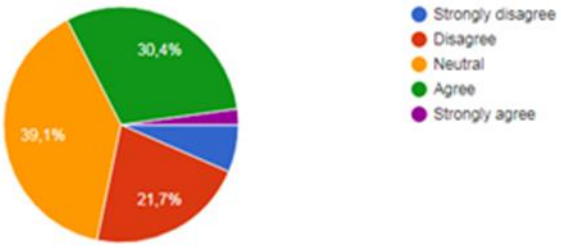


Chart 2. *Distance education is time-consuming.*

According to the results of Chart 2, 4,3% of the students strongly agree, 23,9% of them agree that distance education is time-consuming while 10,9% of them strongly disagree about this statement. 37% of them marked the neutral.

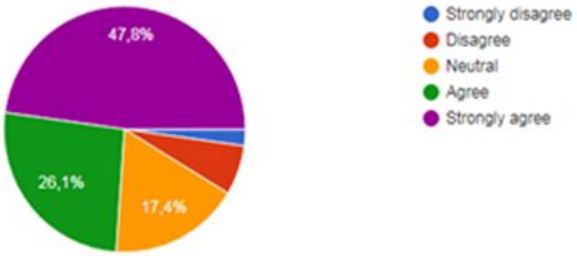


Chart 3. *Self-study is beneficial for me.*

Chart 3 shows that 30,4% of the students agree that self-study is beneficial for them while 21,7% of them disagree on this statement.

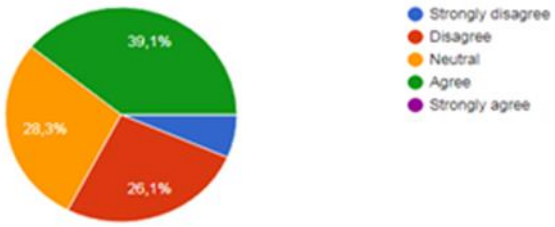


Chart 4. *I prefer face-to-face learning.*

Chart 4 shows that 47,8% of the students prefer a real classroom environment while 2,2% of them disagree on this statement.

It can be concluded that students find distance education exciting but they prefer a real classroom environment, in which they can directly contact their teachers and their friends.

E. Conclusion

Distance education is developed to ease both students' and instructors' burden and make education available at all times. Therefore, convenience, interest & motivation, participation and challenges were the main points that the researcher mostly focused on while creating the survey items. In this study, the study was conducted to configure what students' overall impressions are and whether or not their gender and education level affect their distance learning experience. The results have shown us that there is a difference between opinions of female and male students only on self-study and adapting technological platforms. It's also found out that education levels do not have any significant impact on students' perspectives. Finally, students' overall impression of distance learning is mostly positive, yet face-to-face education is preferable.

Appendix

Survey on Students' Perspectıves on Dıstance Educatıon

Informed Consent Form

This research study is conducted by Ayfer ÖZŞEN, Ayşenur ULUYOL, Merve VEZİR and Tuğçe ÇALIŞKAN. The purpose of the study is to uncover students' perspectives on distance education.

Participation is on a voluntary basis in this study. Personal information shared and answers provided by the participant in the questionnaire will be kept confidential. The

researchers themselves only will be responsible for evaluation. Data gained from participants will be used only for scientific purposes.

Discomfort in the participants is not meant in this study. However, participants are free to leave whenever they want in the case of discomfort or pressure. Submitting the questionnaire to the researchers will be enough in that case.

Participants' questions at any point are welcomed by the researchers. Thank you in advance for your participation in this study. For further information, you can contact Ayfer ÖZŞEN (ayferozsen@gmail.com), Ayşenur ULUYOL (aysenuruluyol3@gmail.com), Merve VEZİR (mervevezir@hotmail.com) or Tuğçe ÇALIŞKAN (tugcecirpancaliskan@gmail.com).

Gender

Degree

1. Distance education is exciting.
2. Distance education helps me to discover my own learning style.
3. I enjoy studying by distance education.
4. I can easily contact my teacher.
5. Distance education is time-consuming.
6. The feedback by my teacher is enough.
7. I can easily contact other students.
8. I can solve technical problems easily.
9. Distance education helps me to work with other students.
10. I have enough time to complete my assignments.
11. Assignments are challenging enough for my level.
12. Instructions for assignments are easy for me to understand.
13. The feedback by my teacher is easy for me to understand.
14. I can concentrate on my assignments.
15. Distance education enables me to be more productive.
16. I prefer flexible studying times.
17. I prefer a real classroom.

18. I can easily adapt to technological platforms.

19. Self-study is beneficial for me.

20. Workload is too heavy for me.

21. Online lessons' duration is enough.

22. The number of online lessons is enough.

23. I can access quality education through distance education.

24. I prefer face-to-face learning.

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Reflective Teaching Practıces of English Language Teachers: A Critical Review

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Abstract

This study has been meticulously designed to portray English language teachers' reflective practice which is known as a strong pillar of continuing professional development. To that end, full-length research articles published between 2009 and 2019 in esteemed journals across the globe in the discipline of foreign language studies were identified and incorporated into the analysis according to eligibility criteria. This review revealed the current trends in reflective practice by generating themes. Hence, content analysis method was utilized. Finally, it was discovered that studies majorly handled reflective practices of in-service teachers through qualitative methods rather than discussing the cases of prospective teachers as research group. Moreover, findings of this analysis would indicate that 'raising awareness towards teacher education through reflective practice' was the most researched aspect of reflective teaching, and strong liaisons must be maintained between pre-service and in-service teacher education. This principled review also offered some suggestions for further directions.

Keywords: reflective teaching, reflective practice, continuing professional development, CPD, teacher education

Introduction

In foreign language education, the deep-seated notion emphasizing the necessity of teachers' reshaping their pedagogical content knowledge constantly and being equipped with on-going teacher development activities has been fairly acknowledged and desired to be replaced with conventional models which mainly fall short of respecting teacher beliefs, attitudes, views, experiences, trainings, and practices. In consequence, constructivism (Piaget, 1972), and sociocultural constructivist theories in the philosophy of education (Vygotsky, 1978) have gained prestige thanks to opposing "empty vessels" view, passively taking in information without any associations with schema or processing data. Furthermore, developing critical reflections, socially rebuilt knowledge with experiences, and contextually situated learning for meaning negotiations have become cardinal factors in language teaching paradigm (Wallace, 1998).

Accordingly, the term Reflective Practice (RP) has come out in ELT studies since the early 1990s and researchers have immersed themselves in teacher development activities to create standards via structured reflectivity among teachers by stimulating them to partake in research so as to reason out their specific behaviours, actions, manners to promote teaching practices. In fact, the primary reason must be to relinquish critical assessments and evaluations along with top-bottom teacher models. Nonetheless, this approach has presupposed neatly-planned, linear development with the intention of permanent changes in classroom practice (Louw, Watson, & Jimarkon, 2014; Vo & Nguyen, 2010). This view has been debunked with research findings of Farrell (2008, 2012) who underscores that depending on the convenient cases, RP would foster lifelong teacher development.

Literature Review

The essence of RP can be regarded as teacher learning, self-inquiry about teaching performances due to its reflexivity to further lessons, and taking responsibility for in-class actions with the moral and financial supports of institutions (Korthagen, 1983). However, sole reliance on institutional based meetings, seminar, workshop without sustainable commitment to advance teaching career cannot definitely guarantee on-going professional development opportunities particularly for novice teachers. Instead, they need to discover their own ways to accomplish life-long learning, strike positive attitude towards reflection from in-class

experiences, and commit themselves to professional self-growth. To put it differently, self-initiated personal development with a critical stance is notably required.

RP dates back to the attempts of Dewey (1933) who described the features of reflective thought as being receptive, determined, and responsible. In other words, he directly referred to multiple perspectives, gaining awareness toward the consequences of in-class actions. Then, different scholars proposed multiple views concerning RP. Initially, Van Manen (1977) characterized technical rationality as utilizing technical knowledge and skills in class and Schulman (1987) dwelled on teachers' cognitive development. Then, Schön (1987) coined the terms of reflection-in-action, and reflection-on-action. The former did represent spontaneous decisions to be taken in actual teaching activating schema, whereas the latter can point out reviewing the past experience. Afterwards, reflection-for-action was developed by Killon and Todnew (1991) which was about the future plans demanding teachers to come up with pertinent ideas to be easily adopted during upcoming events; namely this is what keeps reflective teaching and RP alive today. Finally, Carr and Kemmis (1986) introduced action research as is seen in the table below adapted from Farrell (1998).

Table 1

Different views to RP

Reflection types and scholars	**Content**
Technical rationality (Schulman, 1987; Van Mannen, 1977)	Examining one's use of skills and immediate behaviour in teaching with an established research/theory base
Reflection-in-action (Schon, 1987)	Dealing with on the spot professional problems as they occur. Thinking can be recalled and then shared later
Reflection-on-action (Schon, 1987)	Recalling one's teaching after the class. Teaching gives reasons for his/her action behaviours in class
Reflection-for-action (Killon & Todnew, 1991)	Proactive thinking in order to guide future action
Action research (Carr & Kemmis, 1986)	Self-reflective enquiry by participants in social settings to improve practice

Quite a few empirical research subsists in the literature to illuminate the effects of RP on English language teacher education. To begin, Burke (2006) analysed the field experience of American pre-service teachers carrying out a qualitative case study. Therefore, she looked into lesson plans, their self-reflections and drew the conclusion that professional development opportunities might suddenly emerge while delivering a lecture to learners in the classroom. Another study on RP was in in-service teacher education operated by Edwards and Burns (2016) who reported the contentment of English language teachers thereafter due to having sensed more self-assured, achieving to build good rapport both with learners and colleagues. In a

similar vein, Filiz (2008) investigated EFL teachers' attitudes toward reflective teaching practices. She displayed positive attitudes of a majority of teachers to employ RP, yet some, especially the novice, were reluctant to use reflection due to large class sizes, inadequate time to be allocated for reflectivity, workload, and lack of practicality. Likewise, Çakır (2010) focused on self-criticisms of teachers through observations and noted that more than half of the educators did not appreciate other's reflections on account of the fact that they did ignore their weaknesses. As for Kabilan (2007), she incorporated 18 pre-service and in-service teachers and concluded that RP facilitated receiving immediate feedback, raising awareness of fruitful classroom exercises besides improving linguistic and pedagogic abilities of the participants.

As is seen, RP is of high standing in teacher education and its prominence has been on the increase thanks to the contributions to professional growth and personal development, hence conducting a principled review to give a clear portrait of the different shapes that RP has been embraced in designs across various contexts has of late been exceedingly essential. Based on the utterance of Akbari (2007, p. 205) 'It is good to reflect, but reflection itself also requires reflection', the current study will elucidate hotly-debated issues within RP and identify general themes from the research articles published in prestigious peer-reviewed journals over the last ten years. In addition, it is assumed that this review will reveal distinct study variables. In that vein, two research questions have guided this study to receive satisfactory answers:

1. What is the general trend in reflective practices between the years 2009 and 2019 in terms of education context, study context, and research method?

2. What aspects of reflective practice are studied the most or the least in EFL and ESL contexts over the last ten years?

Methodology

Firstly, some keywords and phrases, such as "reflective practice", "reflective teaching", and "reflectivity in English" were typed into Google Scholar as an electronic and online collection of research to broadly search for the academic studies. Nevertheless, reaching and analysing 77.300 articles to determine their incorporation into the review seemed to be infeasible. Thus, peer-reviewed journals indexed in Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) or Science Citation Index-Expanded (SCI-Expanded) were distinguished on Scopus and the Web of Science (WoS) databases to narrow down the scope of the study. As for the inclusion criteria, "Educational research", "social sciences interdisciplinary", "articles" in English language as document types were refined from the

categories, and "reflective practice", "reflective teaching", “reflective teaching practices”, and finally “reflection” were typed besides employing the timespan option to specify years from 2009 to 2019 and tabbing ‘all fields’ including ‘title, abstract, keywords’ not to miss out any compatible empirical studies offering evidence--qualitative, quantitative or both. Another important criterion was the insertion of English language teachers working in an institution or student teachers in ELT departments of universities into the review but not the educators from other modern languages, such as French, German or Italian. For that reason, articles written by Ryder (2012), Hayden and Chiu (2015) were eliminated. In the end, 41 research papers were determined to prioritize the most frequent themes, take stock of their findings, and labour at concluding with valid interpretations. Thus, some distinguished journals, such as Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives (N=7), TEFLIN Journal (N=1), TESL-EJ (N=1), Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education (N=2), Australian Journal of Teacher Education (N=4), International Education Studies (N=1), Pedagogies: An International Journal (N=1), Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research (N=2), Issues in Educational Research (N=1), Arab World English Journal (N=1), Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language) (N=1), Journal of Technology and Teacher Education (N=1) were included at the outset of the review. However, with the exclusion of ERIC from the databases, only 18 articles left to be scrutinized.

