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"EMBRACING THE FUTURE: CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS"

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5th International Conference on Research in Applied Linguistics ICRAL 2021

Embracing the Future: Contemporary Issues in Applied Linguistics

PROCEEDINGS BOOK

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5th International Conference on Research in Applied Linguistics ICRAL 2021

FOREWORD

Once more we as the International Education Researchers Association-ULEAD are pleased to have organised the 5th International Conference on Research in Applied Linguistics- ULEAD ICRAL 2021, hosted by Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University held online on October 22-24, 2021. We usually convene ICRAL conferences face-to-face; however, due to the pandemic, we have organised the last two conferences online. Despite the pandemic conditions, I am happy that we have received several submissions from various academics and researchers across the world. The theme of our 5th conference is "Embracing the Future: Contemporary Issues in Applied Linguistics". The world is constantly changing, and every field of science takes its shares from this change. It is for sure that the traditional issues and approaches in the field of Applied Linguistics have paved the way to the contemporary ones. Thus, the contemporary research issues in the field of Applied Linguistics will guide the researchers, academics, practitioners and all the other stakeholders in this field to the future. Due to the significance of focusing on the contemporary issues to be able to embrace the future, we have chosen this as our conference theme in the 5th International Conference on Research in Applied Linguistics.

The ICRAL 2021 has received 95 papers on a wide variety of topics from different countries. Also, we have seven distinguished keynote speakers. Hereby, I would like to thank all our authors and keynote speakers in contributing to this conference. We are especially honoured to introduce our keynote speakers Prof. Dr. Kenan Dikilitaş, Prof. Dr. Turan Paker, Prof. Dr. Yasemin Kırkgöz, Prof. Dr. Bonny Norton, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Christina Gkonou, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Inna Pevneva and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Katalin Csizér Wein.

I would like to express my thanks to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sedat Akayoğlu and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anıl Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, for their endorsement and commitment to support this conference as the co-hosts of the 5th ICRAL. Also, I would like to thank all those who have been involved or contributed in any capacity, whether members of the organising and scientific committees, academic or administrative personnel, students, other supporters and helpers, and of course all the delegates who are participating.

I hope that everybody will find ample opportunity to expand their knowledge, exercise their minds and connect with colleagues during the conference. We are delighted that you are all able to attend this online conference, but I think we shall be even more delighted if we have the opportunity of welcoming you in person to Amasya where ICRAL 2022 will take place.

Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL

President of ULEAD

5th International Conference on Research in Applied Linguistics ICRAL 2021

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A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP OF WEB 2.0 TOOLS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

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Abstract

With online education, an increase has been observed in the use of Web 2.0 tools in teaching processes. This study investigates which learning strategies are used or at the forefront in the use of Web 2.0 tools, which have gained importance with the emergence of online education. For this research, the data obtained as a result of the assignment of a Web 2.0 tool that can be used in the field of foreign language to the 2nd year students of the English Language Teaching department at a state university and investigating its relationship with language learning strategies that were used. Students have created their homework based on questions such as "What does this tool do in foreign language education? How is this tool used? How can students make Web 2.0 tools more efficient by using language learning strategies?" 26 assignments with productive information were used in the research. Most of the Web 2.0 tools researched were selected from categories such as website, quiz application, brain mapping, vocabulary learning, and listening. In the data obtained as a result of the examination of the assignments, it has been revealed that direct strategies, which are among the language learning strategies that are divided into two as direct and indirect, are more prominent, but they are considerably important in indirect strategies that enable more students to be mentally ready for learning.

Keywords: Web 2.0 Tools, Language Learning Strategies, Language Teaching

INTRODUCTION

Technological developments and the constant change of the world or society have led to some changes in teaching and learning methods. In the past, tools such as books, pens and notebooks were sufficient in the learning process, but now many technological inventions such as tablets, phones, computers are lifesavers for learners. This exchange of tools has included a social network called the internet into our lives. Thanks to this social network, people can instantly access the information they want.

While these technological advances enable people to access information, it can be difficult for them to get used to it. They may not be able to keep up with this change. Web 2.0 tools are a web base that is influenced by these technological changes and serves the field of learning and teaching. Research on the emergence and development of Web 2.0 tools has a growing field. Therefore, it is not possible to explain it in detail. For this research, it is important to limit this area and only the tools that are made and applied on language learning. Web 2.0 tools are convenient and important to continue education remotely due to an epidemic. While these tools aimed to make learning and teaching processes fun before the pandemic, they have become a savior education tool for educators who had to continue teaching with a different type of education such as distance education. In addition to teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction is also important in learning and teaching processes. These tools, in turn, play a major role in enabling learner-centered and group interactive learning that instructors can barely provide even in face-to-face instruction.

Language learning is a highly prejudiced and difficult task for people of all ages. Many teaching centers have also undertaken this work and many trainings have been given on it. Language learning strategies also offer certain clues to break this prejudice. Throughout history, it is thought that the best language learners are those who think analytically, adopt rule-based learning, and learn by practicing natural language. As a result, many methods, techniques and principles have emerged, which are thought to have many benefits, such as the ability of learners to manage their own learning processes and improve their communicative skills. Although these methods are named as language learning skills, thinking skills and problem-solving skills, they are called language learning strategies because they facilitate language learning.

It is possible to make these language learning strategies more effective when using Web 2.0 tools, especially in tools aimed at language learning. Web 2.0 tools are web bases that interact with strategies as they make learning fun and easy as well as effective learning. In this research, it is aimed to make Web 2.0 tools effective by using language learning strategies and to facilitate language learning of teachers/students by using these tools.

In this research, which aims to make the Web 2.0 tools used in language learning effective into strategies, the abundance of Web 2.0 tools and matching them with one-to-one strategies have provided effective results compared to another research. In addition, the one-to-one relationship between the aims of Web 2.0 tools and language learning strategies encourages the need to explore the use of these tools in language learning.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a lot of information in the literature on the use of Web 2.0 tools and their effects on language learners. Since the advent of Web 2.0 tools, teaching and learning processes have become more efficient. Since technology is a tool that facilitates human life, it has also made

language learning effective. There are a number of strategies that make language learning effective, allowing students to self-awareness, self-confidence and control their own learning processes. If Web 2.0 tools facilitate the printed language learning process, language learning strategies also contribute to this process. In the literature, there are ideas about the contribution of web 2.0 tools to language learning or the contribution of language learning strategies to language learning. A great deal of previous research into Web 2.0 tools has focused on students' collaboration and autonomy in language learning. For example, Bofill (2013) published a study in which she suggested a learning theory that could improve language learning and that Web 2.0 tools would help students' collaboration, especially in the online process, thanks to this theory. Similarly, Conole & Alevizou (2010) in their literature study on the use of Web 2.0 tools in higher education emphasized the change in language learning theories and learning styles and discussed how Web 2.0 tools kept up with this change in this area. Numerous studies on language learning strategies have attempted to explain how these strategies can be used in the four basic language skills and based on this, on providing language learning with material support. Oxford (1990) first classified language learning strategies and then explained with examples in her study how these strategies should be applied. Language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools are a subject in their own right, and the studies on language learning so far are either only on language teaching methods or (especially Web 2.0 tools) on their use in online education. These two areas are actually factors that affect other areas. However, there is no assumption about the effects or similarities of these two factors that make language learning effective. In this study, which was carried out to close this gap in the literature, the contributions of these factors to language learning will be examined before their effects on each other. In this sense, this study is one of the first study in this area. In order to fill the gap in the literature, it is necessary to mention the studies that have influenced or been related to this study so far in both fields. Therefore, this literature review will be examined under three headings.

Web 2.0 Tools

Web 2.0 is a term coined by Tim O'Reilly. Since its use has become widespread, it is a tool that contributes to language learning and teaching processes. This tool, which helps to increase student participation and interaction with each other, is also related to the terms 'read and write web' and 'social web'. (Conole & Alevizou 2010) Web 2.0 tools enable students to carry the cooperation they provide in face-to-face education to the internet when distance or online education is applied for any necessity (such as pandemic) in the education system. Usluel & Mazman (2009) discussed Web 2.0 tools on the interaction of students in distance education and the use of these tools. They agree that the information that the era has changed can also be obtained from the internet. They think that Web 2.0 tools will also contribute to education in this age. Web 2.0 tools have a wider scope for information sharing compared to previous web types. It not only provides users with a pool of information, but also allows them to share any information in the digital medium. Conole and Alevizou (2010) assume that the functionality of Web 2.0 tools has changed over the past few years. These new functions can be examined under three main headings. The first of these is 'photo, video and document sharing' and channels such as Youtube serve this function. The second is 'mechanism for content production, communication and collaboration' and social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter have emerged from this function. Finally, it is 'opportunities to interact in new ways through immersive virtual worlds' and platforms such as Second life fall into this category. These new functions can be examined under three main headings. The first of these is 'photo, video and document sharing' and channels such as Youtube serve this function. The second is 'mechanism for content production, communication and collaboration' and social

media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter have emerged from this function. Finally, it is 'opportunities to interact in new ways through immersive virtual worlds' and platforms such as Second life fall into this category. Many Web 2.0 tools were web-based applications or websites that performed these functions in recent years. Crook (2008) defined these functions in a broader version under the heading Functions of the Web 2.0 tool in schools in previous years. In this definition, 'media sharing, media manipulation and data/web mash ups, instant messaging, chat and conversational etc.' It can be said that the functions of Web 2.0 tools are to ensure the motivation and focus of the student on the learning and teaching processes.

Table 1. Broad definition of these titles and classification of Web 2.0 tools used in this research according to these definitions. (Conole, G. & Alevizou, P. 2010)

Function	Definition	Web 2.0 Tools
Media sharing	Social media applications that allow users to create media files such as photos, videos and audios and then share them with others.	Google Drive Pinterest Penzu Teacherplanet
Media manipulation and data web mash ups	These types of applications, which have a function to design and edit digital media files and use web-accessible tools, also include applications with the feature of combining data from multiple sources to create a new application, tool or service.	Powtoon Coggle Padlet Pooplet Storyjumper
Instant messaging, chat and conversational arenas	It covers applications that allow them to talk over the Internet or with a group over the Internet.	Socrative Edmodo Zoom
Online games and virtual worlds	It includes applications that provide live interaction with other Internet users and create games with certain rules or certain themed environments.	Quizizz Kahoot Mentimeter
Social networking	It covers the types of applications that have an infrastructure where you can make friends and share with them and chat with them.	Facebook
Blogging	It includes internet-based applications where users can prepare daily or journal-style digital materials and write texts on the internet, as well as others who can comment on these written and prepared contents.	Kidblog
Recommender systems	Websites that group and label user preferences for items in specific areas and make new recommendations.	Pinterest Facebook
Wikis and collaborative editing tools	Applications that encompass web-based services that allow users to access unlimited page creation, editing and link building.	Bubble.us LearningApps
Syndication	Applications or websites where users can be automatically notified of any changes or updates in content through an aggregator and subscribe to RSS-enabled websites fed from blogs or podcasts.	Vo-screen Ted-ED
Social bookmarking	Applications or websites that send content such as text, images and videos that users see on websites to a	Diigo

	central site where they can store, tag and be found by other users for later use.	
Vocabulary or Dictionary *	A type of website and application where the meanings and functions of words are presented in a web-based application, especially in the field of foreign language.	Wordhippo Forvo
Grammar *	Online language applications that provide automatic checking of foreign language grammar, spelling rules and punctuation.	Grammarly

The functions of Web 2.0 tools, the definitions of functions and the functions of the tools used in this research are stated. The functions indicated with * in the table 1 were added because the remaining functions were insufficient in classifying the Web 2.0 tools used in this research. In particular, this classification of Web 2.0 tools related to the foreign language field is very valuable. These Web 2.0 tools provide us with education and training via the Internet. The usefulness of the tools used in this research will be explained in detail in the following sections. Finally, Web 2.0 tools are websites or applications used through the internet that are used to provide cooperation, that is, interaction, in education and training.

Language Learning Strategies

With the popularity of language learning, the search for easy ways has also emerged. These searches have led to the formation of either their own learning methods or the formation of certain principles that can appeal to everyone. These principles are called 'language learning strategies'. It is assumed that the emergence of language learning strategies began with Rebecca Oxford (1990)'s Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. This has resulted in a research trend on language learning strategies. Every learning process requires a way and a method to facilitate the achievement of the goal. In fact, this orientation emerged as a result of the questions asked about what to do and how. This is exactly how language learning strategies were born. Brown (1980) has made the most modest definition of language learning strategies, describing them as 'major methods established for processes that can directly contribute to language learning'. Then, Chamot (1987, cited in Hismanoğlu,2000) made a definition as processes, techniques, approaches, and actions that students take to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content areas of information. They tried to classify some strategies that emerged after all these definitions. Oxford (1990) in her book Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know includes the classification of these strategies, how to use them in the four basic language skills, and materials and activities that can be used when applying them to learning processes. He divided the strategies into six categories. These are: metacognitive strategies for organizing, focusing, and evaluating one's own learning; affective strategies for handling emotions or attributes; social strategies for cooperating with others in the learning process; cognitive strategies for linking new information into memory storage and for retrieving it when needed; and compensation strategies to overcome deficiencies and gaps in one's current language knowledge. Oxford (1990, p.9) also mentioned twelve characteristics of language learning strategies in the book.

Twelve features of Rebecca Oxford's language learning strategies:

▪ Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence;

▪ Allow learners to become more self-directed;

▪ Expand the role of the teachers;

▪ Are problem-oriented;

- Are specific actions taken by the learners;
- Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive;
- Support learning both directly and indirectly;
- Are not always observable; Are often conscious;
- Can be taught;
- Are flexible;
- Are influenced by a variety of factors.

The twelve features of language learning strategies listed by Oxford (1990) actually give clues about how a language learner should be. The feature that contributes to improving communication ability actually implies how speaking skill should be used. Therefore, in every technology used to improve speaking skills, language learning strategies are also used. Being teachable allows these strategies to be included and explained in lesson plans. Many such examples can be given. Researchers have classified many strategies that have these features under certain headings. Stern (1975) divided language learning strategies into eight main topics. These are planning, active, emphatic, formal, experimental, semantic, practice, communication and internalization strategies. He made a rough classification by making a general description of the strategies. Then, Naiman (1978) divided it into five main topics as active task approach, realization of language as a system, realization of language as a means of communication, management of affective demands and self-monitoring. He gave more importance to the functions of language learning strategies and presented them with descriptive titles. Rubin (1987) first divided it into two main headings as Direct and Indirect, and then stated these under three subheadings as learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies. It can be said that she laid the foundation of Oxford (1990)'s classification with this classification. Oxford (1990), on the other hand, would have found Rubin's classification of direct and indirect to make sense, as he first divided it into two main headings and then, unlike him, each of them was divided into three subheadings (direct; memory, cognitive, compensation and indirect; metacognitive, affective and indirect). social) examined. O'Malley & Chamot (1990), inspired by Oxford's subtitles, classified strategies under three main headings as cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies. The most detailed but simplest classification seems to be Oxford's classification. This classification was also taken as a basis in this study. As a result, language learning strategies are some clues that help students acquire certain characteristics. If teachers and students use these strategies at the right time and in the right place, they can achieve effective results.

Figure 1. Classification of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford,1990)

DIRECT STRATEGIES

Memory Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Compensation strategies
•Creating mental linkages •Applying images and sounds •Reviewing well •Employing action	•Practicing •Receiving and sending messages •Analyzing and reasoning •Creating structure for input and output	•Guessing intelligently •Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

Metacognitive Strategies	Affective Strategies	Social strategies
•Centering your learning •Arranging and planning your learning •Evaluating your learning	•Lowering your anxiety •Encouraging yourself •Taking your emotional temperature	•Asking questions •Cooperating with others •Emphatizing with others

The Relationship of Web 2.0 Tools and Language Learning Strategies

In the previous sections, what language learning strategies are, and the classifications made so far have been mentioned. In addition, the functions of Web 2.0 tools and the relationship of these functions with the tools in this study were also mentioned. In this section, research on the relationship between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools will be examined. Research on Web 2.0 tools has focused more on student collaboration in online learning and teaching. The important thing in these research is to use Web 2.0 tools to enable students to be more successful by collaborating. In the studies on language learning strategies, he talked about what needs to be done to increase cooperation in the period when messaging and games

in online learning have just started to become popular, rather than using Web 2.0 tools. For example, on the interest of the millennial generation in online games and messaging tools, Jones (2005) thinks that adults see this new world of online transactions such as messaging and video game as a way of escaping the lessons of students who are keen on online transactions. However, he states that it has an advantage and that it is an opportunity that cannot be offered either in education or in the home environment. There is also research on how this messaging and video games lead them to collaborative learning. It is thought that if this online environment can be adapted to language learning strategies, success in cooperative learning can be achieved. It can be thought that Jones (2005) forms the basis of research in the field of online learning. Similarly, Amir (2021) thought that the online environment changed the conditions of formal education and that students should use certain strategies because it causes them to take responsibility for their own learning. Amir's research emphasizes that certain strategies should be applied because online learning is beneficial in certain areas where it is used, but it will still cause some problems. He conducted a study investigating the ideas of online learners on this subject and observed the students' orientation to these strategies. It can be said that it is the first example of work done in the field of online learning.

There is also a study in the literature, which is a product of the idea that Web 2.0 tools can be used not only in online education but also in formal education. Shibab (2008) implemented a study in which the aim was to improve cooperation, this time using Web 2.0 tools in language classes. Unlike the other two studies, this study used the term Web 2.0 tools, not online education, and no connection was made with language learning strategies. Enabling collaborative learning using online learning and Web 2.0 tools has become so popular that this time as a case study, Exter, Rowe, Boyd & Lloyd (2012) discuss the use of Web 2.0 tools for collaborative learning in higher education at the University of Australia on the strengths and weaknesses of this technology. aspects have been explored. Then, Bofill (2013) tried to integrate the teaching theory of collaborative learning and constructivism into Web 2.0 technology. In this study, Bofill (2013) aimed to provide collaborative learning with a lesson plan based on Constructivism teaching theory using Web 2.0 tools. The topic of online learning and language learning strategies also attracted the attention of Solak & Cakir (2015), and they investigated how much e-learners in Turkey use language learning strategies and whether this has an effect on students' academic success. As a result of the research, a positive effect was seen and students used some strategies more or less. Khabbaz and Najjar (2015) conducted a study on the adaptation of technology use in language learning to distance education and the effect of language learning strategies on this situation. They thought that technology was increasing in English teaching, and they observed that this situation led to some changes in language learning strategies. This research is a review of adaptability to language learning strategies through a Web 2.0 tool, Moodle-oriented distance education. Peeters (2018) recently conducted a study on foreign language learning and its interaction with students, namely collaborative learning, by taking advantage of the power of online learning. The aim of this research is to use Web 2.0 tools to increase interaction in online education. They aimed to increase interaction among peers by using Facebook social network as a Web 2.0 tool.

Studies in the literature so far are on Web 2.0 tools to increase peer interaction and collaborative learning. Since the aim of this research is to establish a connection between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools, it is seen that collaborative learning in the literature is the link between them and is a source for this research. The research by Khabbaz and Najjar suggesting that a Web 2.0 tool causes some changes in language learning strategies serves as a guide for this research. However, the difference is to make the tools more effective

by using language learning strategies in Web 2.0 tools rather than these changes. It's not about changing language learning strategies. Therefore, this research is considered to be the first in the field of examining the relationship between Web 2.0 tools and language learning strategies.

In summary, the studies in the literature show that Web 2.0 tools, whether in online education or formal education, increase the factors in the characteristics of language learning strategies such as peer interaction, collaborative learning and fulfilling the student's own learning responsibility. In other words, Web 2.0 tools affect these factors positively. This section attempts to provide a summary of the studies available in the literature on the relationship between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools. Although there is no research in the literature about examining the relationship between each other with many tools or many strategies, it has a similar purpose with Web 2.0 tools in terms of providing collaborative learning, which is in the features of language learning strategies.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, data were collected with the results of a task given in the Integrated Language Skills Teaching course. During one semester, the book "Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know" by Rebecca L. Oxford was covered. Students learned what each strategy is and how it can be used in which language skill. They also learned how to design a material using these strategies and how to provide language teaching by blending language skills with each other. It has been determined that the projects that enable the implementation of language learning strategies in the last part of the book are incomplete for the current implementation or cannot be adapted to new technologies. Therefore, can language learning be achieved by making Web 2.0 tools, which play an effective role in the use of today's technology in distance education, more effective by using language learning strategies? Based on the question of whether there is a connection between Web 2.0 tools and language learning strategies, it was investigated. Based on this issue, the 2nd grade English Language Teaching department students were asked to report on 'Web 2.0 tools that can be used in language learning and how they can make the lesson more effective by using these Web 2.0 tools by applying to the language learning strategies learned during this term' for the final assignment of the Integrated Language Skills Teaching course. In addition, it was requested to present both the report and this application by preparing a sample material on how these Web 2.0 tools are used." For this final assignment, 26 assignments were considered to be sufficient to be used in this research. Reviewing assignments these questions have been searched to be answered : Is the Web 2.0 tool explained well enough? Is it explained how it is used in language teaching? Has a connection been established with language learning strategies? Thanks to the application, can students use this tool in their future teaching processes?

FINDINGS

While examining the relationship between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools, certain criteria were taken into consideration in the requested assignments. It is of great importance for this study that students understand how language learning strategies are applied in which language skills. Language learning strategies are explained in detail and supported by examples in Oxford (1990)'s book 'Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know'. In this way, the students made an examination based on the functions of Web 2.0 tools, based on the question of which strategy can make these tools more effective. Students examined each Web 2.0 tool in terms of language learning and had the opportunity to put into practice the theoretical knowledge they learned about language

learning strategies. In the evaluations made in the assignments, answers were sought to the following questions: Is the Web 2.0 tool explained well enough? Is it explained how it is used in language teaching? Has a connection been established with language learning strategies? Thanks to the application, can students use this tool in their future teaching processes? Each assignment was examined from these aspects and found sufficient for research. The results of the assignments are clearly stated in the tables given below. What is noted in the tables is to make a connection between language learning strategies and Web 2.0. In the explanation sections, it is stated which strategy or which Web 2.0 tool is in the foreground.

Table 2. The relationship between direct strategies, memory strategies and Web 2.0 tools

Web 2.0 Tools	Memory Strategies									
	Creating mental linkages			Applying images and sounds				Reviewing well	Employing action	
	Grouping	Associating / elaborating	Placing new words into a context	Using imagery	Semantic mapping	Using keywords	Representing sounds and imagery	Structured reviewing	Using physical response and sensation	Using mechanical techniques
Quzizz	+		+	+				+		
Coggle	+			+	+	+		+		
Ted-ed		+		+						
Bubble.us	+				+	+				
Wordhippo	+		+							
Forvo										
Vo-screen								+		
Penzu		+		+				+		
Pooplet	+	+		+	+	+	+			
Pinterest		+		+	+			+		
Story jumper	+	+	+	+		+				
Edmodo										
Kidblog	+			+	+			+		
Teacher planet										

Learning apps				+			+			
Padlet										
Socrative				+		+				
Google drive				+	+		+			
Facebook										
Grammarly	+	+	+	+		+		+	+	+
Kahoot				+				+		
Mentimeter				+			+			
Zoom										
Easelly				+		+				
Powtoon										
Diigo										

When examined with subheadings in memory strategies, 'Grouping' stands out as the most used strategy type in the 'Creating mental linkages' category. 'Placing new words into a context' is the least used strategy type. Two Web 2.0 tools in which all strategies in this category are used draw attention. The first of these is 'Story Jumper' and the other is 'Grammarly'. In the 'Applying images and sounds' category, 'Using imagery' stands out as the most used strategy type both in this category and among memory strategies. 'Representing sounds and imagery' is the least used strategy type. The Web 2.0 tool in which all strategies in this category are used is 'Pooplet'. The only strategy in the 'Reviewing well' category, 'Structured reviewing', has average usage. In the category of 'employing action', the Web 2.0 tool in which both strategies are used is 'Grammarly'. The category in which the strategies are used the most in memory strategies is "Applying images and sounds". The categorical one with the least use is 'Employing action'. The 'Grammarly' Web 2.0 tool uses almost all strategies of this strategy type. 'Vo-screen' is the Web 2.0 tool that uses this strategy type the least. 'Forvo', 'Powtoon', 'Teacher planet', 'Edmodo', 'Padlet', 'Zoom' and 'Diigo' are Web 2.0 tools that do not use memory strategies

Table 3. The relationship between direct strategies, cognitive strategies and Web 2.0 tools

Web 2.0 Tools	Cognitive Strategies														
	Practicing					Receiving and sending messages		Analyzing and reasoning					Creating structure for input and output		
	Repeating	Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems	Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	Recombining	Practicing naturalistically	Getting the idea quickly	Using resources for receiving and sending messages	Reasoning deductively	Analyzing expressions	Analyzing contrastively	Translating	Transferring	Taking notes	Summarizing	Highlighting
Quzizz			+	+					+		+	+			
Coggle						+									
Ted-ed					+	+									
Bubble.us				+										+	+
Wordhippo		+													
Forvo	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Vo-screen	+		+								+				
Penzu															
Pooplet									+				+	+	+
Pinterest	+							+			+			+	
Story jumper				+											
Edmodo								+					+		
Kidblog					+	+			+						+
Teacher planet								+							
Learning apps															
Padlet															
Socrative													+		
Google drive															
Facebook															
Grammarly								+	+				+	+	
Kahoot				+		+									
Mentimeter	+												+	+	
Zoom				+											

Easelly													+	+	+
Powtoon															
Diigo							+						+	+	+
	4	2	3	6	4	5	5	2	4	1	4	4	7	7	6

When cognitive strategies are examined with subheadings, 'Recombining' stands out as the most used strategy type in the 'Practicing' category. 'Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems' is the least used type of strategy. The strategies 'Repeating' and 'Practicing naturalistically' were used equally in Web 2.0 tools. The 'Forvo' Web 2.0 tool, in which all strategies in this category are used, draws attention. Both strategy types were used equally in the 'Receiving and sending messages' category. The Web 2.0 tool in which all strategies in this category are used is again 'Forvo'. 'Analyzing expressions', 'Translating' and 'Transferring' strategy types in the 'Analyzing and reasoning' category are both equally used and the most used strategies in this category. The strategy 'Analyzing contrastively' has the least use in this category. The Web 2.0 tool in which all strategies are used in this category is 'Forvo'. In the 'Creating structure for input and output' category, 'Taking notes' and 'Summarizing' strategy types are both used equally and are the most used strategies in this category. In addition, the most used strategy types are in this category compared to all categories. Four strategy types are noteworthy, using all the strategies in this category. These are 'Forvo', 'Pooplet', 'Easely' and 'Diigo'. The category in which the strategies are used the most in cognitive strategies is "Creating structure input and output". The least used category is 'Receiving and sending messages'. The 'Forvo' Web 2.0 tool uses all strategies in this strategy type. 'Zoom', 'Teacher planet' and 'Socrative' are Web 2.0 tools that use this strategy type the least. Also, 'Penzu', 'Learning apps', 'Padlet', 'Google drive', 'Facebook' and 'Powtoon' are Web 2.0 tools that do not use any strategy in this type of strategy.

Table 4. The relationship between direct strategies, compensation strategies and Web 2.0 tools

Web 2.0 Tools	Compensation Strategies									
	Guessing intelligently		Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing							
	Using linguistic clues	Using other clues	Switching to the mother tongue	Getting help	Using mime and gesture	Avoiding communication partially or totally	Selecting the topic	Adjusting or approximating the message	Coining words	Using a circumlocution or synonym
Quzizz									+	+
Coggle										
Ted-ed										
Bubble.us										

Wordhippo										+
Forvo									+	+
Vo-screen	+	+								
Penzu										
Pooplet										+
Pinterest	+	+								
Story jumper										
Edmodo				+			+			
Kidblog				+			+			
Teacher planet	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Learning apps										
Padlet										
Socrative										
Google drive										
Facebook										
Grammarly	+	+							+	+
Kahoot							+		+	+
Mentimeter										+
Zoom					+		+			
Easelly										
Powtoon										
Diigo										

When compensatory strategies are examined with sub-headings, both strategies are used equally in the 'Guessing intelligently' category. The 'Teacher Planet' Web 2.0 tool, in which all strategies in this category are used, draws attention. In the category of 'Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing', 'Using a circumlocution or synonym' is the most used strategy both in this category and in this type of strategy. The least used strategies in this category are 'Switching to the mother tongue', 'Avoiding communication partially or totally' and 'Adjusting or approximating the message'. In this category, the strategies 'Selecting the topic' and 'Coining words' have equal usage. In addition, the most used strategy type is in this category compared to the other category. The Web 2.0 tool that uses all the strategies in this category is 'Teacher Planet'. The category in which strategies are used the most in compensation strategies is 'Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing'. The category with the least use is 'Guessing intelligently'. The 'Teacher planet' Web 2.0 tool uses all strategies in this strategy type. 'Mentimeter', 'Wordhippo' and 'Pooplet' are Web 2.0 tools that use this strategy type the least. Also 'Coggle' , 'Ted-ED' , 'Bubble.us' , 'Penzu' , 'Story Jumper' , 'Learning apps' , 'Padlet' , 'Socrative' , 'Google drive' , 'Facebook' , 'Easelly' ' , 'Powtoon' and 'Diigo' are Web 2.0 tools that do not use any strategy in this strategy type.

Table 5. The relationship between indirect strategies, metacognitive strategies and Web 2.0 tools

| Web 2.0 Tools | Metacognitive Strategies | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Centering your learning | | | Arranging and planning your learning | | | | | | Evaluating your learning | |
	Overviewing and linking with already known material	Paying attention	Delaying speech production to focus on listening	Finding out about language learning	Organizing	Setting goals and objectives	Identifying the purpose of a language task	Planning for a language task	Seeking practice opportunities	Self-monitoring	Self-evaluating
Quzizz	+									+	+
Coggle											
Ted-ed		+	+								
Bubble.us											
Wordhippo						+					
Forvo											
Vo-screen				+		+		+		+	+
Penzu											
Pooplet				+	+	+	+	+	+		
Pinterest	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Story jumper											
Edmodo											+
Kidblog	+					+					+
Teacher planet											
Learning apps											
Padlet											
Socrative										+	+
Google drive					+						
Facebook							+	+	+	+	+
Grammarly											
Kahoot		+				+					
Mentimeter		+								+	+
Zoom											
Easelly					+	+					
Powtoon											
Diigo											

When metacognitive strategies are examined with subheadings, 'Paying attention' stands out as the most used strategy type in the 'Centering your learning' category. Delaying speech production to focus on listening is the least used strategy type. The 'Pinterest' Web 2.0 tool, in which all strategies in this category are used, draws attention. The strategy of 'Setting goals and objectives' in the category of 'Arranging and planning your learning' is the most used strategy type. The strategies 'Finding out about learning' , 'Identifying the purpose of a language task' and 'Seeking practice opportunities' are both the least and equally used strategy types. The strategies 'Organizing' and 'Planning for a language task' have not only had average use, but have been used equally. Web 2.0 tools in which all strategies in this category are used are again 'Pinterest' and 'Pooplet'. 'Self-evaluating' in the 'Evaluating your learning' category is the most used strategy both in this category and in this strategy type. The 'self-monitoring' strategy has the least use in this category. Web 2.0 tools in which all strategies are used in this category are 'Quizzz', 'Vo-screen', 'Pinterest', 'Socrative', 'Facebook' and 'Mentimeter'. The category in which most strategies are used in metacognitive strategies is "Arranging and planning your learning". The category with the least use is 'Centering your learning'. The 'Pinterest' Web 2.0 tool uses all strategies in this strategy type. 'Wordhippo' are Web 2.0 tools that use this strategy type the least. Also 'Coggle' , 'Bubble.us' , 'Forvo' , 'Penzu' , 'Story jumper' , 'Teacher planet' , 'Learning apps' , 'Padlet' , 'Grammarly' , 'Zoom' , 'Powtoon' and 'Diigo' are Web 2.0 tools that do not use any strategy in this type of strategy.