In what follows, publications involving just principles, theories or opinions rather than presenting any original or new evidence, such as reviews, and proceeding papers, book chapters, letters, post-scriptums, editorial materials, projects, responses to particular studies, and dissertations were excluded from the list. As a result, paper presented by Cecic Mladinic and Gutiérrez Ascanio (2012), systematic reviews operated by Akbari (2007), Farrell (2015, 2019), Mann and Walsh (2013), Sangani and Stelma (2012) did not enter into the analysis. Even though a lot of worthwhile research of RP gathered and utilized data which ended before 2009, the reviewer did not work on these studies, since she dealt with pointing merely recent trends. Similarly, though valuable theoretical frameworks were in existence in language teacher education literature, their discussion was outside of the scope of the review as well.

Having scanned the journals, full-text articles and then checked whether they would match the aims of the study to distil reliable evidence in regard to RP, the reviewer eventually identified the target research in these journals: System (SY), ELT Journal (ELTJ), RELC Journal (RELCJ), Language Teaching Research (LTR), Teaching and Teacher Education (TTE), Journal of Professional Capital and Community (JPCC), Asia-Pacific Education Researcher

(APER), Education and Science (E-S), Educational Technology & Society (ETS), Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education (APJTE), ReCall (RC), and Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy (JET).

Table 2

The studies with numbers and year of publications

Year of Publication / **Journals**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**	**2017**	**2018**	**2019**
SY		1						1			
RELCJ			1		1			1			
LTR						1					
ELTJ			1				1	1			
TTE			1					1			
JPCC									1		
APER										1	
E-S	1										
ETS	1										
APJTE					1						
RC			1								
JET				1							

Table 2 indicates that a total of 18 studies were selected for the review. Three articles about RP were published in RELCJ, and ELTJ, whereas the number decreased to two in SY, TTE, and then to one in the other journals. It is also evident that a majority of the studies in the review were published in 2011 and 2016. Yet, no relevant articles from the year of 2019 met the criteria to be involved in this analysis.

Data Collection

Content analysis technique was embodied to gather and assess the data in this study owing to the fact that it is a widely executed research tool to determine consistent patterns from the textual data, to arrive at conclusive and valid interpretations, to code spoken and written texts aside from transforming qualitative data to meaningful quantitative results systematically.

Before the coding, three foregoing study variables (i.e. study context, education context, and research method) were neatly classified to facilitate the scrutiny. Afterwards, the reviewer vetted the data properly abiding by the coding scheme she personally constructed to generate themes. Furthermore, that coding scheme was analysed and approved by an ELT professor to enhance the reliability. Finally, the same expert controlled other studies under consideration to identify whether they would correlate with the clear-cut inclusion criteria in order to ensure their reliability.

Findings and Discussion

As previously stated, studies were examined in terms of themes to detect mostly associated issues with RP along with the study and education context besides the research orientations. It was assumed that this principled, closer investigation of the variables would pave the way for future directions in reflective teaching research.

Education context, study context, and research method

Below is given the education context of selected 18 articles. Education context signifies the levels or stages in educational system. The impetus behind appointing educational context as a variable was the presupposition that it would portray the interest and inclination of researchers according to different phases in education system in RP studies.

Table 3

The education context

Pre-service Education		**In-service Education**	
EFL	**ESL**	**EFL Teachers**	**ESL Teachers**
3	1	8	6

As is seen in table 3, while 14 research on RP were in in-service, other 4 studies were carried out in pre-service teacher education programs in EFL and ESL settings.

Table 4

The study contexts

Study Contexts	**Number of Studies**
Canada	4
Turkey	3
U.K.	2
Iran	2
Philippines	1
Taiwan	2
USA	1
South Korea	1
Australia	1
Germany	1
Total	18

Table 4 illustrates that studies aiming to reveal the practices of in-service teachers were largely operated in Canada (N=4) due to one eminent author who conducted similar research in this country and known as the linchpin in this field. Turkey was ranked the second in the table with

three studies. After the U.K., Iran and Taiwan, Philippines, the USA, South Korea, Australia, and Germany were listed with only one article.

Table 5

The methods

Qualitative	**N**	**Quantitative**	**N**	**Mixed**	**N**
group meeting, discussion, follow-up interview, classroom observation, journal writing, stimulated recall, ad hoc self-observation, taped monologue, teacher diary, questionnaire, conversation analysis, discourse analysis, video-stimulated reflection, case study	5	reflection and burnout inventories	1	survey and metaphor analysis, concept mapping	2

Qualitative methods vastly outnumbered the quantitative techniques in the research selected for this analysis. Case studies, open-ended questionnaire aside from recordings, written texts, field notes from the observations were all categorized as qualitative research designs. Nevertheless, there was only one paper which purely adopted quantitative methods to collect data. As for the mixed methods, solely two studies matching the scope of this review were incorporated with a survey-metaphor analysis, and concept map was utilized as research tools from two methods to supply triangulation and strengthen the validity of findings.

General themes

In order to pinpoint themes from each study precisely, initially the articles must be introduced with ordinal numbers to represent them in the following steps throughout the deep analysis.

Table 6

The articles with assigned numbers and authors

N	**Articles**	**Authors**
1	Exploring the professional role identities of experienced ESL teachers through reflective practice	Farrell, T. S. C.
2	'Keeping SCORE': Reflective practice through classroom observations	Farrell, T. S. C.
3	Exploring teacher beliefs and classroom practices through reflective practice: A case study	Farrell, T. S. C. & Ives, J.
4	Doing reflective practice: A data-led way forward	Walsh, S. & Mann, S.
5	Surviving the transition shock in the first year of teaching through reflective practice	Farrell, T. S. C.
6	Reflective practice-oriented online discussions: A study on EFL teachers' reflection-on, in and for-action	Burhan-Horasanlı, E. & Ortaçtepe, D.

7	The taped monologue as narrative technique for reflective practice	Ford, K.
8	Classroom conversation analysis and critical reflective practice: Self-evaluation of teacher talk framework in focus	Ghafarpour, H.
9	The relationship between novice and experienced EFL teachers' reflective teaching and their burnout	Kalantari, S. & Kolahi, S.
10	What is reflective teaching? Lessons learned from ELT teachers from the Philippines	Valdez, P. N., Navera, J. A., & Esteron, J. N.
11	An analysis of the impact of reflective teaching on the beliefs of teacher trainees	Cephe, P. T.
12	Quality self-reflection through reflection training	Gün, B.
13	Using blogs to enhance critical reflection and community of practice	Yang, S.
14	Two mentor practices that generate teacher reflection without explicit solicitations: Some preliminary considerations	Waring, H. Z.
15	Concept maps of Korean EFL student teachers' autobiographical reflections on their professional identity formation	Lim, H.
16	Questioning pedagogies: Hong Kong pre-service teachers' dialogic reflections on a transnational school experience	Hepple, E.
17	Video-stimulated reflection as a professional development tool in interactive whiteboard research	Cutrim Schmid, E.
18	Turning experiences into critical reflections: examples from Taiwanese in-service teachers	Chi, F.

Having completed the thematic analysis, the reviewer grouped 18 research articles under 8 themes below.

Table 7

Themes

N	**Themes**	**Articles**																		
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**	**Total**
1	Exploring teacher identity through RP	*					*	*			*				*	*	*			7
2	Collaboration as RP	*			*	*	*	*			*		*	*			*	*		10
3	Challenges on RP		*		*	*	*			*	*			*	*	*	*	*	*	12
4	Identification of teachers' beliefs via RP	*	*	*			*	*		*	*	*		*		*		*	*	12
5	Types of RP						*													1
6	The impact of teaching experience on RP	*	*	*		*	*			*			*				*	*	*	10
7	Technology-oriented tools within RP						*							*	*		*	*		5
8	Raising awareness towards teacher education through RP	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	18

The heavily cited themes among all were raising awareness issue, discovering teacher beliefs through RP, and the difficulties teachers faced during reflections. Subsequently, teacher

cooperation, and the effect of teaching experience on reflection were discussed, while identity of teachers was touched upon only in seven research. Finally, technical support with RP, and types of RP, that is reflection-on, -in and for-action were detected to be the least common items out of all themes, respectively.

To refer to each theme in the table 7, the first theme was generally related to professional role identity, and (re) construction of roles in professional growth. It is followed that collegiality was essential, yet in lieu of solely emphasizing teachers in the education system, cooperation among all stakeholders, such as teacher trainers, curriculum developers, department heads or school principals must be regarded. More specifically, Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016), Hepple (2012), Yang (2009) underlined Community of Practice (CoP) issue by means of RP. The third theme, the challenges encountered while implementing RP were stated as lack of time, fallacies in reflective thinking, school policy, and attitudes of peers. As for the fourth item, it looked into teacher beliefs, values, views, and emotion besides the correlation between the stated beliefs and observed classroom practices to improve their instructions and performance in class.

Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016) became the only scholars creating the next subject matter, the types of RP as reflection-on, -in and for-action through RP-oriented online discussions, and allowing us to shape the seventh theme, technically supported lessons for online practices. Educational technology was also highlighted in Cutrim Schmid (2011), Hepple (2012), Waring (2013), and Yang (2009) using video (stimulation), blogs, and online classroom settings. To return back to the sixth item in the list, novice and experienced teachers in ESL and EFL classrooms, their burnout (Kalantari & Kolahi, 2017), and attrition rates (Farrell, 2016) were thoroughly inspected. Last but certainly not least, as the most stressed item out of all, the awareness of English language teachers about their practical and pedagogical knowledge including in-class performance through self-reflections and RP with trusted colleagues or peers was encapsulated in all of the selected articles for the benefit of institutional improvements, and as a part of their professional development. By the same token, Walsh and Mann (2015), Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016), Ghafarpour (2016), Kalantari and Kolahi (2017), Valdez, Navera, and Esteron (2018) particularly underscored professional learning, and teacher learning; likewise Cephe (2009) emphasized professional self, and Lim (2011) marked professional identity as strong pillars of Continuing Professional Development (CPD).

Conclusion and Suggestions

This review has been planned to delve into general dispositions in reflective teaching and RP in respect to education context, methods, study context, and themes from the articles published in esteemed, peer-reviewed, international journals, such as ELTJ, LTR, and so on over the last ten years. Hence, it is reckoned to have a profound knowledge into the current trends in RP as well as enlightening us what aspects of RP are discussed in different contexts.

Findings plainly confirm that reflective teaching practices constitute a source for collegiality, reflexivity, gaining the competency of teaching profession, improving fields of knowledge, modelling or mentoring, and catalyse quality assurance besides advancing in professional standards. In other words, RP promotes CPD through professional awareness, active learning, multiple identities of teacher, peer network, and sustainable activities based on developmental goals. In addition, recent research sets forth that meta-reflection allowing teachers and teacher trainers to deliver instruct on teaching methods as an extension of RP is quite vital (Thorpe & Garside, 2017).

Depending on the results of this principled review, it is apparent that RP has been largely carried out in Canada. This is thanks to a well-known professor in applied linguistics, Thomas S.C. Farrell who investigated all of the 4 full-length research articles on RP in this study. Another reason beneath this reality must be the fact that Canada is a multilingual country though it has been affirmed to be officially bilingual with English and French languages. However, when locally spoken languages, such as Mandarin, Cantonese, Punjabi, in distinct provinces have been considered, it makes the country a multilingual nation. Consequently, a majority of the Canadian are bilinguals from birth. Enabling a lot of participants, namely in-service and pre-service teachers, to be incorporated into the research designs from a wide range of contexts will naturally bring about this common study context for RP. As to the others, the U.K. and Germany were the only countries in Europe, and furthermore just one study could be examined from the member state of the European Union in light of the scope of this review. These findings imply that more RP investigations in other European countries along with multilingual nations are necessitated.