Table 7. The relationship between indirect strategies, affective strategies and Web 2.0 tools

Web 2.0 Tools	Affective Strategies									
	Lowering your anxiety			Encouraging yourself			Taking your emotional temperature			
	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	Using music	Using laughter	Making positive statements	Taking risks wisely	Rewarding yourself	Listening to your body	Using a checklist	Writing a language learning diary	Discussing your feelings with someone else
Quzizz		+		+						
Coggle										
Ted-ed										
Bubble.us										
Wordhippo										
Forvo										
Vo-screen					+					
Penzu									+	+
Pooplet				+	+	+				
Pinterest	+	+								
Story jumper										

Tool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Edmodo		+								+	+
Kidblog										+	
Teacher planet											
Learning apps											
Padlet	+	+	+								
Socrative											
Google drive											
Facebook		+	+								
Grammarly											
Kahoot		+									
Mentimeter		+									
Zoom											
Easelly											
Powtoon	+	+	+								
Diigo											

When Affective strategies are examined under subheadings, 'Using music' in the 'Lowering your anxiety' category stands out as the most used strategy type both in this category and in this type of strategy. 'Using laughter' and 'Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation' are both equally and least used types of strategies. The 'Powtoon' and 'Padlet' Web 2.0 tools, in which all strategies in this category are used, draw attention. In the 'Encouraging yourself' category, 'Making positive statements' and 'Taking risks wisely' are both equally and most commonly used strategy types. The 'Rewarding yourself' strategy has the least use. The Web 2.0 tool in which all strategies in this category are used is 'Pooplet'. 'Writing a language diary' in the 'Taking your temperature emotional' category is the most used strategy. 'Using a checklist' and 'Discussing your feelings with someone else' are both equally and moderately used strategy types. The strategy 'Listening to your body' is the strategy that is never used in this category. There are no Web 2.0 tools in this category where all strategies are used. The category in which most strategies are used in Affective strategies is 'Lowering your anxiety'. The categories that have both the least and equal use are Taking your emotional temperature and Encouraging yourself. There is no Web 2.0 tool that uses all strategies. However, the three most used Web 2.0 are; 'Pooplet', 'Padlet', 'Powtoon'. 'Vo-screen', 'Kahoot' and 'Mentimeter' are Web 2.0 tools that use this strategy type the least. Also 'Coggle' , 'Ted-ED' , 'Bubble.us' , 'Wordhippo', 'Forvo' , 'Story jumper' , 'Teacher planet' , 'Learning apps' , 'Google Drive' , 'Grammarly' , ' Zoom' , 'Easelly' and 'Diigo' are Web 2.0 tools that do not use any strategy in this strategy type.

Table 8. The relationship between indirect strategies, social strategies and Web 2.0 tools

| Web 2.0 Tools | Social Strategies | | | | | |
| | Asking questions | | Cooperating with others | | Empathizing with others | |
	Asking for clarification or verification	Asking for correction	Cooperating with peers	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	Developing cultural understanding	Becoming aware of others 'thoughts and feelings
Quzizz			+			
Coggle			+			
Ted-ed			+			
Bubble.us						
Wordhippo						
Forvo						
Vo-screen					+	
Penzu			+	+		
Pooplet			+			
Pinterest			+			
Story jumper			+			
Edmodo			+	+		
Kidblog			+			
Teacher planet						
Learning apps			+	+		
Padlet			+			
Socrative						
Google drive			+			
Facebook	+	+	+	+	+	+
Grammarly						
Kahoot		+	+			
Mentimeter						
Zoom	+	+	+	+	+	+
Easelly						
Powtoon						
Diigo						

When social strategies are examined with subheadings, 'Asking for correction' stands out as the most used strategy type in the 'Asking questions' category. 'Asking for clarification or verification' is the least used strategy type. The 'Facebook' and 'Zoom' Web 2.0 tools, in which all strategies in this category are used, draws attention. In the 'Cooperating with others' category, 'Cooperating with peers' is the most used strategy both in this category and in this strategy type. The strategy 'Cooperating with proficient users of the new language' has the least use. The Web 2.0 tool in which all the strategies in this category are used is 'Facebook'. 'Developing cultural understanding' in the 'Empathizing with others' category is the most used strategy. 'Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings' is the least used strategy. The Web 2.0 tool in which all the strategies in this category are used is again 'Facebook'. The category in which strategies are used the most in social strategies is 'Cooperating with peers'. The category with the least equal use is 'Asking for questions'. The Web 2.0 tool that uses all strategies is 'Facebook' and 'Zoom'. 'Quizzz', 'Coggle' , 'Ted-ED' , 'Vo-screen' and 'Zoom' are Web 2.0 tools that use this strategy type the least. Also 'Bubble.us' , 'Wordhippo', 'Forvo' , 'Teacher planet' , 'Socrative' , 'Grammarly' , 'Mentimeter' , 'Easelly' , 'Powtoon' and 'Diigo' are Web sites that do not use any strategy in this strategy type. 2.0 tools.

In summary, Web 2.0 tools can be made more effective by using language learning strategies. The prominent language learning strategies in this research are direct strategies. However, the use of indirect strategies is not to be underestimated. Web 2.0 tools that provide material support, allow language learning with games, enable easy learning of pronunciation, which is a very important area in language learning, and encourage students with blogs, can improve themselves with language learning strategies in this research. In this section, only how well they are connected with language learning strategies, that is, their rates are stated. In the next section, it will be discussed why these rates are low or high and what language teachers / students can do by knowing this connection.

DISCUSSION

When looking at the results from the general framework, it has been observed that some types of strategies are quite prominent, and some are almost never used. The results showed that Direct strategies were used more than Indirect strategies. When examined in terms of strategy types one by one, some surprising and some expected, normal results emerged. Looking at the Direct strategies one by one, Memory strategies are a type of strategy that is more used than other strategies. The most used strategy in this genre has been 'Using imagery'. Cognitive strategies are at the forefront as the most used strategy type. 'Taking notes' and 'Summarizing' strategies are the most commonly used strategies of this type. However, they do not have more use than the 'Using imagery' strategy. Compensation strategies, the last type of direct strategies, have average usage among other strategies. But it is also a valuable type of strategy that cannot be underestimated. The most used strategy is 'Using a circumlocution or synonym'. When looking at the indirect strategies one by one, Metacognitive strategies are in the foreground compared to other indirect strategies. The most used type of strategy is self-evaluating. Another type of strategy is Affective Strategies. This strategy type has the least use of all strategy types. In fact, one strategy was surprisingly never used. The most used type of strategy is 'Using music'. Finally, Social strategies have average usage compared to other indirect strategies. The most used strategy is the second most used strategy after the 'Using imagery' strategy, which is one of the 'Cooperating with peers'.

When examined by Web 2.0 tools, it seems that the rate of making some tools more effective by using language learning strategies is quite high. At the beginning of these tools is Pinterest, which is a website / application that is a source of images, photos, and videos. A number of

apps made most effective by language learning strategies among all tools. Another application that uses a lot of language learning strategies is Popplet, which enables the creation of concept maps on various topics. Quizizz, which is an assessment tool and provides the creation of quizzes on various courses and subjects, is an application that can be developed with another language learning strategies. Likewise, the Forvo application, which acts as a dictionary to learn how words are pronounced in many different languages, is among the things that can be developed in connection with language learning strategies. Kidblog application, which is based on the importance of blogs in language learning, and Grammarly language learning strategies, which can be a bedside site / application for language students with tips on new generation grammar, spelling rules, punctuation, and English writing ability, can be more effective. Vo-screen, which aims to improve foreign language listening skills through podcasts or videos, and Facebook, which provides a social connection between language learners, can provide effective learning by using language learning strategies on average. Kahoot, the application that provides assessment through a quiz, and the Teacher planet application, which contains a lot of resources, that is, provides materials to language students and teachers, also have an average use between language learning strategies and those that can be more effective. Edmodo Web 2.0, a classroom management tool / social network that builds a bridge between students, teachers, and parents and where course documents can be safely stored online, is a tool that can be effective in language learning strategies and language learning. Although not like teaching with games like Kahoot and Quizizz, Mentimeter, a Web 2.0 tool that allows students to make presentations and reinforce the subject by interacting with their peers, is somewhere in the middle among those who use language learning strategies. Coggle and Bubble.us Wen 2.0 tools, which enable to create various concept maps such as Pooplet, are surprisingly not applications that can be developed with language learning strategies as much as Pooplet. Padlet Web 2.0, a mix of multifunctional Pinterest, Pooplet, Bubble.us and Coggle apps, isn't as connected to language learning strategies as Pinterest and Pooplet. It's not surprising that the Penzu app, which allows teachers to create curriculum and lesson plans, has little to do with language learning strategies. While the Vo-screen application can make a lot of connections with language learning strategies, it is also a matter of curiosity why the Ted-ED application, which performs the same function, is not so interested. Another application that provides English teaching with games, Socrative, is equally interested in Ted-ED and lags behind other applications that provide English teaching with games, which may mean that it cannot maintain its place in language learning. Since Google Drive, which enables file sharing and interactive editing of files online, can be beneficial in a certain area in language learning, it is quite natural that language learning strategies cannot be connected. Wordhippo website, which is a highly functional dictionary that provides vocabulary development in a foreign language, is among the applications that cannot be made more effective by using language learning strategies. While the Learning apps application, which provides material support to students and allows them to study themselves, is actually an application that can be made effective by using language learning strategies, it lags behind other applications. Diigo, an online bookmarking application, already addresses a certain area. It is not surprising, therefore, that it has so little relevance to language learning strategies. Finally, there is Powtoon, an app for entertaining presentations with the least connection to language learning strategies.

As mentioned in the literature review, Web 2.0 tools are internet-based applications that help online or face-to-face education to increase collaborative education, provide peer interaction, and also enable each student to take their own learning responsibilities within the group in

foreign language education. Furthermore, prior studies that have noted the importance of ensuring interaction and cooperation among peers in language learning strategies. In Oxford (1990)'s features of language learning strategies and classification of language learning strategies, it is clearly seen that the aim is to increase these features and make learning easier and enjoyable. A strong relationship between Web 2.0 tools and language learning strategies has been reported in the literature.

One of the aims of this research was to how to make Web 2.0 tools more effective in foreign language teaching by using language learning strategies. Therefore, this study found that many language learning strategies, especially direct strategies, can make Web 2.0 tools more effective in learning. Thanks to these strategies, teachers can make language teaching more fun and easier. Students, on the other hand, can interact and cooperate more effectively with their peers through strategies. They can also take responsibility for their own learning process within the group. Many findings were obtained in this study. One interesting finding is that although the most used strategy type is 'using imagery', which belongs to the memory strategy type, studies on 'cooperating with peers', which belong to the social strategy type, are mostly concentrated in the literature. It is a normal result that the strategy of using visuality is intense in language learning, especially for students with visual intelligence. However, the lack of research on facilitating language learning by using visuals in Web 2.0 tools in the literature is a very interesting issue and it would be very interesting to do research on this subject. Moreover, according to the findings, the high use of the 'self-evaluating' strategy, which is a type of metacognitive strategy, is in line with the results of the studies in the literature. Another important finding is that the cognitive strategy type is the most used strategy type is an important result, which allows one to reach an idea that language learning is a cognitive task, and that language learning is facilitated by this type of strategy. The most important result was that few of the Web 2.0 tools use all strategies of one strategy type. This finding shows that teachers or students can increase the efficiency of using these tools in language learning if they concentrate on the type of strategy in which they use all of these few Web 2.0 tools. These Web 2.0 tools and all of their strategies show why they use the type of strategy they use, with the following comments on students' assignments:

"I think the metacognitive strategy is the one you and your students want to use and relevant to this application. This strategy allows learners to control their own cognition thus, it also includes centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating. While you and your students use this application, you can create your own boards. While learning the language, it will be very useful to create boards according to each subject seen in the lesson and to classify and organize them, so you will also use one of the metacognitive strategies. In this way, your students will discover the methods and activities that are better for them by practicing with the materials they find, and they will take their language learning beyond the classroom."

As seen in the comments, since students think that they should use their own consciousness in this application, they have reached the conclusion that if this type of strategy is used, efficient results can be obtained in the use of Pinterest Web 2.0 tool in language learning. Similarly, the following comment supports this situation:

"This platform will help the teacher to apply the metacognitive strategy in the classroom. Because this platform offers activities related to this strategy and helps the teachers to plan and guide their students."

Based on this interpretation, they think that the activities that can be done with this type of strategy in the use of the teacher planet Web 2.0 tool in language learning can guide teachers and students.

The use of social media in language learning can also be understood from the reasons why all of the social strategies in the homework, which contribute to the social skills of the students, are used in the Facebook Web 2.0 tool:

"Because the Facebook application is a social media platform, it can provide a more effective language learning by using all the strategies such as social strategy, which is one of the language learning strategies. Thanks to the messaging and video chat feature of the Facebook application, you can use the 'Asking for clarification or verification' strategy and ask the speaker to rephrase with different words in places you do not understand. Similarly, you can use the 'Asking for correction' strategy. Thanks to the group creation feature of the Facebook application, students can perform any language learning activity in cooperation with their peers using the 'cooperating with peers' strategy and with their teachers with the 'cooperating with proficient users of the new language' strategy. In addition, the Facebook application offers the opportunity to meet people from many cultures and nationalities thanks to its 'make friends' feature. By using this feature, they can use the Facebook application more effectively in language learning, with the strategies of 'Developing cultural understanding' and 'Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings'.

Due to the Covid-19 epidemic that has occurred nowadays, education has started to be done online. The Web 2.0 tool that has benefited the most in this period can be called Zoom. Zoom application is one of the Web 2.0 tools used in this research and used all social strategies such as Facebook application. The reasons are stated in the assignment as follows:

"Since the Zoom application is an online meeting application, it can provide a more effective language learning by using all strategies such as social strategy, which is one of the language learning strategies. You can ask the speaker to rephrase with different words in places you do not understand by using the 'Asking for clarification or verification' strategy, thanks to the Zoom application's feature of messaging, video speaking and sharing presentations on the computer or any action you make. Similarly, you can use the 'Asking for correction' strategy. The Zoom application can meet with 100 different people at the same time, and it can also enable that hundred people to be divided into groups by the person who manages the meeting. Thanks to this feature, students can carry out any language learning activity in cooperation with their peers using the 'cooperating with peers' strategy and with their teachers with the 'cooperating with proficient users of the new language' strategy. In addition, the Zoom application offers the opportunity to meet people from many cultures and nationalities, thanks to its ability to hold meetings with foreigners as long as you share your ID number. By using this feature, they can use the Zoom application more effectively in language learning, with the strategies of 'Developing cultural understanding' and 'Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings'.

Teacher Planet and Pinterest Web 2.0 tool stated thoughts in their assignments that students can provide effective language learning by using their cognitions. Again, for a similar purpose, the Web 2.0 tool called Forvo, this time using all strategies of the Cognitive strategy type, stated its reasons as follows:

"The use of Forvo can be associated with the cognitive strategy, one of the direct learning strategies. As it is known, in cognitive strategy, it is important to listen to and imitate native speakers of the language we are learning, to read a text many times at different speeds, to sing songs. Their content, as can be seen, is directly related to correct and effective pronunciation. In this context, Forvo is a very useful application in terms of cognitive strategies."