In addition, the current study has reported themes generated from the selected articles. Top-ranked theme appears as raising awareness through RP (N=18). Following this, identification of teachers' beliefs with RP (N=12), challenges on RP (N=12), collaboration as RP (N=10), the impact of teaching experience on RP (N=10), and exploring teacher identity through RP (N=7)

are listed behind. Finally, technological tools within RP, and types of RP have been the least cited issues.

In fact, case studies, group meetings, interviews, observations, discussions, recordings, and conversation analysis have been remarkably adopted as data collection tools in qualitative designs. Only in one study, a purely quantitative method with close-ended questions and five point likert-scale inventories is utilized to gather data. In that vein, merely two studies with mixed methods are investigated though they are to be highly exploited to enhance the validity or triangulate the data. Therefore, further longitudinal research on RP should be planned by employing both quantitative and qualitative methods via various data gathering instruments in order to attain valid inferences and see the whole picture from distinct angles.

The other study variable is education context so as to inform readers about at what level of education the chosen studies have been conducted. The results reveal the preponderance of practitioner teachers in that majority of the research is executed among in-service teachers in EFL (N=8) and ESL (N=6) contexts, whereas teacher candidates are included in 4 operations. It is quite interesting that only a few studies involve pre-service teachers, much as novice teachers take part in 4 research and the necessity of induction programmes is accentuated (Farrell, 2016). Covering these participants in projects to compare their challenges, and opportunities with in-service teachers in regard to inadequate supervised field experience in pre-service teacher education programs or just to clarify attitudes and beliefs of prospective teachers toward RP is of paramount importance. Correspondingly, future studies on RP in tertiary level at education faculties ought to be supported and more analyses addressing the strong interdependence of in-service and pre-service education will be stated as suggestions for new venues of research.

In brief, the findings yield that studies on RP should go further in terms of broadening study context with participants from different education levels, such as teachers or student teachers, and methodologies with the longitudinal mixed designs. More research is in need to create a range of themes considering the required cooperation between in-service and pre-service teachers as have already stressed in earlier studies (Chi, 2013; Cutrim Schmid, 2011, Lim, 2011), strengths and weaknesses of RP within diverse contexts, other stakeholders' attitudes to RP (Gün, 2011), and teachers' apprehensions about being successful practitioners.

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Communication Anxiety Level of Turkish English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learners

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Abstract

Individual characteristics has always caught the attention of L2 researchers. Anxiety is the most popular of these characteristics. Recently, L2 researchers found that anxiety could affect language acquisiton to great extent. Therefore, the main goal of this study is to find out the communication anxiety level of Turkish English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learners and its relationship with different variables such as gender, abroad experience, proficiency level, favourite skill area and perceived competence in English. 711 EFL students who were registered in the one-year preparatory school at a state university in Turkey participated in the study. 18 items from 33 items of FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) which were directly related to communication anxiety were utilized to assess learners' foreign language speaking anxiety level. The results revealed that Turkish EFL learners experienced moderate level of speaking anxiety. Gender, abroad experience, proficiency level and perceived competence were found to be significant indicators of learners' speaking anxiety level, whereas there was not any significant relationship between learners' favourite skill area and their foreign language speaking anxiety.

Keywords: anxiety, speaking, EFL, gender, proficiency, abroad

Introduction

Recently, anxiety has become an important subject area for L2 researchers due to the increasing popularity of individual differences in language learning area. Different researchers in various contexts have been trying to understand its impact on language learning and it was found that anxiety can affect language acquisiton to great extent. Many studies indicated that anxiety can negatively affect learners' language learning process and prevents learners from achieving their goals (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, 1994; Young, 1991).

Anxiety is defined as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 125). Three different aspects of anxiety which are trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation specific anxiety were investigated in the research area (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). While trait anxiety is defined as a personality trait, it is defined as an emotional situation from the perspective of state anxiety. The situation specific anxiety examines anxiety in certain settings.

Considering the significance of anxiety, Dörnyei (2005) defines it as "a complex made up of constituents that have different characteristics" (p. 198). Two different anxiety distinctions were proposed by Dörnyei (2005): beneficial/facilitating vs. inhibitory/debilitating anxiety and trait vs. state anxiety. The first distinction is related to the positive or negative influence of anxiety on performance. It is claimed that although the cognitive component of anxiety generally obstructs the learning process, the affective component can also endorse it in some situations. The second dichotomy, on the other hand, refers to whether anxiety is stable or transient across situations. Trait anxiety is defined as a permanent predisposition to be anxious and it is percived as a general characteristic of personality, whereas state anxiety is defined as an emotional reaction given to a specific situation such as public speaking, examinations, or class participation.

Foreign language anxiety, on the other hand, is different from general anxiety. It is defined as "a distinct set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to foreign language learning in the classroom" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 130). Three varieties of foreign language anxiety were identified: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is defined as a kind of fear or anxiety while communicating with others in a foreign language. Test anxiety is a kind of fear that learners feel in the situation of testing. Learners experince test anxiety because they are afraid of failure. Similar to test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation is is defined as apprehension about others' evaluations and avoidance of negative evaluations.

Some research findings showed that language anxiety negatively affects final grades of a language course and performance on a vocabulary learning task (Horwitz, 1986; Gardner et al., 1987). Horwitz (1986) found highly negative correlations between foreign language classroom anxiety and final grades acquired by American university students. Gardner et al. (1987) claimed that there was a significant relationship between various measures of anxiety and scores on a word production task in their study, but there was no relationship between the anxiety measures and free speech quality. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) found a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and L2 performance, whereas there was no correlation between language anxiety and learners' L1. In a comprehensive review of studies, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a, p. 103) claimed:

> *Considering several measures of proficiency, in several different samples, and even in somewhat different conceptual frameworks, it has been shown that anxiety negatively affects performance in the second language. In some cases, anxiety provides some of the highest simple correlations of attitudes with achievement.*

MacIntyre and his colleagues' studies (e.g. MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b, 1994) supported the view that language anxiety is different from other more general types of anxiety and there is a negative correlation between performance in the second language and language anxiety, but not with more general types of anxiety. Thus, when anxiety is considered as a situated L2-specific construct, it has a negative influence on L2 performance (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 1997). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993, p. 3) states that "the results of these studies of language anxiety suggest that anxious students will have lower levels of verbal production and will be reluctant to express personally relevant information in a second-language conversation".

Emprical studies on foreign language speaking anxiety

Many emprical studies have been conducted in language learning area since the proposal of Foreign Language Anxiety concept by Horwitz et al. (1986). Although some of these studies came up with the similar findings, some of them found contradictory results with regard to different features of foreign language anxiety.

In a Chinese language learning setting, Liu (2006) investigated the anxiety level of Chinese undergraduate non-English majors at three different language proficiency levels by means of a survey, observations, reflective journals and interviews. The findings of the study revealed that a great number of students at each proficiency level experienced speaking anxiety in the

classroom. In spite of this general anxiety reported by learners, most of them reported that they feel comfortable while speaking with their pairs or in groups. On the other hand, few students reported that they felt relaxed by answering their teachers' questions. They also reported higher anxiety while giving presentations in front of the class, especially when unprepared. With regard to the interaction between proficiency levels and speaking anxiety level, students who have higher proficiency level reported less speaking anxiety. In Japanese setting, Yashima (2002) investigated the speaking anxiety in relation to different variables such as L2 proficiency, motivation, L2 communication confidence, international posture, L2 WTC. Results indicated that lower level of anxiety resulted in higher level of L2WTC. As a result of his study, Yashima (2002) emphasized the importance of reducing anxiety and increasing L2 communication confidence of learners.

As an English as a foreign language context (EFL), Turkey is also a country which has a considerable number of EFL learners and the number of these learners are increasing day by day. Although a great amount of attention is given to foreign learning in Turkey, EFL learners still cannot find a chance to contact with a native speaker. Due to this reason, most of the learners probably experience anxiety while speaking English. However, not many studies have been carried out in order to shed more light on this issue.

In 1995, Kaya investigated the anxiety level of 21 Turkish college students who were enrolled at preparatory class. She found out that students had moderate anxiety which was negatively correlated with their self-confidence. Contrary to Kaya's (1995) study, findings of Kızıltepe's (2000) study with Turkish high school students and Kunt's (2001) study with 882 Turkish university-level students revealed that Turkish EFL students had low level of communication anxiety.

Bektaş (2005) also investigated the anxiety level of Turkish college students in a path model and found out that these students did not experience much communication anxiety which was similar to the results of Kızıltepe's (2000) and Kunt's (2001) studies. Even in the most anxiety-provoking situation, students' anxiety level was moderate. Şener (2014) investigated the anxiety level of students who were studying at English language teaching department. She indicated that students' anxiety level was neither too high, nor too low which could be considered as an optimal level. It was found that students had the highest anxiety level while they were communicating with foreigners and teachers. In terms of the context, students indicated that they had more anxiety speaking in English in meetings and they did not feel anxious

communicating in small groups. Thus, Şener (2014) emphasized the importance of a non-threatening atmosphere for decreasing anxiety and fostering students' self-confidence.

As can be seen in the studies above, some researchers found out that Turkish EFL learners' speaking anxiety experienced a moderate level of speaking anxiety, while some of them proposed that Turkish EFL learners did not experience much anxiety while speaking English. However, the number of the studies dealing with the foreign language speaking anxiety is limited in the Turkish context and none of these studies examined the speaking anxiety level of Turkish EFL learners in relation to different variables such as abroad experience, perceived competence in speaking, favourite skill area which could give us a much deeper understanding of the issue. Thus, this study is important in terms of dealing with the interaction of Turkish EFL learners' speaking anxiety with a broad range of variables and helping us to undertand the Turkish EFL learners' foreign language speaking anxiety from different aspects.

The Purpose and Significance of the Study

The main goal of this study is to investigate the level of the Turkish EFL learners' speaking anxiety in English. To this end, the following research questions were specificed as in the following:

1- What is the level of speaking anxiety among preparatory school EFL learners?

2- Does the speaking anxiety level of preparatory school EFL learners differ based on their gender, abroad experience, their proficiency level, their favourite skill area, and their perceived competence in speaking?

Method

Research Design

In this study, survey design was adopted in order to understand the participants' speaking anxiety and its relationship with different variables. The main goal of survey design is to display a quantitative description of opinions or trends of a population by focusing a small sample of this population (Creswell, 2013). In line with this purpose, this study was planned as a survey model.

Population and Sample

The population of this study consisted of 711 preparatory school students at a state university in Turkey. Cluster random sampling was adopted in order to select the participants from four different proficiency levels. The profile of the participants is presented in the table below.

Table 1

Level and Gender Distribution of the Participants

		n	%
Level	ADV	147	20.7
	INT	165	23.2
	PIN	180	25.3
	ELE	219	30.8
	Total	711	100.0
Gender	Female	429	60.3
	Male	282	39.7
	Total	711	100.0

Instruments

In this research, a background questionnaire and FLCAS scale developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) were utilized to collect data.

Communication Anxiety: 18 items from from 33 items of FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) which were directly related to foreign language speaking anxiety were selected and translated into Turkish by Saltan (2003). Both translation and back-translation methods were utilized by Saltan (2003) to prevent any semantic loss. The internal consistency of foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire (FLSAQ) was found as .91, which shows that it is highly reliable. For that reason, these 18 items from Horwitz (1986) were used to investigate to what extent students experience communication anxiety. The students were asked to respond on a 6-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

Data Analysis

Data was collected at School of Foreign Languages at Hacettepe University, Turkey at the end of the Fall Semester of the 2016-2017 Academic Year. In order to find out the speaking anxiety level of EFL learners, descriptive statistics were calculated firstly by means of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Then, for the interaction of the speaking anxiety level of learners with different background variables, independent samples t-tests and a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) were carried out.

Findings

Findings about the First Research Question

For the first research question, the level of speaking anxiety among preparatory school EFL learners was investigated on a 6-point scale. It was found that the participants in the study (mean=3.1) had moderate level of speaking anxiety. Table 2 shows the communication anxiety level of the participants. The participants reported the highest level of speaking anxiety when they speak without preparation in English classes (CA5) followed by being called on in English classes (CA3). As can be seen in the table, participants' anxiety levels were moderate even in those most anxiety-provoking situations. On the other hand, they reported the lowest level of speaking anxiety when other students laugh at them while they are speaking English (CA17).

They also indicated that they did not feel anxious when their English teachers corrected their mistakes (CA10). These results reveal that speaking English in the class, especially without preparation, was the most anxiety-provoking situation for the participants in an English class.

However, the participants' anxiety levels decreased while they were communicating with their peers in English or in situations related to their teachers which implies that their English classrooms provide learners with a relaxed atmosphere in which they do not have fear of being judged by their peers or they do not feel anxiety when they do not understand their teachers. Overall, the results indicated that the participants did not experience important anxiety problems in their classes.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire (FLSAQ)

Communication Anxiety Items	Mean	SD
1. I am never quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	3.43	1.44
2. I am afraid of making mistakes in English classes.	3.55	1.57
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes.	3.59	1.62
4. I get frightened when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	2.96	1.55
5. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes.	3.76	1.61
6. I get embarrassed to volunteer answers in English classes.	3.10	1.51
7. I feel nervous while speaking English with native speakers.	3.17	1.60
8. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	3.03	1.49
9. I don't feel confident when I speak English in classes.	3.27	1.55
10. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	2.54	1.47
11. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes.	3.38	1.64
12. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	2.94	1.60

13. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	3.09	1.48
14. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English classes.	3.27	1.48
15. I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says.	2.78	1.43
16. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	2.91	1.54
17. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	2.40	1.46
18. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	3.24	1.58
Total	3.13	1.53

Findings about the Second Research Question

In order to find out if there is any difference between female and male EFL learners' speaking anxiety levels, t-test was carried out and the results of the test were displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

The results of the t-test for the EFL learners' speaking anxiety according to the gender variable

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Speaking Anxiety Level	Female	429	59.12	20.64	-4.32	.00
	Male	282	52.50	19.47		

As shown in Table 3, the anxiety level of female EFL learners significantly differed from the anxiety level of male learners ($p<0.05$). The mean scores of both groups revealed that female EFL learners are more anxious than male EFL learners with regard to speaking English.

Then, the average scores were investigated in order to find out whether speaking anxiety levels of EFL learners differ based on their previous abroad experience and the results were shown in Table 4.

Table 4

The results of the t-test for the EFL learners' speaking anxiety according to the abroad experience variable

	Abroad Experience	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Speaking Anxiety Level	Yes	166	48.57	20.25	-5.779	.00
	No	545	58.91	19.89		

As it is seen in the Table 4, there is a significant difference between the speaking anxiety levels of the EFL learners who have been abroad and who have not been abroad before ($p<0.05$). Based on the mean scores of the both groups of learners, it is found out that the EFL learners who have been abroad before experienced less anxiety compared to the EFL learners who have not been abroad before. It can be conclued that abroad experience help EFL learners to overcome their speaking anxiety to a great extent.

The results of the One-way ANOVA test on whether the speaking anxiety levels of EFL learners differ based on their favourite skill area are presented in Table 5. The findings revealed that there is not a significant difference among different groups of EFL learners who favor different skill areas of English as can be seen in the table below ($p>0.05$). The findings imply that even if the learners favor speaking skill, they still experience speaking anxiety to some extent.

Table 5

One-way ANOVA for EFL learners' speaking anxiety with regard to their favourite skill area variable

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Speaking Anxiety Level	Between Groups	1800.023	3	600.008	1.439	.230
	Within Groups	294695.724	707	416.826		
	Total	296495.747	710			

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was adopted in order to find out the impact of the proficiency levels (elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, advanced) on EFL learners' speaking anxiety. According to the results of ANOVA, there was a statistically significant difference at the $p< .05$ level, which implies that the proficiency level of the learners has a great impact on learners' speaking anxiety level. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

One-way ANOVA for EFL learners' speaking anxiety with regard to their proficiency levels

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Speaking Anxiety Level	Between Groups	11031.628	3	3677.209	9.107	.000
	Within Groups	285464.119	707	403.768		
	Total	296495.747	710			

Tukey posthoc test was implemented to find out where differences occurred in four groups of EFL learners whose language proficiency levels were elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, and advanced. As shown in the Table 7, the results of the posthoc analysis

indicated statistically significant mean differences between groups of EFL learners who had different proficiency levels. However, there was not a significant difference between the speaking anxiety levels of elementary and pre-intermediate level EFL learners. Also, the mean difference between intermediate and advanced level EFL learners was not found to be significant as shown in the table below.

Namely, it can be concluded that the proficiency level of EFL learners has an important impact on learners' speaking anxiety. Groups of EFL learners whose proficiency levels are closer to each other (e.g., elementary & pre-intermediate, intermediate & advanced) feel similar degree of speaking anxiety, whereas there is a significant difference between the anxiety levels of EFL learners whose proficiency levels differ to a great extent (e.g., advanced & elementary, pre-intermediate & advanced).

Table 7

Tukey test on four proficiency levels

Proficiency Levels		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
	Pin	-1.36492	2.02160	.906
Ele	Int	8.16488*	2.07142	.001
	Adv	5.93384*	2.14252	.029
	Ele	1.36492	2.02160	.906
Pin	Int	9.52980*	2.16570	.000
	Adv	7.29875*	2.23380	.006
	Ele	-8.16488*	2.07142	.001
Int	Pin	-9.52980*	2.16570	.000
	Adv	-2.23105	2.27899	.762
	Ele	-5.93384*	2.14252	.029
Adv	Pin	-7.29875*	2.23380	.006
	Int	2.23105	2.27899	.762

In order to find out whether the preparatory school EFL learners' speaking anxiety differ based on their perceived competence in speaking variable, one-way ANOVA was conducted and results of the test were presented in Table 8. As can be seen in the table, average speaking anxiety scores of EFL learners displayed a significant difference based on their perceived competence in speaking ($p<0.05$).

Table 8

One-way ANOVA for EFL learners' speaking anxiety with regard to their perceived competence in speaking variable

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Speaking Anxiety Level	Between Groups	87874.526	3	29291.509	99.266	.000
	Within Groups	208621.220	707	295.080		
	Total	296495.747	710			

The Games-Howell posthoc test was utilized to determine where differences occurred in four groups of EFL learners who perceive their language proficiency as very good, good, moderate and low. The Games-Howell multiple comparison test does not assume equal variances, which was necessary since the Levene homogeneity-of-variance statistic was not significant in the ANOVA. The results of the posthoc analysis indicated statistically significant mean differences between four groups of EFL learners who perceive their language proficiency as very good, good, moderate and low as indicated in the table below. Namely, the more self-confident the learners feel about their language proficiency in speaking, the less anxious they feel about speaking in English. The perceived competence in speaking has a crucial impact on EFL learners' speaking anxiety.

Table 9

Games-Howell test on four perceived competence levels

perceived language proficiency in speaking	perceived language proficiency in speaking	Mean Difference	Std. Error	p
very good	good	-12.43471*	2.84698	.000
	moderate	-26.78856*	2.69761	.000
	low	-43.31975*	3.08933	.000
good	very good	12.43471*	2.84698	.000
	moderate	-14.35386*	1.51496	.000
	low	-30.88504*	2.13588	.000
moderate	very good	26.78856*	2.69761	.000
	good	14.35386*	1.51496	.000
	low	-16.53119*	1.93230	.000
low	very good	43.31975*	3.08933	.000
	good	30.88504*	2.13588	.000
	moderate	16.53119*	1.93230	.000

Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigated the foreign language speaking anxiety of Turkish EFL learners and its relationship with different background variables. The findings of the study revealed that preparatory school students at a state university experience a moderate level of speaking anxiety, which supports the findings of some previous studies in Turkish context (Kaya, 1995; Şener, 2014). Similar to Şener's (2014) results, learners reported the highest anxiety while speaking in front to the classroom without any preparation, whereas they experienced low level of anxiety while speaking in pairs or in groups. The results are also in line with the findings of Liu's (2006) study which was conducted in a Chinese learning setting, which shows that Turkish and Chinese EFL learners are similar in terms of their higher anxiety levels while speaking in front of the classroom.

With regard to the second research question which deals with learners' speaking anxiety level in relation to different individual variables, the results pointed out that female EFL learners are more anxious while speaking English compared to their male friends, which supports the findings of many previous studies (Bozavlı & Gülmez, 2012; Dalkılıç, 2001; Huang, 2004; Öztürk, 2009; Çağatay, 2015) although some of the studies in the literature did not find any difference based on learners' gender (Heng et al., 2012; Saltan, 2003; Tianjian, 2010). The higher level of speaking anxiety experienced by female learners in a Turkish setting might result from some cultural factors, which foster male's expression of themselves in a public area more confidently compared to females. However, considering different findings of studies about gender differences in speaking anxiety level of EFL learners, more research is needed to investigate this issue in detail.

In terms of the influence of abroad experience on learners' speaking anxiety level, the findings revealed that EFL learners who have been abroad before reported less speaking anxiety compared to the ones who have not been abroad. This result was found to be in line with the findings of some previous studies. Allen and Herron (2008) also investigated the changes of the speaking anxiety level of 25 college French students after a broad experience and found out that the language anxiety level of these students after study abroad declined significantly although they experienced two sources of language anxiety while living abroad, which are linguistic insecurity and cultural differences. Similarly, Thompson and Lee (2013) searched the affective outcomes after experiences abroad through the participation of 148 Korean learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) into their studies and found out that study abroad experience greatly

influenced English class performance anxiety, confidence with native speakers of English, and fear of ambiguity. Also, the results of their study indicated that study abroad experience declined foreign language classroom anxiety and the importance of abroad experience was emphasized for language students (Thompson & Lee, 2013). Considering the increasing popularity of student mobility programs in Turkey such as Erasmus (European community action scheme for the mobility of university students), this finding is important in terms of showing how language anxiety decreases in parallel with study abroad experience.

The third variable of the second research question related to the speaking anxiety level of EFL learners was proficiency level of learners. The participants of this study were represented at four different proficiency levels (elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, advanced) and the results clearly indicated that learners' proficiency levels influence their speaking anxiety to a great extent, which supports the findings of some previous studies. Tianjan (2010) also found out that lower level students tend to be more anxious while speaking English. Similarly, in this study, the higher the proficiency levels of EFL learners get, the less speaking anxiety they experience. Besides, the participants at lower proficiency levels such as elementary and pre-intermediate reported similar anxiety levels. Similary, there was not a significant difference between the speaking anxiety levels of the participants who have higher proficiency levels such as intermediate and advanced. On the other hand, some other previous studies in the Turkish context (Balemir, 2009; Çağatay, 2015) revealed that the proficiency level of the learners is not a significant indicator for foreign language speaking anxiety, which contradicts with the finding of this study. Taking into consideration that this issue is not dealt with adequately enough in the Turkish EFL context, more studies are needed to explore this issue in detail.

As an another dimension of the second research question, favourite skill area of the participants and its interaction with learners' speaking anxiety level were investigated. The results pinpointed that even if the learners favor speaking skill, their anxiety levels do not change. The effect of the learners' favourite skill area their speaking anxiety has not been investigated before by any of the studies in the literature, so this finding is important in terms of providing a new aspect in order to understand the reasons behind foreign language speaking anxiety. Contrary to learners' favourite skill area, their perceived competence in speaking significantly influenced their speaking anxiety level. Namely, to what extent the EFL learners feel self-confident about their speaking ability is an important predictor of their speaking anxiety level, which supports the findings of many previous studies (Han, 2003; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999). MacIntyre et al. (1997) found that a negative correlation exists between language anxiety and both actual and

perceived L2 proficiency. In the same line, Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) indicated that L2 learners' perceived self-worth and perceived scholastic competence are indicators of language anxiety. Han (2003) also pointed out that higher self-efficacy of learners leads to less speaking anxiety.

All in all, Turkish EFL learners in this study were found to have moderate level of speaking anxiety similar to other studies in the same context. Considering that they experience the highest level of anxiety while speaking in front of the classroom without any preparation, language tecahers could help their learners to overcome this issue by providing them with a relaxed classroom atmosphere and giving enough time for preparation. As an another important finding of the study, female learners reported higher speaking anxiety compared to males. Thus, language tecahers should be aware of this issue in their classes and shoud adopt different methods in order to foster female participation into speaking activities. Based on the finding that abroad experience declines speaking anxiety significantly, EFL learners should be encouraged to go abroad and use the language for authentic purposes. Lastly, both the real language proficiency levels of the learners and their perceived competence about their speaking ability were found to have great influence on learners' anxiety levels. So, more chances should be given to learners to practice their speaking skills in the classroom, which could give them more self-confidence. Also, different skill areas of their language proficiency should be strengthened by language teachers through the integration of comtemporary teaching methods and techniques.