As can be understood from this interpretation, it has been concluded that Forvo, a pronunciation application, is in direct agreement with the characteristics of cognitive strategies. The results of this study show / indicate that … a Web 2.0 tool can most effectively deliver language learning using all strategies of one strategy type. There are Web 2.0 tools that use all strategy types in a strategy type, as well as the most strategy-using Web 2.0 tools based on all strategies. When these tools use language learning strategies, they can offer very useful content in the field of language learning. The most commonly used strategy types in these Web 2.0 tools and the reasons why these strategy types are used a lot are clearly seen in the following comments in the assignments:

"In addition to teaching students vocabulary, it will be very useful when teaching phrasal verbs. With the detailed classification of phrasal verbs in concept maps, there will be no confusion for students and easier learning will be provided. Grouping and classifying which are the memory strategies in language learning is used."

As can be understood from this interpretation, it has been concluded that Forvo, a pronunciation application, is in direct agreement with the characteristics of cognitive strategies.

The results of this study indicate that a Web 2.0 tool can most effectively deliver language learning using all strategies of one strategy type. There are Web 2.0 tools that use all strategy types in a strategy type, as well as the most strategy-using Web 2.0 tools based on all strategies. When these tools use language learning strategies, they can offer very useful content in the field of language learning. The most commonly used strategy types in these Web 2.0 tools and the reasons why these strategy types are used a lot are clearly seen in the following comments in the assignments:

"Formulas and certain patterns have a very important place in grammar teaching. This application provides the opportunity to use the 'recognizing and using formulas and patterns' strategy, which is one of the cognitive strategies, in quizzes where Grammar skills are measured. Similarly, it can allow you to use the 'recombining' strategy. For example; It offers the opportunity to match some of the elements you give to match in multiple choice type questions. Problem solving means analysis. The Quizizz, which offers the opportunity to ask questions for the analysis of certain expressions, also offers us the opportunity to use the 'analyzing expressions' strategy, one of the cognitive strategies. In addition, the translation and transfer techniques we use in transferring from the mother tongue to the target language allow us to use the 'translating' and 'transferring' strategies, which are also cognitive strategies."

This comment belongs to the third most used strategy Web 2.0 tool Quizizz. As can be understood from this comment, cognitive strategy is also at the forefront in this Web 2.0 tool, as it is thought to improve the cognitive aspect of students, just like Forvo.

The idea of examining the relationship between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools in this research is similar to the research of Khabbaz & Najjar (2015). However, as stated in the literature review section, there is a difference. This research does not claim to make any changes to Web 2.0 tools. On the contrary, it has been investigated whether there is a connection between existing strategies and Web 2.0 tools.

Almost all of the Web 2.0 tools used in the research are trying to make language learning more effective with the use of strategy. However, some Web 2.0 tools are somewhat lacking in strategy use or are not suitable for strategy use. Although 'Wordhippo' and 'Learning apps' are very helpful to language learning in terms of both material support and facilitating

vocabulary learning, they are lacking in the use of language learning strategies. This is probably because they may not have enough data to use language learning strategies. Perhaps new strategies can be developed for Web 2.0 tools that do not have enough data. Similarly, the 'Powtoon' Web 2.0 tool is one of the tools that is not used much in language learning strategies.

These findings may draw attention to us giving importance to thinking about the use of language learning strategies in language teaching. Moreover, it can bring a new breath to the studies on Web 2.0 tools in language learning. It can also make researchers doubt whether language learning strategies are sufficient, and may lead to the emergence of new strategies and subsequently new Web 2.0 tools.

CONCLUSION

This study set out to examine the relationship between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools. Moreover, this research has shown that it is used language learning strategies, Web 2.0 tools can be made more effective in foreign language learning. The findings clearly indicate that direct strategies are at the forefront and Web 2.0 tools such as Pinterest , Pooplet , Quizizz and Forvo use language learning strategies the most. The research has also shown that language learning strategies are an important area in foreign language learning and as technology advances and new Web 2.0 tools emerge, new learning strategies may need to be found. The most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that 'It is similar to research on language learning and the use of Web 2.0 tools related to collaborative learning mentioned earlier in the literature, such as cooperating with peers' and 'using imagery'. An implication of this is the possibility that there is a link between Web 2.0 tools and language learning strategies, and when these tools are examined separately, even more effective results can be obtained. The current data highlight the importance of teachers and students can use language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools together to provide a faster, more effective and enjoyable learning process. The following conclusions can be drawn from the present study that some Web 2.0 tools cannot be linked much with language learning strategies has led to a conclusion that new strategies should be found. The study contributes to our understanding of Web 2.0 tools can be found not only in internet / online / distance education but also in formal education and many Web 2.0 tools can be used in language learning. The present study has been one of the first attempts to thoroughly examine the relationship between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tools and increasing the efficiency of Web 2.0 tools through these strategies. These findings make several contributions to the current literature.

Prior to this study there was uncertainty about whether there is a relationship between language learning strategies and Web 2.0 tool tools. A key strength of the present study was being the first in its field and its contribution to the importance of technology in language teaching to teachers / students. The findings in this report are subject to at least three limitations. First, the existence of Web 2.0 tools that do not use language learning strategies, and the reasons are not fully known. Second, the data obtained yields fruitful results, but still lack of understanding of adequate Web 2.0 tools and language learning strategies related to learning English. Last, there are some difficulties in the method part of the research. For example, the release of students in the criteria of the assignments caused a lack of homework and also created a deficiency in the data in certain places. Notwithstanding these limitations, the study suggests that if it is necessary to develop new language strategies or increase the number of Web 2.0 tools, the literature on this subject should be thoroughly searched. In the method part, it can be suggested to develop the criteria of the assignments and present the results clearly. This would be a fruitful are for the future work. These findings provide the

following insights for the future research: due to the development of today's technology, more technology-related research in other areas of language learning/teaching and closing this gap in the literature.

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DOES SUBTITLING MATTER IN ADOLESCENTS' VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT?

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Abstract

The study attempts to investigate the potential impact of subtitling while watching animated cartoons on learners' vocabulary development. In line with this aim, the present study employed two intact classes. The pool of participants composed of 40 secondary school students studying in grade eight (aged 13–14) at a public school. The experimental group and the control group consisted of 21 and 19 participants, respectively. 5-point self-report vocabulary knowledge scale was used as the data gathering tool. 18 words were chosen according to the context of the videos. The students watched six animated cartoons in three lessons, two videos each week. The students in the experimental group watched these videos with English subtitles, whereas the students in the control group watched the videos without any subtitles. For the analysis of the data, independent samples *t*-tests and paired samples *t*-tests were conducted. The findings showed that the students who watched the videos with English subtitles compared to the students in the control group demonstrated significantly better performance in post-test vocabulary knowledge scale. In addition, the results indicated statistically significant improvement from pre-test to post-test scores of the students in the experimental group. The study concludes with discussions regarding the previous research concerning the impact of subtitling on vocabulary development and some implications for further research and practice.

Keywords: animated cartoons, foreign language learning, subtitling, vocabulary learning

INTRODUCTION

With the advancement of technology, ELT-related research has started to be dominated by studies conducted on the impact of watching films, online videos or media in foreign language for the past few decades (Baranowska, 2020). The reason why video-based papers enjoy popularity in this specific field is due to the positive impact of comprehensible input exposed through videos on foreign language acquisition (Ellis, 2013). Foreign language learning performance has been found to be positively correlated with the amount of exposure to media in several recent studies regardless of learners' age (e.g. Azizi & Aziz, 2020; Baranowska, 2020; Sinyashina, 2019). Among these studies, one of the most remarkable topics in foreign language learning research is the investigation of how new words are picked up by the learners through exposure to foreign language input (Perez et al., 2018).

Unsurprisingly, considering potential impact of videos on vocabulary development, researchers have attempted to explore the ways to boost vocabulary acquisition ranging from using subtitles (Abdullah & Hamadameen, 2020; Etemadi, 2012; Karakaş & Sarıçoban, 2012; Tarchi et al., 2021) to captions (BavaHarji et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2014; Yüksel & Tanrıverdi, 2009). Considering this, the study attempts to investigate the potential impact of subtitling while watching animated cartoons on learners' vocabulary development. In line with this aim, this study attempted to find answer to the following research question:

Does subtitling have a differential effect on adolescent L2 learners' vocabulary learning?

METHODOLOGY

Participants and setting

The non-equivalent control groups design, one of the experimental methods, was employed in the present study which includes two intact classes. The participants were not randomly selected. The pool of participants composed of 40 secondary school students studying in grade eight (aged 13–14) at a public school in a western city of Turkey. The experimental group (10 females and 11 males) and the control group (10 females and 9 males) consisted of 21 and 19 participants, respectively. The participants were not informed about the aim of the study in advance.

Design and data collection

18 words were chosen according to the context of the videos. They were all in the format of noun. The videos were animated cartoons broadcasted on the website of British Council (https://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/short-stories). The length of the videos ranged from 1.37 to 2.24 with the average of 2.01 minute.

At the beginning of the study, the students in both groups were given 5-point self-report vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996) which was also used as the post-test. The use of dictionary during the data collection was not allowed. This scale allows the students to express their vocabulary knowledge in five levels as shown below:

1: I don't remember having seen this word before.

2: I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

3: I have seen this word before, and I think it means _____ (synonym or translation).

4: I know this word. It means _____ (synonym or translation).

5: I can use this word in a sentence. e.g.: _____ (if you do this section, please also do section 4).

The VKS helps researchers to track not only participants' vocabulary gains in number but also the depth of that knowledge (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996). The students' responses were coded according to the level they chose on VKS and its accuracy. Since level three, four, and five require students to write a synonym or a sentence including the related words, the accuracy of these responses was checked by the researcher. If the answers of the students were wrong, the level of their answers was coded as one level lower (Karakaş & Sarıçoban, 2012).

A pilot test was conducted with the participation of similar eight grade students from the same school. The VKS was found to be highly reliable (18 items; α = .85).

The students watched six videos in three lessons, two videos each week. The students in the experimental group watched these videos with English subtitles, whereas the students in the control group watched the videos without any subtitles. Before each video, an online word matching game was played in both groups through which the students had the opportunity to hear the pronunciation of the words several times. After watching the videos for two times, another online game was played that required students to put the sentences in order according to the video.

Data analysis

First, a Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted to check the normality of the data. Second, independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to see the differences between the scores of the experimental and control group students in pre-test and post-test. Finally, paired samples *t*-tests were used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the students in pre-test and post-test.

FINDINGS

First of all, a Shapiro-Wilk test indicated normality of the data both for the experimental W(21) = 0.97, p = .857 and for the control group W(19) = 0.92, p = .113. The findings showed that the 21 students who watched the videos with English subtitles (*M* = 2.61, *SD* = .376) compared to the students in the control group (*M* = 2.23, *SD* = .511) demonstrated significantly better performance in post-test vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS), t(39) = 2.46, p = .020. In addition, the results indicated statistically significant improvement from pre-test (*M* = 2.26, *SD* = .35) to post-test scores (*M* = 2.61, *SD* = .37) of the students in the experimental group. This finding showed that using English subtitles in videos resulted in a significant improvement in vocabulary knowledge scale, t(20) = -3.65, p = .002. The results of the paired samples *t*-test showed that vocabulary knowledge scale scores of the students in the control group did not improve significantly from pre-test (*M* = 1.93, *SD* = .41) to post-test (*M* = 2.22, *SD* = .51), t(18) = -1.48, p = .167.

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

Vocabulary development of most foreign language learners occurs in an effort to understand what is being said in different contexts (Zoghi & Mirzaei, 2014). Videos, being currently the most common context in this regard, significantly contribute learners' incidental vocabulary development (Bal Gezegin, 2014; Karakaş & Sarıçoban, 2012; Sinyashina, 2019) by providing opportunity to hear the authentic use of the language without being in the place where the conversation takes place.

The results of many studies investigating the potential impact of videos have also indicated that the vocabulary learning performance of the participants watching the videos with English subtitles were significantly better than the ones watching without subtitles (see Abdullah & Hamadameen, 2020; Mousavi & Gholami, 2014; Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016; Yüksel & Tanrıverdi, 2009). The results of these studies are in accordance with the ones of the present study. However, despite not being statistically significant, there was an improvement in the control group as well which may help us to claim that watching animated cartoons in English facilitated the improvement in vocabulary knowledge.

Considering the findings of the present study and the ones in the related literature it may be claimed that video watching may be suggested for the language learners who have difficulty in understanding the conversations in target language due to a lack of sufficient vocabulary knowledge. Another conclusion of the present study is that video watching may be more effective with the subtitles in the target language. Therefore, video watching supported with subtitles in English may be either integrated in English classes or recommended as a free time activity to improve learners' vocabulary development. The videos should be selected in line with the interests of the learners. Moreover, as videos provide opportunities for the learners to contextualize and repeat the new words to guess the meaning of them (Karakaş & Sarıçoban, 2012), the implication for the language teachers is that teaching target words may be more effectively taught through videos as they will become familiarized with the words that are used in a specific context.

Finally, the results of the present study are limited to the responses of two groups of eight graders studying at a public school in Turkey on a 5-point self-report vocabulary knowledge scale. Further studies may employ interviews or diaries to delve into the improvement of the vocabulary. Moreover, all the words in the present study were nouns. Other word groups, such as adjectives or verbs may be investigated in future research.

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A COMPARATIVE GENRE ANALYSIS OF AMERICAN AND CHINESE LEADERS' NEW YEAR SPEECHES

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Abstract

It is common in many countries that state leaders deliver New Year speeches every year which conveys information about the country's current situation to the world and builds a closer relationship between state leaders and the public. Recently, New Year speech delivered by state leaders is becoming increasingly important and gaining more and more attention. This study aims to conduct a comparative genre analysis of New Year speeches delivered by American and Chinese leaders. A corpus of New Year speeches by American leaders was compared with a counterpart corpus of Chinese leaders' New Year speeches. Based on Swale's (1990) genre analysis, the study analyzes the rhetorical structure of New Year speeches made by the leaders of two countries, figuring out their similarities and differences in organizational pattern and content. The results indicate that American and Chinese leaders involve the same moves and share similar steps in their New Year speeches in order to achieve their communicative purposes. Both American and Chinese leaders involve three typical moves in their New Year speeches: expressing New Year wishes, reflecting on the past and looking to the future, and delivering New Year wishes again or thanking the public for listening. They include similar steps to achieve communicative purposes, such as outlining difficulties and achievements in the past, showing gratitude to the public, identifying challenges and tasks at present, and inspiring the public to struggle for a better country. Moreover, Chinese leaders tend to mention various groups of people who live in different parts of the world when greeting the public while American leaders use "everyone" generally in their speech. Exploring similarities and differences of American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches with regard to content and structure, the study helps to understand the communicative styles in these two countries and cultural differences of the two nations.

Key words: New Year speech; genre; genre analysis; move; step

INTRODUCTION

Public speech is one of the most important and effective ways to express ideas, influencing audience's attitudes and values. As one particular type of public speech, New Year speech is annually delivered by state leaders at the end of the past year or at the start of the new year, conveying information about the current situation of the country and looking to the new year. Although a wealth of studies related with public speech have already existed (Esbaugh-Soha, 2006; Landtsheer & Feldman, 2000; 何晓勤, 2007; 蒋泽群, 2015), most of them focus on the linguistic features of some political speeches and there is little research conducted on New Year speech. However, because of the increasingly important international status of China and the leading role of America, New Year speeches made by the leaders of these two countries attract more attention of the media across the world. There is a need to study the New Year speeches delivered by the leaders of these two countries. Genre analysis based on move introduced by Swales explores the rhetorical structure of introduction sections in research articles, which has been employed by scholars later to analyze president inaugural speech, English business e-mails, and literature review sections of master's thesis (谢占丽，2012; 罗怡，2004; 李俊儒，2009). But this theory has not been applied to the analysis of New Year speech. Therefore, this paper is going to make a contrastive study of American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches by using Swales' genre analysis.