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Deaf or Hard-of-hearing High School EFL Students' Self-Esteem, Attitudes and Perspectives on Motivational Orientations

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Abstract

With the globalization of the world, the inclusiveness has become a growing concept affecting the educational contexts. As English being the lingua franca, more and more students all over the world have been learning it as either a foreign or a second language. However, teaching and learning languages to individuals with special needs has long been neglected. Individuals with hearing impairment have been no exception. Regrettably, most of the deaf community still lacks the opportunity of learning a foreign language as there are still not enough studies to understand the basics of foreign or second language education for the hearing impaired. Fortunately, recently, more studies have been conducted to understand the perceptions of the deaf and to provide them with better education. Thus the present study aims to shed some light to the issue by investigating the self-esteem, attitudes and motivational orientations of deaf or hard-of-hearing students. The data were collected through a scale. The participants of this study were 85 deaf high school students in a vocational high school. "The Scale of Motivation in English Language Learning" was used to investigate the self-esteem, attitude and motivational orientations of the participants. The scale was given to the participants in a written form, and it was explained/translated in Turkish Sign Language. The scale was originally designed for hearing students to learn about their degree of motivation towards English language learning, however the statements were shared with the participants by expressing them in sign language by one of the researchers in order to fit the purpose of the current study. The results indicate low self-esteem among the participants regarding their beliefs on their language learning abilities. Yet, travelling, communicating with others and self-improvement were found to be the orientations that trigger learners' interest into learning a foreign language. Although the male participants were found to be more confident with themselves compared to females no statistically significant differences were found between their attitudes. Previous studies and

studies like the current one can be used to have deeper understandings of motivations of hearing impaired students when developing specialized learning programs and curriculums fit for them.

Keywords: Deaf, hard-of-hearing, DHH, motivation, orientation, attitudes

1. Introduction

English has been used as *lingua franca* all over the world (Cyristal 2006, Conrad and Mauranen 2003, Seidlhofer 2013). As Beltran, Abott and Jones (2013) states around one fourth of the "world population speak English to some level of competence" (p.90). Therefore, a great number of people among the world are either able to use it, or trying to learn to be able to use it. Damagal-Zysk (2016) provides statistical evidence on the opinions of best language learning environment of EU27 countries, and over three fourth of the participants agreed on the schools' being the best place to learn a foreign language. Learning English enables us to know more about the other cultures, as well as creating opportunities for interaction, mobility, entertainment, and wider range of occupation options. Mauranen and Ranta (2009) states, English is being used for a tool for academic purposes such as "business and science" and also for social purposes such as "new means of communication" (p.2). Besides these points, Brumfit (1984) claims that English is also a mean of social interaction, and can affect psychological and pedagogical factors as well. Also for the academic benefits, Beltran, Abott and Jones (2013) claim that "fluent usage of English is a synonym of good education" (p.90). As the importance of learning English is stated, every student has the right to learn it. Dotter (2008) emphasizes the importance of English, and evokes us the prevalence of English as a second or foreign language among the hearing pupils. He strongly criticizes the struggles that deaf or hard-of-hearing community faces because of their inadequate "inclusion in society" and their need for "an adequate basic education and improvement" (p.1). Moreover, it is also stated in Dotter's (2008) study that because DHH community is learning sign language as well, they tend to be multi-lingual. This may indicate that deaf or hard-of-hearing pupils would handle learning a foreign language just as the hearing pupils (if not better). However, there is an important question that is still waiting to be answered: what motivates the deaf or hard-of-hearing pupils to learn a foreign language, or if they are motivated or not?

1.1 Review of Literature

Motivation, Attitudes and Orientation

Since more modern methodologies and approaches started to emerge, the opinions, beliefs and needs of learners have started to be taken into consideration. To be able to understand the personal and motivational factors studies with the students have started to be conducted. Therefore, motivation studies have been very popular on the field of applied linguistics. A number of motivation studies have been conducted all around the world (Benson 1991, Dörnyei, Csizer & Nemeth 2006, Gardner & Lambert 1972, Ghanea & Pisheh 2011, Kiziltepe 200, Tachibana, Matsukawa & Zhong 1996). According to Richards and Schmidt (2002) motivation is "the driving force in any situation that leads to action", and specifically for the language learning it is the "combination of the learner's attitudes, desires, and willingness to expand effort" (p.343). Also Dörnyei (2001) suggests that the level of motivation determines "success or failure in any learning situation" (p.2). Masgoret and Gardner (2003) have conducted a study to understand the relation of motivation and achievement. After analyzing the correlation of socio-educational model and language achievement, they have come to a conclusion that motivation has found out to be the most related variable (among others) with the language achievement.

Gardner (2001) suggests integrativeness and claims that second language learning is for integrating into a community. Gardner's claims seem to be rather valid for English as a second language. Gardner (2001), Noels (2003) and Ushioda's (2001) findings show parallel components of motivation: integrativeness and intrinsic, instrumentality or extrinsic and attitudes. Dörnyei (2009) criticizes integrativeness for being vague and suggests that this notion of motivation is not fully accepted by researches "outside Gardner's Canadian circle" (p.23). And suggests a third type of motivation initiative (other than internal and external), which is the "successful engagement with the actual learning process" (p.29). In Gardner's research environment, Canada, where there are Anglophone and Francophone communities living together and communicating with each other, learning English is a social construct. Therefore social dimension was particularly dealt by Gardner and Lambert. However, there are learners that have other reasons to learn English and are not in an ESL environment. As Dörnyei (1994) mentions, motivational psychologists (Bernard, 1990 & 1992), have started to do research to understand the individual being, they have been dwelling on "concepts such as instinct, drive, arousal, need and on personality traits like anxiety and need for achievement" as well as "cognitive appraisals of success and failure, ability, self-esteem" (p.273-274).

To be motivated, and the understanding the importance of English are essential for learning it as a second or foreign language. However, it is also important to have ideas how and where to use it. As the previous studies indicated different types of motivation and compares their effects on learner during the learning process, the orientation of learners should not be left out while investigating their motivation and attitudes. Kruidnier & Clement's (1986) study revealed that, to be able to be friends with foreigners, travelling, having respect and gaining prestige were among the orientations of students toward learning English. This study indicates a more intrinsic or integrative type of motivation. However, the study conducted by Tachibana, Matsukawa and Zhong (1996) indicated different results. The study is actually a cross-cultural comparison of attitudes and motivations of Japanese and Chinese high school students. The study showed that; majority of the participants were interested in learning English to be able to be successful with the entrance exam and to get high scores on tests. On the other hand, minority of the students were found to be interested in learning English to have foreign friends or to be able to understand the authentic texts. The results may indicate that the students in Asian culture have extrinsic type of motivation. Also, they are interested in learning a foreign language to gain respect or to have well education rather than being interested in it for communication or real life purposes. On the other hand, although the overall findings indicated an agreement on the purpose of learning English, there is difference among sex among the Japanese students. The number of female participants was higher with the answers that indicated an intrinsic type of motivation.

Motivations, attitudes and orientations of deaf or hard-of-hearing students

When it comes to deaf or hard-of-hearing students' motivations and attitudes, there is only a handful of research. Zysk (-) conducted a beliefs study with 90 DHH students in high school. The study revealed that majority of the participants believed that special abilities are essential to learn a language. Also the study shows that, sadly, they do not believe that they a special ability for language learning. The beliefs about the future benefits of learning a foreign language are corresponding with the previous studies. The results indicated that DHH students also agreed that knowing a foreign language will be advantageous when finding better jobs and it is necessary to be able to be better educated. The study also reflects participants' opinion on the language, only minority of the participants admitted that they find English hard; however forty percent of them believed that they lack the talent for learning a foreign language. This may indicate a low self esteem among DHH high school students.

Another study conducted with the deaf or hard-of-hearing students aims to investigate the motivation to learn a foreign language. Moravkova (2011) studied with nineteen secondary school students. The participants were aged between sixteen and twenty-three. The questions were investigating the motivation for language learning and attitude towards English, as well as the role of English in real life. The results indicated that majority of the students were aware of the importance of learning a foreign language. In addition, most of the participants believed that they will be using English in the future. The answers for the role of English in real life showed that, participants were interested in using English for travelling, to be able to communicate with foreigners and to be able to use internet more effectively.

There are a great number of motivation and beliefs studies, however, there are very limited amount of studies for deaf or hard-of-hearing learners. Also, the studies that are done with DHH pupils seem to have English learning participants. Therefore, not only there is a lack of studies for the beliefs of DHH learners to be able to have a meaningful conclusion on the subject, but also there is almost no study that gives insights on the attitudes and motivation of deaf or hard-of-hearing students that have never took an English lesson. Current study aims to find answers for the following questions:

1. Do deaf or hard-of-hearing students have motivation to learn English as a foreign language?

2. Do deaf or hard-of-hearing students have positive or negative attitudes towards learning English?

3. What kind of orientation are they interested in?

4. Does gender have a significant effect on self-esteem and attitude?

2. Method

2.1 Participants and settings

The study originally included ninety-one students, with the omissions of inappropriate papers, the final number was 85. The participants aged between 14 and 19. The mean of the age was around 16. The number of females was 33 while the number of males was 52. The participants were students in a vocational high school for deaf students. All the participants were studying in the same school and living in the same city (Istanbul). The participants had no English learning experience. They were using the Turkish Sign Language mostly.

2.2 Instruments

The *Scale of Motivation in English Language Learning* (Mehdiyev, Usta and Uğurlu, 2017) was used in the study. The scale has 16 questions that measured three factors: self-confidence, attitude and orientation. However, because most of the studies are conducted with the students that has English learning experience, this scale is also measures the motivation of learners that has English learning experience. The participants of the current study, however, have no English learning background. Therefore, the first nine statements are changed in order to be hypothetical. The first question originally was *It is harder for me to learn English compared to others.* It changed into, *It would be harder for me to learn English compared to others.* The second question was *Unfortunately, I do not think that I am good at learning English.* This question was changed to be, *I think I will not be good at learning English.* The word "unfortunately" was omitted due to its complexity for the deaf students. Third question was, *I feel timid while learning English.* It is changed into *I would feel timid while learning English.* The forth question was *I am afraid to be ridiculous while learning English.* It is changed into *I would be afraid of being ridiculous while learning English.* The fifth and sixth questions were *I like learning English* and *I hate learning English.* They were changed into *I would love to learn English* and *I would hate to learn English.* The seventh and eighth questions were *It is boring for me to learn English* and *I makes me happy to learn English.* They were changed into *Learning English would be boring for me* and *Learning English would make me happy.* Finally, the last changed question was *I want to benefit from every opportunity to learn English* and it was changed into *I would want to benefit from every opportunity to learn English.* The rest of the scale measured orientation, and the statements kept as they were. The reliability test was done with the factors using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the first factor was found to be 0.69, the reliability of the second factor was found to be 0,65 and the last factor's reliability was found to be 0.85. Although the first two items below 0,70; it can be said that there is moderate reliability (Hinton et al. 2014). The overall reliability of the study is measured to be 0.75, and considered reliable.

2.3 Procedure

First of all contact has been made with vocational high school for deaf students in Istanbul. Consent paper was given to the students due to the fact that majority of the students were minors (80%). After the consent was given, the pilot was conducted originally with thirty-three students, however due to the omission of randomly completed questionnaires and the

questionnaires with missing answers; the final number was twenty-six. The students aged between 14 and 19. The gender was perfectly homogenous with 13 male participants and 13 female participants. With the data collected, reliability analysis was done with the Cronbach's Alpha. For the first factor that measured *self confidence,* the reliability has found to be moderate level with the score of .53. For the second factor that measured *attitude*, the score for Cronbach's Alpha was found to be moderate level with .66. After a detailed investigation, it is found out that some students may have had problems with the negative worded items. The first two factors' scores seems rather low, however according to Hinton et al. (2014), scores between .5 and .7 can be accepted as moderately reliable. Also considering the small size of the pilot group, factors were decided to be kept in the questionnaire for the actual study. Finally, the last factor measured personal usage or *orientation* and its score was found to be .91. The Cronbach's Alpha score, done with all the factors together, was found to be .85. This score is consistent with the Mehdiyev, Usta and Uğurlu's (2017) original study of the scale, the overall Cronbach's Alpha score is .85 as well. Therefore, the study overall was found to be reliable enough to use in the actual study. While conducting the study, the questionnaire was given to the students from all grades (ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth). They were reminded about the negative worded items. The students had 15 to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Some of the students had lack of knowledge and adequate understanding in L1 as well, therefore Turkish Sign Language assistance was provided for those by their teachers.

2.4 Data Analysis

An existing scale was used in the study. No open-ended questions were added into the scale in order to achieve only quantitative analysis. Only quantitative analysis was chosen due to deaf or hard-of-hearing participants' limited L1 ability. While analyzing the results, SPSS 26 was used. After entering all the data, the descriptive was analyzed, outliers were examined, and frequencies were examined.

On the gender and age, the frequency analysis was made. There were six negative worded items; therefore they were dealt before the analysis. Normality test showed normality; therefore independent t-test was made. With the t-test, the relationship between the gender and the self-confidence, attitudes and orientation was aimed to be found out.

3. Results

The Scale of Motivation in English Learning was used in this study. The first four questions measures self-confidence. This factor indicates answers for the first research question. The

answers of the first and the second question reveals that majority of the students that answered either *agree* or *disagree* (41,6%) think that it would be harder for them to learn English compared to others, however, the amount of agreements and disagreements are equal with the second question. The third and the fourth questions' answers reveal that there is no significant superiority between the agreements and disagreements.

3.1 Frequency test on motivation, attitudes, and orientation

Table 1

No	Statement	Disagree	Agree
01.	It would be harder for me to learn English compared to others.	27	37
02.	I think I won't be good at learning English.	36	35
03.	I would feel timid while learning English.	37	37
04.	I would be afraid of being ridiculous while learning English.	40	38

*The *undecided* option was not included. 'Disagree' includes *strongly disagree* and *disagree,* while 'Agree' includes *agree* and *strongly agree.*

The second factor measures attitudes towards English learning. The second factor is related with the second research question, and it aims to understand the attitude of deaf or hard-of-hearing students' attitudes towards English learning. The factor includes the items no 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9. The analysis reveals that the deaf or hard-of-hearing students have positive attitudes towards English learning. Majority of the students agrees on that they would be happy to learn English, or they would take any chance to learn it.

Table 2

No	Statement	Disagree	Agree
05.	I would love to learn English	15	59
06.	I would hate to learn English.	24	47
07.	Learning English would be boring for me.	24	40
08.	Learning English would make me happy.	7	72
09.	I would want to benefit from every opportunity to learn English.	10	58

* Because items 6 and 7are negative worded and the negative worded items were dealt, the percentage actually indicates positive attitude.

The last factor investigates the opinions of participants on the real-life usage of English. This factor aims to find answer for the third research question. There are seven items in the factor.

There are items about the communicative use of language as well as personal gain and self-improvement. The answers indicate that the mostly agreed statements are about communication. The items no 11, 13 and 14 got over 70% of the participants' agreement. However, the least agreed items were the item no 10, and the item measures the interest using English for knowing what is going on throughout the world. The other items got over 60% of agreement with the items about earning respect, to be able to watch authentic broadcasts and etc.

Table 3

No	Statement	Disagree	Agree
10.	I want to learn English to be up to date.	20	48
11.	I want to learn English to be able to travel foreign countries.	7	67
12.	I want to learn English to be able to watch foreign broadcasts.	20	56
13.	I want to learn English to be able to communicate the tourists in my country.	9	64
14.	I want to learn English because it is a part of my self-development.	7	66
15.	I want to learn English because I find it universal.	13	58
16.	I want to learn English because it will help me earning respect.	13	59

3.2 Independent t-test

Gender and Self-esteem t-test

Independent t-test analysis was conducted to answer the fourth research question: whether the gender has any effect on the motivation and attitude. Table 4 shows results of the t-test with gender and the first factor, self-confidence. The two-tailed significance has found to be 0.25 meaning smaller than 0.50. The results indicate a significant difference between females and males' confidence. Mean has found to be higher with the male participants.

Table 4.1

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
F1_M	Female	33	2,7803	1,08390	,18868
	Male	52	3,2692	,87145	,12085

Table 4.2

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
F1_M	Equal variances assumed	2,289	,134	-2,291	83	,025	-,48893	,21343	-,91342	-,06443
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,182	57,561	,033	-,48893	,22407	-,93752	-,04034

p<0.50

Gender and Attitudes t-test

The two-tailed significance has found to be 0.68. This result shows that there is no significant difference among genders with the attitudes.

Table 5.1

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
F2_M	Female	33	3,6242	,68512	,11926
	Male	52	3,7154	,83675	,11604

Table 5.2

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
F2_M	Equal variances assumed	,871	,354	-,524	83	,602	-,09114	,17400	-,43721	,25493
	Equal variances not assumed			-,548	77,617	,585	-,09114	,16640	-,42244	,24016

p<0.50

Gender and Orientation t-test

The two-tailed significance has found to be 0.22. Because 0.22<0.50 the results indicate a significant difference among the genders with the preferred orientation. The mean of the male participants is slightly higher.

Table 6.1

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
F3_M	Female	33	3,7013	,76878	,13383
	Male	52	3,9258	,85924	,11915

Table 6.2

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
F3_M	Equal variances assumed	,373	,543	-1,222	83	,225	-,22453	,18373	-,58996	,14091
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,253	73,761	,214	-,22453	,17919	-,58158	,13253

p<0.50

Although the t-test results of the third factor indicate a significant difference, it does not specify the items that differ. Therefore, a frequency analysis is conducted with each gender separately to find out exactly how the genders differ from each other. The result of this frequency test is in correlation with the previous one. In the previous analysis, the items that were agreed most were found to be the items no 11, 13 and 14. The results are the same with the both genders. However, the difference is found out to be the percentage of the agreement. Male participants agreed with a higher percentage than the female participants.

Table 7 *Frequency test of male participants*

No	Statement	Agree	Percentage
10.	I want to learn English to be up to date.	31	59,6%
11.	I want to learn English to be able to travel foreign countries.	41	78,8%
12.	I want to learn English to be able to watch foreign broadcasts.	34	65,4%

13.	I want to learn English to be able to communicate the tourists in my country.	39	75%
14.	I want to learn English because it is a part of my self-development.	42	80,8%
15.	I want to learn English because I find it universal.	38	73%
16.	I want to learn English because it will help me earning respect.	40	77%

Table 8 *Frequency test of female participants*

No	Statement	Agree	Percentage
10.	I want to learn English to be up to date.	17	51,5%
11.	I want to learn English to be able to travel foreign countries.	26	78,8%
12.	I want to learn English to be able to watch foreign broadcasts.	21	66,7%
13.	I want to learn English to be able to communicate the tourists in my country.	25	75,8%
14.	I want to learn English because it is a part of my self-development.	24	72,7%
15.	I want to learn English because I find it universal.	20	60,2%
16.	I want to learn English because it will help me earning respect.	19	57,6%

4. Discussion

Frequency analysis on the self-esteem indicates that deaf or hard-of-hearing students have negative beliefs about their abilities. Majority of the participants think that they will have more difficulties while learning a foreign language. The numbers for ‘agree’ and ‘disagree’ seems to be even, indicating a possible confusion among the participants. These results are in conflict with the Domagala-Zysk’s (2015) findings. Her study revealed that on a minority of the participants thought that learning English is hard. And majority of them agreed on that they were capable of learning English and ready for the lessons. Although her study also seems to have similar context (with the DHH high school participants), the results are conflicting. This may be because of the bilingual nature of Canada, where the participants live. Also, the

participants in Domaga-Zysk's (2015) study were already having English lessons, therefore they actually experienced learning English and probably have more certain opinions about learning English. However, deaf or hard-of-hearing participants in the current study seem to have positive attitudes towards learning English, as the frequency analysis shows. This result corresponds to previous studies. It can be interpreted that because the participants have never had an English learning experience, they were confused with the self-esteem questions; on the other hand, they seem to be willing for the experience. Frequency analysis on the orientation reveals interests for the communication and travelling purposes mostly. These results are corresponds to Kruidenier and Clement's (1986) and Moskovsky and Alrabai's (2009) studies. Their study also revealed that English learners were interested in using the language while travelling and having friends alongside the other purposes.

The frequency analyses provides answers for the first three research questions: "Do deaf or hard-of-hearing students have self-esteem for learning English as a foreign language?", "Do deaf or hard-of-hearing students have positive or negative attitudes towards learning English?", and "What kind of orientation are they interested in?". The answer for the first question is, they seem to not have self-esteem. The results may indicate that DHH students consider themselves as disadvantaged. However, the results show positive attitudes towards English learning. Therefore, the second question can be answered as, Deaf or hard-of-hearing students have positive attitudes. For the third question, it can be said that, they are actually interested in all types of orientation. However, travelling, communicating and self-improvement seems to be more interested in among the participants.

To be able to answer the last question, "Does gender have a significant effect on self-esteem and attitude?" an independent t-test was conducted. With the first factor, self-esteem, a significant difference was found out among the males and females. The analysis indicates that male participants had more self-esteem. These results are in conflict with the MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan's (2002) study. They found out that the self-esteem increased among the females as the anxiety level decreased. Also the references they provide indicated a similar point. The conflict may be due to the difference of provided education between male and female students in Turkey. The number of high schools for deaf are very limited and they are almost outside the city. The uneven number of male and female students may support this interpretation. However, no significant difference among the genders was found for the attitudes towards English learning.

5. Conclusion

The current study was conducted to have insight on the self-esteem, motivation, attitudes and orientations of deaf or hard-of-hearing high school students. Their self-esteem was found to be low. However, the attitude towards English learning was found to be positive. The effect of gender on the self-esteem and attitude also aimed to be found. The results revealed that there was a significant difference among the male and female participants with the self-esteem while there was not a significant difference with the attitudes of male and female participants. Finally, the types of orientation that participants were interested in was investigated, and found out to be in correspondence with the previous studies, as they revealed high interest in travelling and communication. The current study was conducted with the participants only from one school, and with limited participants. Also the participants were all living in the same city. Therefore, the limitations are the lack of diversity and more preferable number of participants to have more balanced results. The results revealed in the study provide understanding of the Turkish DHH students' opinions for learning English. Also the answers gathered from the orientation factor may help designing specific lesson plans and curriculums for DHH students. One thing seems to be left out, is the relationship between the attitudes, motivation and beliefs and the period of hearing impairing started in the field of applied linguistics. Such study can provide indebt understandings on DHH students, and can be helpful with the specialized learning program. Current study provided understandings for the motivation and attitudes of deaf or hard-of-hearing students. Also it shed light on a matter that had limited research done on, the interest of orientation among the DHH students. The inclusiveness of the deaf in the foreign language learning keeps gaining importance. With the notion, in a globalized world, no individual should be left out.

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Appendix.1

The Scale of Motivation in English Language Learning

Lütfen aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size uyanın önündeki yuvarlağı işaretleyiniz. Yaşınızı ise, boş yuvarlağın yanına yazınız.

Cinsiyet	**Yaş:**
o Kız o Erkek	o

Aşağıdaki ifadeler sizin düşünceleriniz ile uyumlu mu? Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri, ne derece katıldığınıza göre işaretleyiniz.

		Hiç katılmıyorum	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Katılıyorum**	**Tamamen katılıyorum**
1	Diğerlerine göre İngilizce öğrenmek benim için daha zor olurdu.					
2	İngilizce öğrenmek konusunda iyi olmayacağımı düşünüyorum.					
3	İngilizce öğrenirken kendimi cesaretsiz hissederdim.					
4	İngilizce öğrenirken gülünç olmaktan korkardım.					
5	İngilizce öğrenmeyi severdim.					
6	İngilizce öğrenmekten nefret ederdim.					
7	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için can sıkıcı olurdu.					
8	İngilizce öğrenmek beni mutlu ederdi.					
9	İngilizce öğrenmek için her fırsatı değerlendirmek isterdim.					
10	İngilizce öğrenmeyi dünya gündemini takip etmek için istiyorum.					
11	İngilizce öğrenmeyi farklı ülkelere seyahat edebilmek için istiyorum.					
12	İngilizce öğrenmeyi yabancı yayınları izleyebilmek için istiyorum.					
13	İngilizce öğrenmeyi ülkemdeki turistlerle konuşabilmek için istiyorum.					
14	İngilizce öğrenmeyi kişisel gelişimimin bir parçası olduğu için istiyorum.					
15	İngilizce öğrenmeyi, İngilizceyi evrensel bulduğum için istiyorum.					
16	İngilizce öğrenmeyi bana saygınlık kazandıracağı için istiyorum.					