The paper consist of 4 chapters. Chapter 1 is the introduction, which deals with the research background and the significance of the study. Chapter 2, as the theoretical basis of the paper, provides a review of the concept of genre and genre analysis, as well as Swales' genre analysis. In chapter 3, on the basis of Swales' genre analysis, it explores respectively what moves and steps are involved in American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches and compare their structures so as to find out their similarities and differences in structure and content. Furthermore, possible factors that may lead to those differences are discussed. The final chapter is the conclusion of the whole paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This paper focuses on contrastive analysis of two corpus of New Year speeches delivered by American and Chinese presidents using genre analysis developed by Swales. This chapter provides theoretical background the subsequent discussion, beginning with introducing the concept of genre and genre analysis and illuminating Swales' theory of genre analysis.

Genre

Deriving from a French word which originates from a Latin word "genus", the term "genre" means "kind" or "type" and has been widely employed in various domains, such as rhetoric, literature, anthropology and so on. It was introduced into the field of linguistics in 1970s and began to attract linguistic researchers' interests. Diversified definitions have been offered by different researchers, with the most influential ones provided by Martin (1984), Swales (1990), Bhatia (1993).

Martin (1984) has given a definition of genre from the perspective of Systemic Functional linguistics, which acknowledges genre as "staged, goal-oriented social processes, structural forms that cultures use in certain contexts to achieve various purposes" (Martin, 1984). His definition takes social context into consideration and combines form and function together.

As one of the most prominent scholars in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Swales' definition of genre goes like this:

"*A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constraints choice of the content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action*".
(Swales, 1990)

Regarded as the most authoritative one and frequently quoted by scholars, this definition emphasizes the role of communicative purposes which is established in specific contexts and serves as the rationale of a genre. It is communicative purpose that turns a class of communicative events into a genre and influences the structure of a genre as well as the choices of content and style.

Similar to Swales' definition, Bhatia confirms the importance of communicative purposes in his definition and regards genre as "a recognized communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. Most of it is highly highly structured and conventionalized with constrains" (Bhatia, 1993).

Genre analysis and Swales' move-step analysis

Genre analysis aims to study the communicative purposes of a discourse and the strategies used to achieve these purposes (秦秀白，2000). It is "the study of situated linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional settings, whichever way one may look at it, whether in terms of typifications of rhetorical action, regularities of staged goal oriented social processes or consistency of communicative purposes" (Bhatia, 1997). Genre analysis puts emphasis on communicative purposes. It tries to find out the rationale behind each communicative event and investigate how it determines the schematic structure of a discourse and influences the lexical and syntactic choices of the text (罗怡, 2004). Since genre analysis is employed to explore communicative goals and strategies of a discourse in academic and professional settings, it is a good practice to applying genre analysis to analyzing the texts of ESP.

As an important type of ESP genre analysis, Swales' genre analysis aims to consider the communicative purposes of the texts by categorizing the discourse units in sections of research articles according to their communicative purposes, thus providing implications for the teaching and learning of language (李俊儒, 2009). In genre analysis, the general organizational patterns of texts are considered as involving a series of moves, with each move containing a number of steps with which the move is realized. The CARS model whose full name is Creating a Research Model, is proposed by Swales to examine the rhetorical structure of the introductions of research articles. After investigating introductory sections of 48 English research articles, Swales (1990) identified the organizational pattern of introduction sections in research articles:

Move 1: Establishing a territory

Step 1: claiming centrality

Step 2: making topic generalizations

Step 3: reviewing items of previous research

Move 2: Establishing a niche

Step 1: counter-claiming

Step 2: indicating a gap

Step 3: question-raising

Step 4: continuing a tradition

Move 3: Occupying a niche

Step 1: outlining purposes

Step 2: announcing present research

Step 3: announcing principle findings

Step 4: indicating RA structure

Swales' genre analysis, known as the CARS model, describes the communicative purposes or function of introduction sections in research articles as creating a research space and captures the rhetorical movement of introductions, with each move containing further optional steps/strategies. Swales' CARS model has set a good example of putting genre theory and genre analysis into practice. This paper is going to analyze New Year speeches by American and Chinese presidents from the perspective of genre analysis, finding out the similarities and differences in their structure and content. After the study, the following questions are supposed to be answered:

1. What are the main features of American leaders' New Year speeches from the perspective of genre analysis?

2. What are the main features of Chinese leaders' New Year speeches from the perspective of genre analysis?

3. What are the similarities and differences of American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches?

Genre analysis of American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches

In order to make a contrastive study of American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches in terms of their general textual struture, this study utilizes the theory of genre analysis. As for the research data, this study collects 10 New Year speeches made by the leaders of these two countries from 2008 to 2017 as research data. In this study, two corpora are founded through random sampling. Corpus 1 include 5 New Year speeches delivered by American presidents and corpus 2 is comprised of 5 New Year speeches delivered by Chinese presidents. Considering the representativeness of research data, the texts of New Year speeches in this study are downloaded from reliable websites whose sources are offered at the appendix part and their authenticity is ensured by comparing them with data from other websites which

provide the same information. When collecting New Year speeches, only those texts of New Year blessings delivered at the end of the last year or at the beginning of the new year are collected. More importantly, the deliverer of these New Year speeches cannot be anyone else but American or Chinese leaders. Therefore, highly relevant to the research objective of the study, the research data are representative and valid. In this chapter, these two corpora are analyzed with genre analysis respectively so as to capture the rhetorical movement of American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches.

3. 1. Genre analysis of New Year speeches by American president

By analyzing all the speeches in corpus 1, three moves are identified in New Year speeches delivered by American president, with each move accomplished by several steps. All the moves and steps are presented as follows:

Move 1: Expressing greetings and New Year wishes

Move 2: Conducting a review of the past and looking to the future

    Step 1: Outlining the difficulties and achievements in the past

    Step 2: Expressing gratitude the public

    Step 3: Identifying the current challenges and tasks

    Step 4: Building confidence in the future and inspiring the public

Move 3: Delivering New Year wishes again

All the New Year speeches made by American leaders involve the three moves above, and they can be regarded as virtually obligatory moves. These moves are realized by some steps but not all the steps always appear in speeches. Therefore, a typical New Year speech delivered by American leaders usually includes three parts: the lead-in, the main body and the wind-up.

Move 1: Expressing greetings and New Year wishes

It is typical of speakers to greet to the audience at the beginning of their speech. Moreover, since this is a New Year speech, it is polite of leaders to deliver their wishes to the audience. Thus there exists the lead-in part where leaders express their greetings and New Year wishes to the public. This is achieved by the first sentence of leaders' speeches. Three examples are listed here:

"Good evening. Tonight, as Americans across the country gather with family and friends, I want to wish everyone a happy and healthy New Year." (2009)

"Hello, everybody. As 2011 comes to an end and we look ahead to 2012, I want to wish everyone a happy and healthy New Year." (2012)

"Happy New Year, everybody. I am fired up for the year that stretches out before us."(2016)

Move 2: Conducting a review of the past and looking to the future

In order to welcome the New Year with full preparation, American leaders need to look back and reflect on the past year, realizing what has been done and what remains to be done. At the same time, they look to the future in order to be hopeful and motivated. Various steps

can be employed to accomplish this move.

Step 1: Outlining the difficulties and achievements in the past

American leaders sometimes outline the difficulties in the past and claim they have been successfully solved so as to emphasize what great achievements the country has made. For example, President Obama stated in his New Year speech of 2017, "*Just eight years ago, as I prepared to take office, our economy teetered on the brink of depression. Nearly 800,000 Americans were losing their jobs each month. In some communities, nearly one in five folks were out of work*". In his New Year speech of 2016, he also mentioned "*Seven years ago, our businesses were losing 800,000 jobs a month*", "*Seven years ago, too many Americans went without health insurance*", "*Seven years ago, there were only two states in America with marriage equality*" ……

These difficulties serve as a big contrast to achievements. When the public are told these difficulties and how they are solved, they trust the competence of the government and feel grateful for what the government has done.

At the same time, the summary of achievement is included, which verifies the competence and efforts of the government. Realizing that their country is becoming better and stronger, the public will feel proud of their government and hopeful of the future. Some examples are presented here:

"*We are, however, riding a few months of economic news that suggests our recovery is gaining traction.*" (2011)

"*We ended one war and began to wind down another. ... And we began to see signs of economic recovery here at home*" (2012)

"*We've now covered more than 17 million people, dropping the rate of the uninsured below 10% for the very first time ... America is a global leader in the fight against climate change.*" (2016)

"*Our businesses have created 15.6 million new jobs since early 2010 – and we've put more people back to work than all other major advanced economies combined. ... Poverty is falling. Incomes are rising.*" (2017)

Step 2: Showing appreciation for the public

The government and the public is an integral part and they cannot be separate from each other. Only if they cooperate with each other will a better country come into being. Therefore, it is appropriate for leaders not to forget the efforts of the public and show gratitude to the public. For example, in his New Year speech of 2017, President Obama expressed his gratitude to the public, "At a time when we turn the page on one year and look ahead to the future, I just want to take a minute to thank you for everything you've done to make America stronger these past eight years".

Step 3: Specifying the current challenges and tasks

It is not enough for leaders to outline the achievements that have been made; what's more, they need to point out the current challenges that the country are faced with and the tasks that the public are going to carry out. This step is frequently included as well. American leaders stated clearly in most New Year speeches:

"*Where will new innovations come from? ... What will it take to see the American Dream come true for our children and grandchildren?*" (2011)

"And as we head into the New Year, I'm hopeful that we have what it takes to face that change and come out even stronger – to grow our economy, create more jobs, and strengthen the middle class" (2012)

"And we've got so much more to do ... That's what this American project is all about. That's especially true for one piece of unfinished business, that's our epidemic of gun violence" (2016)

"And to keep America moving forward is a task that falls to all of us. Sustaining and building on all we've achieved ... to protecting this planet for our kids – that's going to take all of us working together" (2017)

Mentioning current challenges and tasks reminds the public of what they are faced with at present and what they are going to struggle for in the next year.

Step 4: Building confidence in the future and inspiring the public

In order to encourage the public to keep confident in the future and to strive for a better society in the New Year, American leaders tend to include inspiring statements in their New Year speeches:

"We must also look back on this year with the knowledge that brighter days are ahead of us ... It is that spirit that has kept the American Dream alive for generations, and it is that spirit that will keep it alive for generations to come" (2009)

"And if we just remember what America is capable of, and live up to that legacy, ... and we do what it takes to make sure America remains in the 21st century what it was in the 20th: the greatest country in the world" (2011)

Move 3: Delivering New Year wishes again

Similar to their lead-in part, American leaders always ends up their New Year Speeches with New Year wishes again, such as *"Happy New Year, everyone", "Thanks for listening. And Happy New Year"* and *"From the Obama family to yours – have a happy and blessed 2017".*

Genre analysis of New Year speeches by Chinese president

Through the analysis of all the speeches in corpus 2, the study has found that three moves are involved in Chinese leaders' New Year speech and each move is realized by several steps, as shown in table 3:

Move 1: Expressing New Year wishes
Move 2: Conducting a review of the past and looking to the future
Step 1: Reviewing both happy and sad moments in the past year
Step 2: Expressing gratitude to the public
Step 3: identifying present challenges and tasks
Step 4: Showing concern towards the world
Step 5: Building confidence in the future and inspiring the public
Move 3: Delivering New Year wishes again/ expressing gratitude for listening

Move 1: Expressing New Year wishes

At the beginning of their New Year speeches, Chinese leaders deliver their New Year wishes to various group of people, including people of all ethnical group in China, compatriots in the Hong Kong and Macao Special Administrative Region, compatriots in Taiwan and overseas Chinese, as well as friends all over the world. This move can be demonstrated with the following example:

"We'll soon usher in the year 2014 with great hopes. As the new year begins, let us also start anew. I'm delighted to extend New Year wishes to Chinese people of all ethnic groups, to compatriots in the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, the Macao Special Administrative Region and Taiwan, to overseas Chinese and to friends all over the world!" (2014)

Move 2: Conducting a review of the past and looking to the future

In the second part of their New Year speeches, Chinese leaders conduct a review of the past, getting the public understand what the country has gone through and what changes have taken place in this country. Besides, they look to the future, pointing out the direction of future efforts and making the public feel confident and hopeful of building a better society.

Step 1: Reviewing both happy and sad moments in the past year

One step to realize move 2 is to look back both happy and sad moments in the past year. The happy moments include great achievements and progress, as well as important events, while the sad moments are those natural or social disasters. This review can remind the public to cherish the present life and move forward at the same time. The following quotations are two examples representing happy moments:

"China has strengthened friendly exchanges and pragmatic cooperation with the rest of the world ... and financial stability, improving economic management and resolving international and regional hot issues." (2012)

"In the past year, we enhanced our cooperation and exchanges with countries in the world. We hosted the informal leadership meeting of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Organization in Beijing. Chinese leaders visited many countries and received many foreign leaders." (2015)

The mentioning of happy moments make the public realize the increasing development of the country and feel proud and hopeful. However, some sad moments are also recorded from which the public could learn a lesson and continue move on. For example,

"We remember the more than 150 Chinese compatriots still missing after the loss of the Malaysian Airline flight MH370 ... The Ludian earthquake in Yunnan Province claimed more than 600 lives." (2015)

"The capsizing of the "Eastern Star" ferry, the major fire and explosions at Tianjin Port, the Shenzhen landslide and other accidents have taken the lives of many of our countrymen. And some countrymen were brutally killed by terrorists." (2016)

"In the year of 2016, natural disasters and industrial accidents took place in many places across China ... On the international front, a few comrades from China's peacekeeping troops have sacrificed their lives while serving their duty to safeguard world peace" (2017)

Step 2: Expressing gratitude to the public

While delivering their New Year speeches, Chinese leaders remember to show their

gratitude to the public because they are clear that those achievements would not be made without the cooperation of the public. Two examples are as follows:

"The achievements have not come easily as they are the result of blood and sweat from all. I'd like to convey my heartfelt gratitude to you all." (2014)

"Of course, those achievements would not have been possible without the support of the people. I would like to salute our great people." (2015)

Step 3: Specifying present challenges and tasks

In order to guide the public to struggle for a better society, Chinese leaders point out the direction of future efforts by outlining the tasks and the goals in the new year. In this way, the public understand what they are supposed to do and how to cooperate with the government to achieve the goals. For example, the public need to make efforts to fulfill these goals, including *"We will work with passion to improve their well-being, with efforts focusing on poverty-alleviation and guaranteeing basic living conditions"* and *"We will continue to comprehensively push forward strict party discipline, never hesitate in improving our work style" (2015)*, *"The whole party and the whole society should show continued care and offer help to those fellow citizens living in poverty. We will enable more people to enjoy the fruit of our reforms, and ultimately let all the people in this country live in happiness" (2017)*.

Step 4: Showing concern towards the world

Chinese leaders tend to show their concern towards the world by referring to some important issues or problems of the world. Indicating China's attitude towards challenges of world peace and development, the leaders appeal for cooperation between countries all over the world in their New Year speeches. For example,

"We call for peace and we sincerely hope that people of all countries can work together to ensure that all people be free from the torture of hunger and cold, and all families from the threat of wars, all the children must flourish under the sun of peace." (2015)

"China will always open its arms to the world and will make all efforts possible to extend our helping hand to the people facing difficulties. I sincerely hope that the international community can work together." (2016)

Step 5: Building confidence in the future and inspiring the public

In order to make the public confident and encourage them to move on in the new year, Chinese leaders usually give some inspiring and encouraging statements before they their speeches come to an end. They inspire the public in the following ways:

"I believe, as long as people of all countries work together, we will surely overcome all kinds of difficulties and risks and continually make new achievements in building a world with lasting peace, common prosperity and harmony." (2012)

"We need to be modest and prudent and work hard together in writing a new chapter for the development of our great nation." (2014)

"May the chime of the New Year consolidate our confidence and re-ignite our aspiration for an even better tomorrow!" (2017)

Move 3: Delivering New Year wishes again/Thanking the public for listening

At the end of New Year speeches, Chinese leaders express their new year wishes again. For example, *"Finally, from here in Beijing, I wish you all happiness, peace and good health*

in the New Year". Another strategy to end speeches for Chinese leaders is to thank the public for listening, such as "*Thank you all*" and "*Thank you*".

Similarities and differences of American and Chinese leaders' New Year Speeches from the perspective of genre analysis

By analyzing New Year speeches made by American and Chinese leaders' with genre analysis, their similarities and differences are discussed in this section. It is apparent that both American and Chinese leaders involve three moves in their New Year speeches, namely expressing New Year wishes at the beginning, conducting a review of the past and looking to the future in the main body, and delivering New Year wishes again or thanking the public for listening in the end. They adopt similar steps in move 1 and move 3. Besides, their speeches share some strategies/steps in move 2. For example, American leaders adopt the strategy of outlining difficulties and achievements in the past, which is congruent with the step 1 in move 2 of Chinese leaders' speeches of corpus 2 where Chinese leaders review both happy and sad moments in the past year. In this step, the leaders of the two countries refer to the unhappy issues and great achievements in the past so as to make the public realize the changes and development of the country and feel proud of their nation. Furthermore, both corpus 1 and corpus 2 include the following steps in move 2: expressing gratitude to the public, identifying present challenges and tasks, and building confidence in the future and inspire the public. All these steps are employed by American and Chinese leaders in their New Year speeches for the sake of communicative purposes. New Year speeches are delivered, on the one hand, to get the public realize what is happening in the country and understand the current conditions of the country; on the other hand, it is made to unit people and encourage them to struggle for a better and stronger nation. Therefore, in order to achieve these communicative goals, leaders need to mention both achievements and challenges in this country, show gratitude to the public and inspire the public so that people will feel proud, hopeful and motivated.

However, there exist some differences in American and Chinese leaders' speeches. One difference is that American leaders just refer to the general public when delivering New Year wishes at the beginning while Chinese leaders list out various groups of people specifically, which can be demonstrated as follows:

"Hello, everybody. As 2011 comes to an end and we look ahead to 2012, I want to wish everyone a happy and healthy New Year." (American, 2012)

"Comrades and friends, ladies and gentlemen: Time flies, Year 2014 is coming to an end and 2015 is approaching. At this turn of the year, I now extend my best wishes to people of all ethnic groups in China, to our compatriots from Hong Kong and Macau Special Administrative Regions, to compatriots in Taiwan and overseas Chinese, as well as to friends in other countries and regions in the world." (Chinese, 2015)

One explanation for this can be that China is a special country and Chinese people may live in all parts of the world, including 56 ethnic groups and Chinese from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan as well as overseas Chinese. Therefore, as members of a nation of rites, Chinese people tend to express their gratitude and wishes to everyone not neglecting anybody, which shows their courtesy and propriety.

Another difference is that Chinese leaders involve the step of showing concern towards the world which is omitted in American leaders' speeches. This related to Chinese traditional culture which advocates benevolence and courtesy. Therefore, Chinese people tend to be concerned about the international issues and show their kindness to foreign friends from various countries.

CONCLUSION

By building two corpus of American and Chinese leaders' New Year speeches and analyzing them with the theory of genre analysis, this study has made a comparison of New Year speeches by leaders of two countries, investigating their similarities and differences. The results show that both American and Chinese leaders involve three typical moves in their New Year speeches: expressing New Year wishes, conducting a review of the past and looking to the future, and delivering New Year wishes again or thanking the public for listening. Moreover, some steps are shared by them in order to achieve communicative purposes, such as outlining difficulties and achievements in the past, showing gratitude to the public, identifying challenges and tasks at present, and inspiring the public to struggle for a better country. However, two differences are discussed. One is that various groups of people are listed out specifically by Chinese leaders because they tend to express wishes to Chinese people who live in different parts of the world, including 56 ethnic groups and Chinese from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan as well as overseas Chinese. The other is that Chinese leaders involve the step of showing concern towards the world which is omitted in American leaders' speeches owing to the effect of Chinese traditional culture.

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EFL LEARNERS' READINESS FOR AND SATISFACTION WITH E-LEARNING IN TURKEY DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

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Abstract

With the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, online learning is a new, and therefore, a challenging experience for most university students in Turkey. Determining whether these students are ready for or satisfied with distance learning practices is essential for the stakeholders of higher education to design and implement it efficiently. This quantitative study aimed at investigating EFL learners' readiness for and satisfaction with web-based English courses in Turkey during the COVID-19 pandemic. It further aimed to examine the role of e-learning readiness on e-learning satisfaction. Data were collected through questionnaires from 169 EFL students taking online English courses at the A1 level in an intensive English programme in a state university in Turkey during the COVID-19 pandemic. Findings revealed that the study sample had an above-average level of readiness for and satisfaction with the English courses they took in virtual environments. Furthermore, e-learning readiness was found to be associated with e-learning satisfaction, and readiness for e-learning successfully predicted satisfaction with it. Important implications for school leaders and instructors are suggested based on the findings.

Keywords: e-learning readiness, e-learning satisfaction, web-based English courses

INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has forced higher education institutions in Turkey to make urgent decisions to continue education online. It is undeniable that this rapid transition to online education has provided instructors and students with a temporary solution to an urgent problem. However, it has brought many challenges with it. Unlike true online education that is purposefully planned from the beginning and deliberately designed to be online, the instruction provided in most universities in Turkey during this emergency was deprived of a careful design and planning process. The major problem was that this sudden transformation was carried out without in-depth research into students' readiness for and satisfaction with e-learning.

Previous research on online learning has mainly focused on the factors influencing learner achievement in virtual learning environments (Bolliger & Halupa, 2018; Shelton et al., 2017; Wei & Chou, 2020; Yang et al., 2017). Other studies have explored the factors underlying students' satisfaction with web-based courses (Asoodar et al., 2016; Liaw & Huang, 2013; Paechter et al., 2010; Wei & Chou, 2020; Weidlich & Bastiaens, 2018; Yilmaz, 2017). Online learning perceptions (Wei & Chou, 2020; Wei et al., 2015), online learning readiness (Hung et al., 2010; Keramati et al., 2011; Rafiee & Abbasian-Naghneh, 2019; Wei & Chou, 2020; Yilmaz, 2017), and expectations (Paechter et al., 2010) were the most researched factors affecting students' success in and satisfaction with online courses. However, minimal research attention has been directed toward how such a sudden shift to online teaching, as in the case of the COVID-19 pandemic in Turkey, has affected the quality of the courses at the tertiary level, especially the ones that require learner-to-learner and learner-to-instructor interactions. Furthermore, the case of foreign language teaching has been scarcely researched.

As Ilgaz and Gülbahar (2015) suggest, assessing to what extent students are ready for and satisfied with e-learning is essential for educators, instructional designers, and the other stakeholders. The former is important for the design, delivery, and implementation of online instruction while the latter is required for the modification and revision of it. In this regard, this quantitative study aims to examine the level of English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners' readiness for and satisfaction with web-based Basic English courses in an intensive English programme in a state university in Turkey. It further aims to examine the impact of students' readiness for online English courses on their satisfaction with them, and thus to contribute to the depth of the research on this topic. The study further intends to provide the teachers and administrative staff with an understanding of the issue so that they may revise their previous practices and decisions and develop them by overcoming pre-existing deficiencies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The widespread use of the internet fostered web-based learning to become an emergent field of research. The number of online courses in universities all over the world has rapidly increased (Wei & Chou, 2020). With the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, e-learning has ceased to become a choice or alternative to face-to-face education; it has turned into a must. There have been numerous studies investigating the factors that have a considerable influence on the success or failure in e-learning, and e-learner readiness and e-learner satisfaction are considered to be among the most critical variables to successful e-learning environments.

E-learning Readiness

E-learning readiness is defined as learners' eagerness and ability to utilise the advantages of online learning resources, multimedia technologies, and the internet. Learners' e-learning readiness is an important indicator of their eagerness to successfully participate and complete the online classes (Demir, 2015; Hung, 2016). It has been reported in the literature that unless students' readiness levels are sufficient, they are likely to fail in e-learning (Moftakhari, 2013).

Belonging to generation Z, born after the millennium, today's university students have been called "digital natives" who have no idea what a world without smartphones and the internet might be like. These students are believed to be ready for e-learning as they use technology well and have self-efficacy in using it (Hao, 2016; Prensky, 2001). However, research shows that this is not the case for all learners because virtual learning environments are technically complex, and self-efficacy in using technology is just one aspect of the e-learning readiness construct (Demir, 2015).

Providing learners with e-learning opportunities and environments may enhance the quality of learning. However, for this to happen, many researchers have highlighted the necessity of institutions', students', and teachers' readiness for e-learning (Akaslan & Law, 2011; Moftakhari 2013). According to Guglielmino and Guglielmino (2003), transforming physical classes into virtual ones abruptly, thus, enforcing the ones who are not ready to learn online, may not help the stakeholders thrive in such virtual learning environments, but rather cause them to hold prejudices against e-learning.

The concept of e-learning readiness was proposed for the first time by Warner et al. (1998). Several theories have been proposed to clarify the notion of being ready for online learning and identify its components (see Watkins et al., 2004; Valtonen et al., 2009; Hung et al., 2010; Dray et al., 2011; Yu & Richardson, 2015). All these studies have displayed that e-learning readiness is a multifaceted concept (Hung et al., 2010; Hung, 2016), and there exist a number of factors related to it. Computer/internet self-efficacy, online-communication self-efficacy, learner control, self-directed learning, and motivation for e-learning have been proposed to be the components common in the majority of the theories related to the notion of e-learning readiness.

Computer self-efficacy is defined as learners' beliefs about themselves as computer users and about their skills to use basic computer programmes (Demir, 2015) while the internet self-efficacy refers to learners' beliefs about their skills in using the internet (Hung et al., 2010). Online communication self-efficacy is learners' beliefs pertaining to their competence in understanding language and culture unique to e-learning environments and their ability to communicate their thoughts in such environments (Demir, 2015; Yurdugül & Alsancak Sırakaya, 2013). Previous studies have emphasized online communication self-efficacy as an essential facet to successful online learning (Demir Kaymak & Horzum, 2013; Gülbahar, 2009; Hung et al., 2010). Self-directed learning stands for a process in which learners take responsibility for their own learning with or without the support of an external source such as a teacher (Demir, 2015). Learner control, a significant component of e-learning readiness, is defined as learners' ability to control and manage their own learning process and act upon their own desires and goals. Finally, motivation toward e-learning refers the desire to learn things online (Demir, 2015).

Previous research shows that the most and consistent correlates of e-learning readiness are motivation toward e-learning and self-directed learning readiness**.** E-learning procedure

requires one to become aware of oneself as an autonomous, independent learner. Also, some students fail in e-learning because they lack the motivation to attend online classes, and they are deprived of skills and strategies to control and manage their learning process (Karaoglan Yılmaz & Keser, 2016; Yılmaz, 2016; Yılmaz & Keser, 2016). Hao's (2016) study is especially important for the present study because it is one of the few numbers of studies conducted with EFL students. By investigating 7th-grade students' readiness for flipped learning in foreign language classrooms, Hao (2016) showed that the five readiness dimensions (from the highest readiness level to the lowest) were technology self-efficacy, motivation for learning, learner control and self-directed learning, in-class communication self-efficacy, and doing previews. The results also revealed that students' characteristics, including their language beliefs and their perceptions regarding their teachers, impacted their flipped learning readiness to different extents. In a different study, Keramati et al. (2011) identified three readiness factors influential on e-learning outcomes: technical factors, organisational factors, and social factors. They found that organisational readiness factor was the most crucial variable for outcomes.

Prior research, some of which have been abovementioned, has mainly aimed to explore and explain the relations between learners' readiness for online courses and course outcomes (see Keramati et al., 2011). Several studies, on the other hand, have shown that e-learning readiness could influence learners' satisfaction with online learning.

E-learning Satisfaction

As students are the primary 'customers' of universities, their satisfaction is considered enormously crucial for higher education institutions (Douglas et al., 2006). Weerasinghe and Fernando (2017) define learner satisfaction as "a short-term attitude resulting from an evaluation of students' educational experience, services and facilities" (p. 533). Existing research has provided evidence for several factors that deemed to be influential on learner satisfaction, such as learning environment, course structure and content, interaction, teaching resources, teacher knowledge, style, support and feedback, individual differences, technological features, and so forth (Eichelberger & Ngo, 2018; Karataş, 2005). According to Sun et al. (2008), identifying critical factors that are influential on students' satisfaction with e-learning may contribute to the design and operation of successful e-learning from a holistic viewpoint and may offer guidelines for e-learning management. Research has provided evidence for certain factors that play a crucial role in e-learners' satisfaction, such as internet self-efficacy, self-regulated learning, and interactive learning environments (Kuo et al., 2014; Liaw & Huang, 2003; Paechter et al., 2010). Given that e-learning satisfaction is complex and multidimensional, recent studies have revealed additional factors influencing it, such as discussion forums and the examinations (Wei & Chou, 2020), students' perceptions regarding online learning and motivation (Chow & Shi, 2014), and students' perceptions regarding their teacher and classmates (Lee et al., 2011).

Similarly, in their study, Sun et al. (2008) investigated the critical factors affecting learners' satisfaction with e-learning. The researchers found seven variables associated with e-learner satisfaction: learner computer anxiety, instructor attitude toward e-learning, e-learning course flexibility, course quality, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and diversity in the assessment. They mentioned that these seven factors could explain 66.1% of the variance of user satisfaction, and course quality was the most critical variable. Beqiri et al. (2009) carried out a similar study to determine what factors contributed to learners' satisfaction with e-learning. They elicited that when students had positive attitudes toward online technologies and had technological self-efficacy, they were more likely to be satisfied with the instruction

they had. In another study, Palmer and Holt (2009) found that learners' satisfaction was closely related to the fulfilment of their expectations regarding what was required to succeed in the unit. The other two factors that they found to positively affect learner satisfaction were self-confidence about their ability to communicate and learn online, and their teachers' feedback on how well they were performing in the unit.

E-learning Readiness and Course Satisfaction

Over time, an extensive literature has developed on determining the effect of e-learning readiness on e-learning satisfaction. In a recent study, Yılmaz (2017) investigated the impact of e-learning readiness on learner satisfaction in the flipped classroom model of instruction. He found that learning readiness and its five components, namely computer/internet self-efficacy, self-directed learning, learner control, motivation for learning, and online communication self-efficacy, were significant predictors of course satisfaction. In a similar study, Wei and Chou (2020) investigated whether college students' e-learning readiness and its five above-mentioned components impacted their online learning satisfaction. Contrary to the findings of prior studies, self-directed learning was not a significant predictor of learner satisfaction. However, in line with prior research (see Bolliger & Halupa, 2012; Kuo et al., 2013; Yilmaz, 2017; Wei & Chou, 2020), they reported that computer/internet self-efficacy and motivation for learning were critical variables to learner satisfaction.