Appendix.2

Reliability of the first factor (self-esteem)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,696	,696	4

Reliability ıf the second factor (attitudes)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,657	,666	5

Reliability of the third factor (orientation)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,851	,855	7

Reliability of the all the factors

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,751	,768	16

Correlation analysis and validity, Pearson's *r*

Correlations

		Gender	F1_M	F2_M	F3_M
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	,244*	,057	,133
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,025	,602	,225
	N	85	85	85	85
F1_M	Pearson Correlation	,244*	1	,421**	-,081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,025		,000	,463
	N	85	85	85	85
F2_M	Pearson Correlation	,057	,421**	1	,147
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,602	,000		,178
	N	85	85	85	85
F3_M	Pearson Correlation	,133	-,081	,147	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,225	,463	,178	
	N	85	85	85	85

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

Appendix.3

Scoring Criteria

		CRITERIA	COMMENT	POINTS
1	Title (1 pt)			
		Represents the whole text		
2	Abstract (6 pts) (1 pt each)			
		150-200 words		
		Summarizes the research problem		
		Justifies why it's worth studying		
		Basic info. about the methodology		
		Most important results and implications		
		Keywords (5-7)		
3	Introduction (7,5 pts) (1,5 pts each)			
		Presents topic/problem under study		
		Significance of research		
		Relevance of the research approach to the issue		
		Theoretical implications of the study are given		
		Provides (short/limited) background		
4	Literature Review (10 pts) (2,5 pts each)			
		Comprehensive overview of the previous studies		
		Provides specific theoretical background justifying the need for it		
		Cohesive and coherent (not in the form of summaries of each study cited)		
		Involves mostly recent studies though deriving from the most imp. works in the field		
5	Methods (9,5 pts) (1,5 pts each)			
		States which research method it uses		
	Participants	Clearly describes the participants		
	Instruments	Provides adequate info. about the instruments		
		Info. about reliability and validity		
	Procedures	Details about piloting		
		Info about the administration (time, place, …)		
	Data analysis	Explains the quan or qual analysis involved		
6	Results (20 pts) (4 pts each)			

		No discussions made in this section		
		Tables and parenthetical info. are APA		
		Uses appropriate statistical procedures		
		Reports statistical information appropriately		
		Answers research questions		
7	Discussions (20 pts) (5 pts each)			
		Makes correct interpretations		
		Refers to RQs		
		Make references to the previous studies		
		Highlights the theoretical consequences		
8	Conclusions (10 pts) (2 pts each)			
		Short summary without numbers and figures		
		Calls for further research		
		Discusses the limitations of the study		
		Explains the pedagogical implications		
		States the overall significance of the topic		
9	Manuscript and Language (10 pts) (2 pts each)			
		Uses APA headings		
		Accurate + Fluent		
		Reader friendly (linear)		
		Transitions are paid attention		
		Within word limits (6000-7000)		
10	References (6 pts) (2 pts each)			
		In-text citations (APA)		
		In-text citations are all in the reference list		
		Reference list (APA)		
			TOTAL	

The Other Face of the Iceberg: The Immıgrant Students in English Courses and Their Teachers

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Abstract

The present qualitative study aimed to provide some insights from common problems language teachers face while working with immigrant children and gathered them under a single roof. This research adopted a Grounded Theory design. The data were collected from 6 female English language teachers working at different types of state schools by using semi-structured in-depth interviews. Interviews are transcribed one by one and thus categories emerged. The results showed that problems experienced at each level are different. Teachers need various strategies to be able to cope with these problems. Based on the data and the findings of the study, a number of recommendations were provided by the researchers and the participating teachers. It is assumed that the participating teachers' experiences explored and discussed in this paper will provide baseline information for those teachers who have newly encountered the phenomenon in their teaching contexts.

Introduction

The number of migrants and refugees living in Turkey now stands at 4 million, more than 90% of whom are Syrian and have come to Turkey as a result of the continuing war in Syria. 3.6 million Syrians, along with other migrants of various nationalities seeking asylum, humanitarian protection or refugee status, have registered for temporary protection in Turkey (UNHCR Türkiye). Children and adolescents living in war zones are often portrayed as a lost, violent and vindictive generation (Qouta et al., 2008). Staying in such a situation naturally affects people of all age groups, but children are more sensitive than adults to make sense of this situation.

> "In the past, wars were fought between soldiers on the battlefield. But today, more than ever before, cities, villages, and towns are the battlefields, and it is children who get caught in the crossfire. Falling witness or victim to acts of war and terrorism stirs an array of powerful human emotions." (Joshi & O'donnell, 2003)

Having to immigrate to another country and the primary reason for migration is generally the war, one threatening reality in the world, has very negative effects on the children. And it takes quite a while to overcome them. Immigrant children see a lot of things that should not be seen in childhood, and they are experiencing a lot of things that should not be experienced as a child. The negative effects of this situation cause the children to experience adaptation problems in all areas of life. Of course, education is one of the areas that get its share.

Literature Review

Considering its geographical location, history and cultural background, Turkey is seen as a good place to start a new life for many people suffering from traumatic events. According to TÜİK's report published in 2018, there has been a flow of immigrants especially from Eastern countries, such as Iraq, Afghanistan, Syria, Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan and so on. As can be seen, the top three countries are the ones dealing with war. Among these people, children are the most vulnerable group that needs immediate care both mentally and physically. Once refugees have met their basic need for food, water and shelter, their primary concern is to ensure that their children can attend school (Tösten et al., 2017).

When we look at recent history, during the outbreak of Syrian civil war in 2011, refugees were provided with shelters along with temporary education centers. However, as time went by, most of them moved from tent camps and started to live in city centers. As stated in the circular about

the PIKTES (Project on Promoting Integration of Syrian Kids into The Turkish Education System) published by the National Ministry of Education (2019) refugee children were given a right to choose between temporary education centers, public schools and private schools. As stated by Lustig et al. (2004) these children distress over rapid cultural changes besides a new language. The language and culture are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture (Saniei, 2012).

As a result of the process of adapting to a new culture and learning a new language, the process of acculturation usually takes place and it is followed by assimilation. However, in today's world, immigrants prefer to keep their language and culture while adapting. This results in biculturalism (Birman & Addae, 2015). Therefore, not knowing the language of the host country leads these children to be isolated from their classmates and feel lost in a different culture. No matter how similar their cultures are to the host country, being illiterate sets a big barrier before immigrants. doesn't help them with adapting to a new culture.

This brings us to the point where teachers observe misbehaviors in these kids towards their peers. It is important to keep in mind that these kids are most in need for psychological aid. Additionally, as Lustig (2004) states that when this need is not met, it causes bigger problems like violence in public or at schools. Thus, teachers have to cope with these issues and help them integrate into society. Schools play a very important role in integration of these students because it is their first step in the acculturation process. They try to live in harmony with others and adapt to a new culture while handling the biases held by the society. It is nothing new to see migrants to be excluded in the host country. It takes time for both parties to learn to live together and break down their prejudices. This kind of inclusive approach creates a sense of belonging in children and affects their academic success positively as well (Oikonomidoy, 2010).

Methodology

This study adopted Qualitative research design and is based on the Grounded Theory by Green et al. (2007). The Grounded Theory is based on grouping the views of participants according to the frequency of certain items under similar categories. It aims to establish a theory in regard to field evidence. This seeks to offer suggestions and a conceptual explanation to the lacking parts that the participants add to the investigated phenomenon. Therefore, in the study we tried to investigate problems encountered in the language classrooms which include immigrant children.

Participants and context

6 female Turkish teachers of English volunteered to participate in this study. They have been working at state schools in the city center Isparta. The participants represented each level of instruction, that is, 2 teachers from primary school, 2 teachers from middle schools and 2 teachers from high school. Teachers were named as T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, and T6. T1 and T2 are primary school teachers, T3 and T4 are middle school teachers and T5 and T6 are high school teachers. They have teaching experience at state school for a minimum of 8 years to 33 years. Teachers stated that they have been working with immigrants mostly for 5 years.

Instruments

Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. Structured interviews follow a list of questions predetermined and standardized. The questions are always asked in the same order and in almost the same way. Unstructured forms of interviewing such as oral histories are at the other end of the continuum. In these interviews, the conversation is generally guided by the informant rather than by the questions placed. Semi-structured interviews are in the middle of this continuum. This form of interviewing has a certain degree of predetermined order but still ensures flexibility in the way the informant addresses issues (Longhurst, 2003). We tried to obtain a better understanding of the encountered problems by getting in touch with English language teachers who have been witnessing the situation from the first hand.

The study primarily aimed at finding out the strategies employed by the participating teachers which have proved to work. More specifically, the study was conducted to obtain answers for the following questions.

Interview Questions

1. Please indicate the university you graduated from, the year of graduation and your teaching experience.
2. Have you ever worked with foreigners before? What kinds of problems have you had so far?
3. What are the major problems you encounter on an everyday basis?
4. What strategies have you been applying to deal with these problems?
5. Based on your experiences, could you give some example cases you encountered most?

6. What do you think about the current program? Could you please assess immersion programs, which are newly introduced by the National Ministry of Education, with their strengths and weaknesses?
7. What are your thoughts on ICC (Intercultural Communicative Competence)?
8. Do you define yourself as an open person to different cultures? If your answer is yes, how does this feature of you contribute to your classes with foreign students?
9. What could be done to improve the current situation? Do you have any solutions and recommendations?

Data Collection Procedure

Interviews were arranged by one of the researchers and took place in participants' schools. The answers were audiotaped with the consent of the contributors and transcribed. The interviews were conducted in Turkish so as to maximize the strength of expression. According to Krashen's Theory of Affective Filter as cited in Schütz (2007), speakers have the tendency to filter their emotions and real thoughts while using a foreign language. That's why researchers preferred to use participants' native language and made sure there is no loss of meaning in translations. After transcription the interview documents were translated from Turkish into English by the researchers. Interviews approximately lasted 25-30 minutes.

Data Analysis

Semi-structured interviews enable participants to answer the questions more flexibly and thus they can express themselves better. As the interviews were semi-structured type, the researchers used a cross-interview analysis technique to analyze the data gathered from the interviews. The methodology for the cross-interview analysis involves grouping the responses to the same or common subject from different people. The researcher read each interview several times and summarized the responses. Then, three main categories, which are communication problems (CP), cultural incompatibility (CI) and curriculum & parent pressure (CPP), were created. Two related subcategories also emerged since the researchers wanted to shed light upon some specific areas. They've been named as "not knowing Turkish & being illiterate, biases". In order to see different aspects related to the subcategories, interview transcripts were re-read, and each detail was taken into consideration. The analyzed data were presented under categories and with appropriate quotations from the participants.

Results & Discussion

As revealed in Table 1, the number of Syrian children residing in Turkey is quite high. The total number of Syrian children involved in education is 1.179.264. This is a number that we cannot ignore. In our study, we wanted to examine the problems encountered in the field of education from the perspective of English language teachers.

Table 1. Actual Number of Syrian Refugees Residing in Turkey- April 2020

AGE RANGE	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
0-4	255.124	245.826	500.950
5-9	281.565	258.567	540.132
10-14	202.000	181.901	383.901
15-18	139.234	115.997	255.231
19-24	283.233	210.264	493.497
25-29	199.553	145.39	344.592
30-34	158.444	115.730	274.174
35-39	117.576	95.435	213.11
40-44	83.880	74.210	158.90
45-49	59.36	56.692	115.728
50-54	49.112	48.313	97.425
55-59	37.500	37.521	75021
60-64	28.303	29.002	57.305
65-69	20.072	20.522	40.594
70-74	7.690	8.629	16.319
75+	7.665	9.949	17.614
TOTAL	1.929.987	1.653.597	3.583.584

As you would appreciate, it is difficult to try to teach a foreign language to a child who cannot speak the same mother tongue as you. Based on the data analysis it can be said that a number of problems were frequently voiced by the participating English language teachers. The researchers have compiled these problems under 3 main headings:

1. Communication Problems and Behavioral Problems
    a. Not Knowing Turkish and Being Illiterate
2. Cultural incompatibility
    a. Biases
3. Curriculum and Parent Pressure

It is worth bearing in mind that if ignored communication problems in classrooms may cause problems. It is very important to notice them on time and take the necessary measures. Since communication is a basic need in human life, it is very important for the child to understand the environment in which he lives and to be able to communicate with those around him. As can be seen in Table 1, the number of immigrant children who are at the stage of adolescence is high. According to Erikson's Psychosocial Development Theory, adolescence is the most important stage in one's development since it is the period when the identification process begins. The disruption in this stage badly affects people's future communication (Rosenthal et al., 1981). Failing to do so causes the child to show behavioral problems. The child becomes aggressive, disrupts the order of the class and disturbs his friends. Parents who are refugees in Turkey have achieved an impressive task: they have escaped war, persecution, and maybe death in order to bring their children to a safe place (Dumbrill, 2009). Refugee parents, who have problems with adapting to the new country in which they started to live, neglect to take care of their children adequately. As cited in McLeod (2007), Maslow said that people are motivated to meet certain needs. When one need is met, a person aims to fulfill another one. It is said that the deficiency, or basic needs, motivates people when they are not met. Also, the longer they are denied, the need to meet those needs will become stronger. Until moving toward satisfying higher-level growth needs, one must satisfy lower-level needs. If these needs have been fairly fulfilled, one will be able to reach the highest level, called self-actualization. As the family has difficulty in meeting these basic needs, they cannot move to the upper levels. This is one of the factors that cause children to try to cope with their communication problems and behavioral problems alone and they generally fail to do it. The trauma caused by civil war or migration and financial inadequacies can also lead to communicative and behavioral problems.

Statements from interviewee teachers about communication problems and behavioral problems:

T1: *There is really a big behavioral disorder, so as I said, refugee students have a war-based background. They run away; they fear from each other. Some of them talk about the groups*

they were afraid of while fleeing, and they constantly hear this kind of conversation from their family. Of course, the child reflects this. He thinks he can protect himself by fighting. Therefore, instead of talking or complaining to the teacher when the problem arises, he directly pinches, pushes and spits at his friend. These were the biggest problems that other classroom teachers and I observed during our classes.

T2: *We have problems in terms of communication. Students have difficulty in understanding the instructions. The biggest problem is that students have adaptation problems during the lesson. Even if you work in English you generally have to give the instructions in Turkish. They cannot understand Turkish either. If there is not a student in the classroom who understands the instruction and translates it to his friends, the problem increases substantially. Our biggest problem is that we cannot get along, we cannot find the common point. We have behavioral problems. Student disturbs his friend. He pulls her hair. He begins to shout or tries to interfere with the class. He says, "I want to go out." As they are coming from a war environment, they try to protect themselves by beating their friends. They perpetrate violence to their friends. This is the biggest problem encountered in our schools. Psychological problem.*

T3: Even though I have problems while teaching English in terms of communication from time to time, I cannot say that I experienced any specific problems with foreign students. Problems related to material deficiencies or deprivation of parents' interest may arouse trouble.

T5: *We have parents who do not have the money to buy cheese to their home and who cannot buy cheese even though their child wants cheese. We go to the home meetings, I put aside the financial difficulties, I think that a study should be done about what women experience in this process socially.*

Cultural incompatibility is another issue that needs to be considered. The child's inability to recognize the culture of the society in which he started living and to adapt to it makes him feel like he does not belong there. Not understanding the jokes and not making sense of cultural discourses make the child feel bad. We can say that this situation prepares a base for the child to show behavioral problems.

Individuals from various communities or states have specific goals, beliefs and desires influenced by their cultural factors. Indeed, in intercultural friendships, individuals feel less threatened to share a common culture, language, religion, values and institutions. Therefore, cultural incompatibility will grow from fear and indifference to the actions of others and from the prejudice and discrimination (Craig, 2016). Even though immigrants' efforts to survive in

a country that has a different culture from their own culture is the first step to alleviate cultural incompatibility, it is not entirely sufficient. It is quite normal to experience a painful process during the habituation phase.

Statements from interviewee teachers about cultural incompatibility:

T1: *Incompatibility to class's culture, school's culture and the environment's culture, which is surrounding the child, was a huge problem for us. The students go through a trauma of course. Even if some of them have not seen the war, the traumas that their family experience pass on to the child. They also come to a new country. They meet new people. They interiorize some of them. Being adopted by the teacher or not being adopted by the teacher, all of these create a trauma on children. And at the beginning they develop a negative attitude towards the class and towards the school. Keeping their motivation alive is more difficult compared to normal students.*

T3: *Problems that I encounter on the basis of foreign students I can list them as follows;*

- *Low level of education of parents,*
- *Family's neglection*
- *Lack of material goods due to lack of financial means and budgetary concerns*
- *The student does not know Turkish or is illiterate.*
- *Cultural differences*

Foreign students come to Turkey without knowing Turkish of course. And as they are Arabic in origin their alphabet is totally different from Latin alphabet. Even if they can read and write in their own language they come across to a completely different situation. When they migrate to Turkey and start to school with their peers they are like illiterate people. Even if they are 11 or 12 years old, they need to take their classes with children who are 6 or 7 in order to learn reading and writing in Turkish. Numerical system in their own alphabet is totally different as well. Foreign students need to learn these concepts first.

Statements from interviewee teachers about Not Knowing Turkish and Being Illiterate:

T4: *They are trying to adapt but I guess their need is a more basic Turkish education. If we take them directly to a normal class, they can be confused.*

As Einstein said, "Breaking biases is more difficult than breaking down an atom." The prejudices we have developed as a normal human behavior can generally make us think in a

negative way. It is totally normal to have prejudices but letting them control our behaviors may cause adverse effects. Students' biases towards one another make them think and behave negatively. They carelessly use offending words towards each other as they cannot truly control their biases, but their biases control them.

Statements from interviewee teachers about Biases:

T2: *Unfortunately, we have a prejudice. We don't have it in our school, but we hear from our colleagues. Some parents say 'I do not want my child to sit with a Syrian child. 'or' I do not want my child to be friends with a Syrian child.' Breaking this bias is very hard. Sometimes even the teachers have some biases. They ask, 'Why are there so many foreign students?' The teacher says that 'I taught to my students how to read and write (Neither strangers nor Turkish are distinguished anyway.) Today a new student came to my class and he is illiterate. What am I going to do now?' Now in each class there are newcomers, who started education at the middle of the semester. These are big problems. You cannot ignore them or put them behind the class and not care about them. What will the child do there? He will get bored and start to disrupt the class order.*

In some families, especially at the houses of Somalian immigrants, we see that anything spoken in the house reflects to the child directly. Some of the immigrants may have biases as well. They have a thought like Turkey is helping us, but it has its own benefits from this situation. We try to explain the true point of view to the child as far as possible. We say this is a wrong statement and a wrong thought. As far as I understood channels that they watch at home or journals and printed media that they follow trigger their biases.

T5: *As you know breaking the bias is harder than breaking the atom. It does not happen immediately, but I think we will achieve it gradually. Our students are very nationalistic. As there are a lot of foreign students coming from Iraq, Iran, Somalia, Syria, Afghanistan, Libya, Egypt and so on. Turkish students become surprised. They ask "Is Turkey the only place that they can live? Why are these people here?" They definitely have biases, but I try to explain to them that women and children do not have another choice, I tell them how bad the war environment is and sometimes to convince them I ask foreign students to talk about their country's situation.*

Even while working with students who share the same language and same culture as you, curriculum and parent pressure cause malfunctions in the process. With the inclusion of foreign students in our education system, the curriculum, exam and family pressure affect the process

even more negatively. As foreign students do not know the language and the culture of this new country the teacher feels like dealing with the foreign students individually. However, the teacher has a curriculum to follow and the exam pressure causes parents to apply a pressure on the teacher. As a result, the teacher is not able to manage the process as he/she wishes.

Statements from interviewee teachers about Curriculum and Parent Pressure:

T4: *If we teach in a way that even disabled and foreign students can understand, everyone will benefit from it. If we do not have concerns about LGS (Transition to High School Exam), trial exams, curriculum and parent pressure, we would feel much more comfortable and we would have done a more correct education.*

Conclusion

Immigrants' children are psychologically traumatized, and they have not been able to overcome it yet. However, they try to survive in a completely new country and try to adapt to its people. While all they need is to restore their well-being, they face conflict with local people. This worsens the crisis in them. They are expected to attend school, adapt to the new educational system, which is totally different for them, and keep school's and teachers' expectations above their basic needs, whereas their living conditions have not reached to its normal standards yet. About this issue, Turkish Ministry of Education (MEB) initiated PIKTES Project, whose main aim is to promote access to education in Turkey for children under temporary protection and to support their social cohesion. It also aims to support MEB's efforts on education and social cohesion of children under temporary protection. It can be accepted as the first step towards solving this problem. As part of PIKTES, students are expected to stay in integration classes for a certain period of time and reach a level of proficiency in Turkish. In these classes students only have Turkish, sport and art classes. At the end of each semester, Turkish proficiency exams are held and students who are observed to be above a certain level get the right to pass to normal classes. In this respect, these classes, which can be considered as an example of immersion education, may be counted very useful.

Even though their culture shows similarities with the host country's, it is not easy to be part of the acculturation process. The biases that they encounter and they have do nothing but worsen the situation. Parents are the main reasons why immigrant students and peers of immigrant children have biases. They face these biases not only at school but also at mass media. Channels watched at their home and the newspapers read by their parents trigger the formation of hatred at immigrant children. These biases are double-sided as immigrant students are exposed to

bullying by their Turkish peers. This doesn't help them to fix the bad image of the host country since they have a perception that "We are in a bad condition, but Turkey is helping us for its own sake". When students are asked about the source of this idea, they had some expressions like "Turkey is receiving payment from the European Union for keeping us in their country". Since parents are the main reason for the biases that students have, holding family elucidating seminars can be a suitable and feasible solution. In these seminars, the difficult situations experienced by immigrants can be addressed by going through certain topics. Immigrants, who have witnessed the incident, may share their experiences. Indulgence and tolerance may be suggested. Teachers cannot do anything but suggest Turkish students to be tolerant and try to change the negative image that Turkey has in the minds of immigrant children because teachers are not supported enough, either. Parents also make their jobs harder and do not assist teachers to integrate students into the educational system. This problem can be solved by assigning each student a buddy who will help them with anything they need. Before this process, it would be better to educate students about intercultural communicative competence. In this way, students will be informed about what their peers will need and why this is necessary. How they will be paired is up to the teacher's preference. It can be a natural process where students find each other a partner. However, teachers selecting the pairs can be used in situations in which students are reluctant to get to know each other. In this way, it will ease teachers' burden and students will become friendly at once.

Socio-cultural integration often refers to learning of culture, behavioral adequacy and exchanges, psychological integration refers to coping with the new environment, social support, solidarity and overall all psychological well-being (Şeker & Sirkeci, 2015). Community's support is crucial in the soundness of the orientation process. Our solution for this problem is to have orientation programs for immigrant families. These programs can be conducted by municipalities or NGOs. In these programs, families will be provided with any kind of information they will need to survive. Germany has successful applications in this field. It has programs that aim to help immigrants with many issues, such as shopping, dealing with language problems and societal relations. They fasten the adaptation process of immigrants. A similar kind of orientation process may also be held at schools. A concept called "Turkish Hours" may be useful. It may be designed as "European Hours", which is popular in Europe. In the "European Hours" lessons using the vehicular language, the integration and harmonization of students from different nationalities is formally achieved. "European Hours" is an essential elementary school curriculum feature from grade 3. Kids from different language

backgrounds work together in groups of 20 to 25 students for three lessons a week. Students generally have a cognitively undemanding and attainable goal, like making puppets. This can be adjusted to Turkish context by making use of our own cultural elements. For example, students might spend their time learning folklore dances such as Atabarı, watching cartoons like Pepe etc. City trips may be organized during school hours to museums or historical places.

Psychological growth mediates the effect of war and persecution, relocation among immigrant and refugee youth, reliant on the decisions of adults and at the mercy of political chaos and unpredictable violence (Lustig et al., 2004). If the precautions are not taken on time, these children will waste their time, and this will affect their future and surroundings negatively.

Limitations and Further Studies

As we mentioned before, while conducting this research, there have been some changes in the area. Therefore, keeping up with the recent changes was the hardest part. Additionally, as we worked with very few participants in a small town in Turkey, the generalizability of the study cannot be considered high. Thus, a further study could be administered by using a larger sampling. Even though we tried to create a variety of participants, the ones at high school level were only from Imam Hatip High School because of convenience issues and reluctance of the teachers. As a last thing, we wanted to run a study based on Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), but the results of the interviews took us to a very different point. Thus, another further study on teachers' ICC can be conducted with language teachers working with immigrant children.

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