The Present Study

The literature review reveals that studies of e-learning readiness and e-learning satisfaction are well documented. It is also well acknowledged that students' satisfaction with e-learning is related to their readiness for it. However, the two emerging fields of study seem to be under-researched in the field of English language teaching (ELT). Therefore, the major aim of the present study is to address these issues by using a quantitative design to investigate the following research questions:

1. What is the level of readiness of university students for web-based English courses they take in an intensive English programme in a state university in Turkey?

2. What is the level of university students' satisfaction with web-based English courses they take in an intensive English programme in a state university in Turkey?

3. What is the correlation between university students' e-learning readiness and e-learning satisfaction?

4. What is the role of e-learning readiness on e-learning satisfaction?

METHODOLOGY

This study was designed as a survey study to measure tertiary-level EFL students' levels of e-learning readiness and e-learning satisfaction and to identify the role of e-learning readiness on e-learning satisfaction.

Participants and Setting

The study sample consisted of EFL students taking online English courses at the A1 level in an intensive English programme in a state university in Turkey during the 2020-2021 academic year. Of the 460 enrolled students from 31 classes, 169 students completed the online survey with a return rate of 36%. Of the participants, 87 (51.5%) were male, and 82 (48.5%) were female, with an age range of 17 to 52 (M=20.17).

Educational Setting and Design

During the 2020-2021 academic year, physical classes were turned into the online ones within the scope of COVID-19 measures in the preparatory school that the study was conducted. In line with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), a modular system was being implemented during the implementation of the current study. For the A1 module, 18 hours for General English classes and 6 hours for Writing Skills classes were allocated.

General English classes were synchronous, so the instructors and students got online at the same time, studied the course content together, and interacted with each other in various activities. The course content was mainly based on the A1 level descriptors in the CEFR. The students and instructors studied a coursebook through its online platform. To improve their language skills, reading, writing, listening, and speaking activities were practiced by asking and answering questions, giving short speeches, and writing short texts on general topics.

Writing Skills courses were designed in a blended model, in which students first watched the lecture videos recorded by their instructors. For this course, a written course material prepared by the instructors in the institution was utilised. Each video was based on a chapter in the writing syllabus and explained how to write sentences and paragraphs. Upon watching the videos, the students attended synchronous writing classes to review the subject with their instructor and ask their questions. In the synchronous writing classes, the students were asked to practice activities, write sentences, and paragraphs on the topics presented. The activities were arranged according to their level and mainly focused on sentence structure and basic paragraph structure.

Both courses were carried out by using Microsoft Teams as the primary videoconferencing system. For the online examinations, assignments, and submissions of them, teachers and students utilised Google Classroom. Students' achievements for the courses in the A1 module were measured through the two online writing tasks and the exercises they completed online on the digital platform used.

Data Collection Tools

Data were collected through an online survey. The survey included questions on demographics and two scales developed by Gülbahar (2012): the e-Readiness Scale and the e-Satisfaction Scale. Both scales were 5-point Likert scales from 1 "almost never" to 5 "almost always". There are several important reasons for choosing these scales to measure students' e-readiness and e-satisfaction in the study. First, the scales in question were developed by the same researcher to measure the two variables that were specifically investigated in this study. Therefore, they were quite compatible with the main purpose of the study. Second, the scales were originally developed in Turkish, the mother tongue of the current study sample. Finally, Gülbahar (2012) conducted both explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses, and the items and structures were rearranged according to the results to ensure the validity of the scales.

The e-Readiness Scale

The e-Readiness scale was used in this study to examine the degree of participants' readiness for online English courses. By reviewing the related literature and examining previous scales, Gülbahar (2012) developed 26 items in five different constructs: _individual properties, access to technology, ICT competencies, motivation and attitude_ and _factors that affect success_. Since factor analyses were conducted by Gülbahar (2012) previously, and the original scale was used without any change, no validity measure was implemented in the current study. In

terms of reliability, Cronbach's alpha (α) internal consistency reliability coefficient for the scale was calculated as 0.87. Thus, the scale was found to be reliable for the present study.

The e-Satisfaction Scale

The e-Satisfaction scale was used to examine the degree of participants' satisfaction with the online English courses they took in the A1 module. Gülbahar (2012) developed this scale by reviewing the literature and examining other scales used by other researchers or institutions. As a result of explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses of the preliminary items, some items were deleted. Finally, the scale included 29 items in four different constructs: *communication and usability, teaching process, instructional content,* and *interaction and evaluation*. The items were originally created in Turkish, and no change was made on the items for the current study. Therefore, the validity of the scale was not assessed in the current study. The Cronbach's alpha (α) internal consistency reliability coefficient for the scale was calculated as 0.90. Therefore, this scale was also reliable for the study.

Data Collection Procedure

During the data collection phase, a consent form, questions on demographic information and the two scales were uploaded on an online questionnaire tool. Then the link was sent to all students at the school with the help of the other instructors. The link was accessible for the students for two weeks in December 2020. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, the content of the questionnaires, and ethical considerations. After giving their consent to join the study, the participants could fill in the demographic information part and the questionnaires. It approximately took 30 minutes for a student to complete all the parts.

Data Analysis

The statistical analysis of the quantitative data was conducted with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS), version 25.0. Descriptive analyses were conducted to present basic information about the sample and address the first and second research questions. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was performed to answer the third research question. Pearson's correlation is used to measure the strength and direction of the association which exists between two variables (Kornbrot, 2005). Therefore, it was conducted to examine the association between e-learner readiness and e-learner satisfaction. Simple linear regression analysis was employed to address the fourth research question. This analysis is used to estimate the impact of an independent variable on the dependent variable. In the current study, it was used to investigate whether online learning readiness predicted online learning satisfaction or not.

RESULTS

The following sections present the key findings of the current study obtained from the two scales.

Research Question 1: What is the level of readiness of university students for web-based an intensive English programme in a state university in Turkey?

This section presents the data gathered through the e-Readiness Scale regarding the first research question. The descriptive statistics for the scale are presented in Table 1 below. As the table shows, *ICT competencies,* which included items about the participants' ICT competencies, such as using a computer, the internet, and some other online learning tools, had the highest mean score (M=4.32, SD=.645). The subscale *motivation and attitude,* on the other hand, had the lowest mean score (M=3.46, SD=.797).

The first factor involved in the e-Readiness Scale was the students' *individual properties*. As shown in Table 2, item 4 had the highest mean score (M=4.33, SD=.94), indicating that most of the students were willing to allocate 3-4 hours a week for each course to study. In the same factor, item 3 had the lowest mean score (M=3.13, SD=1.12). Compared to item 2 (M=3.69, SD=1.09), which was about the students' preferences for synchronous classes, the relatively lower mean score of item 3 revealed that the students preferred synchronous classes to asynchronous classes.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for the e-Readiness Scale

Subscale	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Individual Properties	169	1.75	5.00	3.61	.645
Access to technology	169	1.25	5.00	4.00	.945
ICT Competencies	169	1.63	5.00	4.32	.689
Motivation and attitude	169	1.00	5.00	3.46	.797
Factors affecting success	169	1,67	5.00	4.17	.603

The descriptive statistics for the second factor *access to technology* showed that most participants had unrestricted access to technology. Item 5 had the highest mean score (M=4.37, SD=.93), and item 6 had the second highest mean score (M=4.35, SD=1.17). These results showed that most students had internet access and could join online classes at home without having any problems.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the e-Readiness Scale Items

Factor	Items	M	SD	Min.	Max.	Total f / %
Individual properties	1	3.30	1.45	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	2	3.69	1.09	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	3	3.13	1.12	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	4	4.33	.94	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
Access to technology	5	4.37	.93	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	6	4.35	1.17	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	7	3.59	1.42	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	8	3.70	1.29	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	9	4.17	.94	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	10	4.15	.97	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	11	4.24	1.01	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
ICT competencies	12	3.92	.99	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	13	4.56	.80	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	14	4.52	.79	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	15	4.51	.86	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	16	4.52	.66	2.00	5.00	169 / 100
Motivation and attitude	17	3.44	1.14	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	18	3.82	1.03	1.00	5.00	169 / 100

	19	3.64	1.01	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	20	2.94	1.19	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	21	4.42	.89	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	22	4.56	.72	2.00	5.00	169 / 100
Factors affecting success	23	4.36	.92	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	24	4.07	.96	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	25	4.18	.89	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	26	3.43	1.18	1.00	5.00	169 / 100

The third factor in the e-Readiness Scale was *ICT competencies*. The mean scores of the items in this subscale ranged between 3.92 and 4.56. Item 13, with the highest mean score, (M=4.56; SD=.80) showed that almost all the students had basic computer skills for online learning. The results of the other items also indicated that the participants were capable of using search engines and social networking sites. Besides, they stated that they had self-confidence in both using the computer and the internet and reaching the information online. In this factor, item 12, which was about using office programmes for content presentation, had the relatively lowest mean score (M=3.92, SD=.99).

Regarding students' *motivation and attitude*, item 18 in which participants responded that they could complete their assignments on time despite the distractions in online learning had the highest mean score (M=3.82, SD=1.03). As a striking result, item 20 had the lowest score (M=2.94, SD=1.19). This item was about the students' beliefs in the efficacy of online learning, and it had the lowest score of all the items on the scale. This finding showed that most of the participants had some concerns about the efficacy of e-learning.

The final subscale of the e-Readiness Scale was *factors affecting success*. Item 22, with the highest mean score (M=4.56, SD=0.72), showed that the participants attached great importance to support in technical and administrative matters for their success. Item 21, with the second highest score (M=4.42, SD=.89), indicated that according to the participants, continuous and easy communication with their instructor was a key factor affecting their success. Item 26, which was related to discussing issues online with other individuals, had the lowest score in this subscale (M=3.43, SD=1.18). The relatively low of score of the item showed that most participants were not very comfortable in online discussions.

Research Question 2: What is the level of university students' satisfaction with web-based English courses they take in an intensive English programme in a state university in Turkey?

In this section, the participants' data, which were collected through the e-Satisfaction Scale, regarding the second research question are presented. For the descriptive statistics of the subscales, see Table 3. In this scale, two subscales, *communication and usability* (M=4.24, SD=.603) and *instructional content* (M=4.24, SD=.795), had the highest mean score, and the subscale *interaction and evaluation factor* had the lowest one (M=3.77, SD=876) (see Table 4 for the descriptive statistics for the items in each subscale).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for E-Satisfaction Scale

Subscale	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Communication and usability	169	1.86	5.00	4.24	.603
Teaching process	169	1.75	5.00	3.97	.764
Instructional content	169	1.0	5.0	4.24	.795
Interaction and evaluation	169	1.0	5.0	3.77	.876

The first dimension of the e-Satisfaction Scale, *communication and usability,* includes items regarding the communication during the online learning and usability of the online tools. Items 2 (M=4.45, SD=.73) and 4 (M=4.40, SD=.79), which were related to the online learning platforms used during online classes, had the highest mean score. These results showed that the participants found online learning platform Microsoft Teams user-friendly. In this subscale, item 7, which was about whether different ICT tools were used to support the classroom activities and assignments during web-based distance education, had the lowest mean score (M=3.83, SD=1.12).

The second dimension*, teaching process,* was related to the teaching process and the instructors. Item 13 had the highest mean score (M=4.39, SD=.81), showing that the participants received timely and explanatory feedback from their instructors on their assignments and classroom activities. The items with the lowest mean scores were 8 (M=3.48, SD=1.25) and 10 (M=3.50, SD=1.28), respectively. Findings of these items revealed that students needed more explanation of how to study for online courses and more asynchronous learning opportunities if they could not participate in synchronous courses.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for E-Satisfaction Scale

Factor	Items	M	SD	Min.	Max.	Total f / %
Communication and usability	1	4.30	.80	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	2	4.45	.73	2.00	5.00	169 / 100
	3	4.30	.76	2.00	5.00	169 / 100
	4	4.40	.79	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	5	4.05	.94	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	6	4.38	.77	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	7	3.83	1.12	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	8	3.48	1.25	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	9	4.00	1.07	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	10	3.50	1.28	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
Teaching process	11	4.08	1.09	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	12	3.78	1.23	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	13	4.39	.81	2.00	5.00	169 / 100
	14	4.26	.94	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	15	4.23	.90	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	16	4.19	.86	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
Instructional content	17	4.21	.93	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	18	4.32	.89	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	19	4.25	.93	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
Interaction and evaluation	20	3.97	1.09	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
	21	3.42	1.31	1.00	5.00	169 / 100

22	3.21	1.38	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
23	3.30	1.27	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
24	3.71	1.22	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
25	3.79	1.08	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
26	3.64	1.18	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
27	4.06	1.13	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
28	4.36	.90	1.00	5.00	169 / 100
29	4.23	1.00	1.00	5.00	169 / 100

In the *instructional content* dimension, all the mean scores for subscales were higher than 4.00. These results provided evidence for the participants' satisfaction with the content of the online courses. As shown in Table 4, item 18 had the highest mean score (M=4.32, SD=.89), showing that course contents were presented clearly and comprehensibly. Also, the result of item 19 (M=4.25, SD=.93) revealed similar findings and indicated that the course materials were sufficient, updated, and appropriate.

The final subscale in the e-Satisfaction Scale was *interaction and evaluation.* The highest mean score (M=4.36, SD=.90) belonged to item 28, which demonstrated that the time limitations for completing assignments and tasks were appropriate. Items 29 (M=4.23, SD=1.00) and 27 (M=4.06, SD=1.13) were about the evaluation criteria. The relatively high mean scores of these items revealed that the evaluation criteria were clear and fair for the participants. On the other hand, item 22 with the lowest mean score (M=3.21, SD=1.38) showed that some participants were not satisfied with the opportunities provided to create interaction among students in virtual learning environments.

Research Question 3: What is the correlation between university students' e-learning readiness and e-learning satisfaction?

In order to examine the relationship between the participants' e-learning readiness and e-learning satisfaction, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation test was utilised. The results revealed that students' e-learning readiness had a moderate significant correlation (r=.557, p< .01) with their e-learning satisfaction (see Table 5). Students who reported to be more ready for e-learning were more satisfied with it.

Table 5. The Correlation Analysis between E-readiness and E-learning Satisfaction

		E-readiness	E-satisfaction
E-readiness	Pearson Correlation	1	.557[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	169	169
E-satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.557[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	169	169

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

Research Question 4: What is the role of e-learning readiness on e-learning satisfaction?

To answer research question 4 and examine whether e-readiness predicts e-learning satisfaction, a simple linear regression was calculated. A significant regression equation was

found (F (1, 167)=75,193, p< .000) with an R^2 of .310 (see Table 6). Results of the regression analysis revealed that students' e-readiness predicted their satisfaction with e-learning successfully. More clearly, e-readiness explained %31 variance regarding the students' satisfaction with e-learning.

Table 6. Regression Analysis Summary for E-readiness Predicting E-satisfaction

Variable	B	β	t	P
Constant	1.001		2.865	.005
E-readiness	.752	.557	8.671	.000

Note: R^2adjusted = 0.31

DISCUSSION

The present study investigated EFL learners' e-readiness for and satisfaction with online English courses and examined the role of e-readiness on e-learning satisfaction. Regarding e-learning readiness, our results demonstrated that although the means of the factors differed somewhat, in general, the students held an above average level of readiness for web-based distance English courses. The group-wise comparisons indicated that the highest level of readiness was in *ICT competencies*, and followed by *access to technology.*

According to Wei and Chou (2020), technology-related self-efficacy has a direct influence on course satisfaction. Together, the present findings confirm the findings of prior studies in that today's university students are highly competent in using ICT tools (Hao, 2016; Hung et al., 2010; Valtonen et al., 2009). The study participants were found to have basic computer skills and technology self-efficacy, which in turn facilitated their adaptation to the e-learning process and seemed to increase their satisfaction with it. It was seen that most participants were willing to devote sufficient time to online learning, and they had no problem with access to technology.

The lowest readiness level, on the other hand, was in *motivation and attitudes* dimension. This result ties nicely with the findings of Huo's (2016) study wherein participants' motivation and positive attitudes towards online learning were relatively low. In the present study, some students were uncomfortable with engaging in online discussions. Besides, they were concerned about the efficacy of virtual learning environments when compared to traditional classroom environments. This is consistent with what Forsey et al. (2013) and Wilson (2013) found in their studies. One possible explanation for this finding may be that as digital natives these students can use online technologies for exploring, communicating, and socializing in their daily lives. However, using these technologies for academic life during online learning is still quite a new area for them in which they had no or very little experience. Therefore, as also proposed by Asoodar et al. (2016), the technical and administrative support they got and their positive relationship with their instructors were essential to success in online teaching.

Considering e-learning satisfaction, the mean scores of the four factors showed slight differences, but the participants had an above average level of satisfaction with online English courses. The group-wise comparisons revealed that students had the highest satisfaction with *communication and usability* and *instructional content dimensions* and lowest satisfaction with *interaction and evaluation dimension*. The participants found the learning platform, Microsoft Teams, user-friendly, received timely and explanatory feedback from their instructors, felt satisfied with the course content and the way it was presented. Course materials were sufficient, updated, and appropriate for e-learning, and evaluation criteria were clear and fair. On the other hand, one point that students were relatively less satisfied with

was the insufficient use of various ICT tools in virtual learning environments. Furthermore, compatible with Valtonen et al. (2009), lack of interaction with peers was a limitation of distance education in the present study. Many other studies have shown that interaction with the instructor, peers, and content is essential to satisfaction (Asoodar et al., 2016; Kuo et al. 2014; Liaw & Huang, 2013). Our results lead to a similar conclusion that students were satisfied with the interaction they had with their instructors and the course content. However, from the results, it was also clear that they needed more interaction opportunities with their peers. Overall these findings are in accordance with findings reported by Yukselturk and Yildirim (2008), who found that interaction among learners decreased throughout the online learning process, while the interaction between the learner and the instructor remained the same.

Also, our results provide evidence for the claims of Asoodar (2016) and Lee et al. (2011) that perceived instructional and technical support was significantly related to students' overall satisfaction with the online courses. As previously mentioned, participants seemed to benefit from their instructors' feedback on assignments and activities; however, it was also seen that they needed helpful guidance on how to study for online courses. They also asked for asynchronous learning opportunities in case they could not participate in synchronous classes.

Finally, this study revealed a moderate significant relationship between students' e-learning readiness and e-learning satisfaction, which showed that e-readiness was associated with e-learning satisfaction. This finding confirmed the findings of past studies about this association and showed that students' overall readiness for e-learning was a significant predictor of their satisfaction with web-based English courses (see Yilmaz, 2017; Kuo et al., 2014).

CONCLUSION

The present study investigated EFL learners' readiness for and satisfaction with web-based English courses in the Turkey context during the COVID-19 pandemic. It further examined whether e-learning readiness was associated with e-learning satisfaction. From the analysis, several key findings emerged. First of all, study participants had an above average level of readiness for and satisfaction with the English courses they took in virtual environments. Secondly, our findings were consistent with research showing that e-learning readiness was associated with e-learning satisfaction, and readiness for e-learning successfully predicted the satisfaction with e-learning. The main conclusion drawn from these findings is that the more prepared students are to learn online, the more they get from the instruction they receive in virtual environments. Although students' readiness is not the only criterion or predictor of satisfaction, it is a prerequisite for satisfaction, which is in turn essential to achievement. However, future investigations are necessary to validate the kinds of conclusions that can be drawn from this study.

Considering that online teaching has turned into a reality and a necessity rather than a choice for today and afterward, our findings have important implications for school administrators and instructors working with tertiary level learners. In order to increase learners' efficacy in and satisfaction with web-based learning, first of all, it is necessary to determine their readiness for it. Although today's university students are skilled and interested in using technology in their daily lives, they seem to need guidance and training on how to use it for academic purposes. In addition, they have some concerns about the efficacy of web-based programs. Instead of adapting existing curricula and materials, designing them from scratch for online teaching and offering more web-based tools and applications to students can be useful steps for educators and school administrators to take in order to turn these concerns into positive experiences. Finally, there has been a significant decrease in students' interaction

with their peers in web-based distance education. However, this can also be turned into an important opportunity by teachers to encourage their students to use the technological tools, which they currently use to communicate in their daily lives, for academic purposes.

Like any research, the present study has some limitations. First, only quantitative data were collected from a limited number of EFL students, making it difficult to make broad generalizations of the results within Turkey and beyond. Future research can reach a larger sample size and apply mixed methods designs to better understand the nature of e-learner readiness and satisfaction. Furthermore, the findings discussed depend on data collected from only one school context. Future studies may extend and vary their sample by collecting data from students studying at different school contexts to arrive at broader generalisations.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: The e-Readiness Scale Items (Turkish Version)

Kişisel Özellikler	1.	e-Öğrenme sürecinde derslere işyerimden katılabilirim.
	2.	e-Öğrenme sürecinde daha çok eş-zamanlı (sanal sınıf, sohbet vb.) etkinlikleri tercih ederim.
	3.	e-Öğrenme sürecinde daha çok farklı-zamanlı (video kayıtları, forum vb.) etkinlikleri tercih ederim.
	4.	Haftada en az 3-4 saat her bir derse sanal ortamda katılmak için zaman ayırabilirim.
Teknolojiye Erişim	5.	e-Öğrenme sürecinde derslere evden katılabilirim.
	6.	İnternet bağlantısı bulunan bir bilgisayara erişimim var.
	7.	Erişim sağladığım bilgisayar oldukça yeni bir teknolojiye sahiptir (kulaklık, mikrofon, kamera vb.).
	8.	Erişim sağladığım bilgisayarda gerekli tüm yazılımlar rahatlıkla çalışır (Ofis, Acrobat Reader, Flash vb.).
Teknik Beceriler	9.	e-Öğrenme yöntemi ile öğrenebilecek düzeyde bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini kullanmayı biliyorum.
	10.	Bilgisayar ve İnternet kullanımı konusunda kendime güvenirim.
	11.	Bilgisayara ilişkin temel işlemler (dosya oluşturma, kaydetme, kopyalama, dizin oluşturma vb.) için gerekli becerilere sahibim.
	12.	İçerik iletimi ve sunumu için ofis programlarını rahatlıkla kullanabilirim.
	13.	İnternet kullanımına ilişkin (arama yapma, siteye kayıt olma vb.) temel becerilere sahibim.
	14.	İnternet üzerindeki iletişim araçlarını (e-posta, sohbet, forum vb.) rahatlıkla kullanabilirim.
	15.	Sosyal paylaşım ortamlarını (Facebook, Twitter, Blog, Wiki vb.) rahatlıkla kullanabilirim.
	16.	İnternet servislerini bilgiye erişim için rahatlıkla kullanabilirim.
Motivasyon ve Tutum	17.	Eğitmenle eş-zamanlı etkileşim kuramasam bile tek başıma rahatlıkla çalışabileceğimi düşünüyorum.
	18.	İnternet ortamında çok fazla dikkat dağıtıcı olmasına rağmen çalışmalarımı zamanında tamamlayacağımı düşünüyorum.
	19.	Ders çalıştığım ortamda çok fazla dikkat dağıtıcı olmasına rağmen çalışmalarımı zamanında tamamlayacağımı düşünüyorum.
	20.	e-Öğrenme yöntemi ile çok iyi öğrenebileceğimi düşünüyorum.
Başarıyı Etkileyen Faktörler	21.	Eğitmenle sürekli etkileşim içinde olmak başarım açısından önemlidir.
	22.	Teknik ve idari konularda hızlı destek alabilmek başarım açısından çok önemlidir.
	23.	e-Öğrenme sürecine sık katılım başarılı olmam açısından önemlidir.
	24.	e-Öğrenme sürecinde İnternet teknolojilerine ilişkin deneyimin başarımı etkileyeceğini düşünüyorum.
	25.	Görsel-işitsel materyalleri kullanarak öğrenmem gereken bilgi ve becerileri kazanacağımı düşünüyorum.
	26.	İnternet ortamında diğer bireylerle rahatlıkla tartışabileceğimi düşünüyorum.

İletişim ve Kullanışlılık	1. Dersin yönetimi için kullanılan "Öğretim Yönetim Sistemi" (Microsoft Teams & Google Classroom) öğrenci ihtiyaçlarını karşılamaktaydı.
	2. Ders işlemek için kullanılan sanal sınıf ortamı (Microsoft Teams) kolayca kullanılabilmekteydi.
	3. ÖYS (Microsoft Teams & Google Classroom) içerisindeki bağlantılar, site içi gezintiyi kolaylaştıracak biçimde tasarlanmıştı.
	4. ÖYS (Microsoft Teams & Google Classroom) kolay kullanılabilir bir arayüze sahipti.
	5. Ders içeriği kapsamında aradığım tüm bilgilere hızlıca ulaşabildim.
	6. Öğretim içeriği haftalık veya modüler şekilde organize edilmişti.
	7. Ders etkinlikleri ve ödevleri desteklemek için farklı bilgi ve iletişim teknolojileri (sohbet, forum, blog, wiki vb.) kullanıldı.
Öğretim Süreci	8. Derse nasıl çalışılması gerektiğine dair açıklayıcı ve detaylı bilgiler bir "Çalışma Rehberi" olarak sunulmuştu.
	9. Aşırmacılık, yanlış referans, ödevlerin geç teslimi gibi konuların sonuçlarına ilişkin bilgiler verildi.
	10. Eş-zamanlı etkinliklere katılamayanlar için farklı-zamanlı etkinlik fırsatları sunulmuştu.
	11. Dersin başında dersle ilgili genel bilgiler içeren ve dersin izlencesine yönlendiren bir karşılama mesajı/duyuru/video ilettiler.
	12. Olumlu bir çevrimiçi öğrenme atmosferi oluşturmak amacıyla öğrencilere kapsamlı bir giriş ve tanışma etkinlikleri planlamışlardı.
	13. Ödev ve etkinlikler hakkında zamanında ve açıklayıcı dönütler verdiler.
	14. Öğretim sürecini yönlendirme ve rehberlik etme konusunda başarılıydılar.
	15. e-Öğrenme konusunda deneyimli ve yeterliydiler.
Öğretim İçeriği	16. İçerik mantıklı ve etkili bir şekilde organize edilmiştir.
	17. Ders içeriği öğrenmeyi kolaylaştıracak şekilde yapılandırılmıştı.
	18. Ders içeriği anlaşılır ve açık bir şekilde sunuldu
	19. Öğretim materyalleri yeterli, güncel ve bilgi düzeyi açısından uygundu.
Etkileşim ve Değerlendirme	20. Etkileşim amacıyla farklı araçlar (sohbet, forum, blog, wiki, eposta vb.) kullanıldı.
	21. Sosyal öğrenme ve etkileşimi arttırmak amacıyla işbirliğine dayalı grup etkinlikleri gerçekleştirildi.
	22. Öğrenciler arasındaki etkileşimi güçlendirmek amacıyla farklı etkinlikler ve fırsatlar sunuldu.
	23. Öğrenci-öğretim elemanı arasındaki etkileşimi güçlendirmek amacıyla farklı etkinlikler ve fırsatlar sunuldu.
	24. Eş-zamanlı ve farklı-zamanlı yürütülmesi gereken etkinlikler ayrı ayrı belirtilmişti.
	25. Derste çeşitli klasik ve alternatif değerlendirme yöntemleri bir arada kullanıldı.
	26. Kullanılan değerlendirme yöntemleri öğrenci başarısını belirleme açısından yeterliydi.
	27. Etkinlikler için kullanılacak değerlendirme ölçütleri her farklı etkinlik için açıkça belirtildi.
	28. Verilen etkinliklerin ve ödevlerin tamamlanması için öngörülen süreler yeterliydi.
	29. Farklı etkinlikler için değerlendirme yüzdeleri, değerlendirme ölçütleri ve notlandırmaya ilişin bilgiler sunulmuştu.

A CASE STUDY: TRACKING CHANGES IN EFL LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH DURING THE TIME OF COVID-19

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Abstract

Attitudes as part of human nature may change in varied ways and in relation to the varied conditions of life. COVID-19 pandemic was an example for one of these unplanned life circumstances. This unprecedented crisis presented an urgent need for system change in schooling around the world, which has required the acceleration of digitalization of teaching and learning at all levels of formal education in a revolutionary way. This has resulted in essential changes in English language teaching and learning practices, materials, activities, methods, and techniques as well. Since learners are considered as an axis around whom this system revolves, it is vital to start exploring the changes in their attitudes towards learning English during the times of COVID-19 pandemic. To this end, this quantitative case study investigated whether this shift from face-to-face education to emergency remote mode of delivery because of the pandemic led to any significant differences in learners' attitudes towards learning English. An attitude scale was carried out with 300 undergraduate students at MSKU to collect data and their responses were analyzed using SPSS 26.0. The results indicated no significant difference in learners' attitudes towards learning English when the delivery mode of education changed.

Keywords: English as a foreign language, emergency remote instruction, Covid-19, attitude, attitude change

INTRODUCTION

The characteristics of second language acquisition (SLA) have been an enigma to the researchers since the early 50s. However, the current paradox at the heart of SLA research is how SLA process is influenced by human nature; their physical, psychological, affective, and intellectual features. As noted by Brown (1994), successful language learning occurs as a result of successful interplay of an individual's physical, intellectual and emotional features. Since each individual is unique in their own biological, emotional, and cognitive setting, considerable research has been carried out in the literature to find out the person-specific components of successful language learning. In addition, there has been a mounting interest in exploring the role that learner attitudes play in the process of SLA from the 1970s to the present day (e.g., Bartley, 1970; Brown, 1994; Brown and Dubin, 1975; Cooper and Fishman, 1977; Gardner, 1985; Horwitz, 1988; Mills et al., 2006; Norton Peirce, 1995; Yashima, 2009) because it directly represents their set of beliefs and behaviors towards the target language. Moreover, the review of relevant literature shows that there are considerable numbers of national (Cakici, 2007; Hanci Yanar, 2008; Elkilic et al., 2010; Takkac Tulgar, 2018; Temur, 2013) and international (Asakawa and Oller, 1977; Littlewood, 2001; Mee-ling, 2009; Yang and Lau, 2003) research studies in the 21st century that aim to evaluate learners' attitudes towards the target language. Most of them aim to find out the relationship between attitudinal behaviors and academic achievement in learning English or whether there is a relationship between the attitudinal constructs that learners form towards learning English and their gender, nationality, parental background, educational background, socio-economic status or departments. The common conclusion that is derived by aforementioned researchers is that the attitudes that learners adopt depend heavily on how they receive, perceive and process a stimulus, so describing the factors influencing their formulation of attitudes towards learning English is too elusive. Therefore, they have mainly focused on measuring learners' attitudes to find out the elements that may be associated with them. However, as Good & Brophy (1990) suggested, attitudes are acquired through exposure, so attitudes can be stimulated, or conditioned through experience. Thus, evaluating learners' attitudes simply at one fixed point may not lead to wider understanding and generalizations about how and why their attitudes have changed over time. When looked at the literature, there is a limited number of research studies that focus on the change in learners' attitudes towards English language learning both within national and international context (Alamsyah, 2018; Burden, 2004; Bhaskar & Soundiraraj, 2012; Ghaedsharafi et al., 2019; Karatas & Alci, 2016; Kiziltan & Atli, 2013). In the light of relevant research studies, one of the aims of this study is to fulfill a gap in the literature by investigating the presence of any changes in learners' attitudes towards learning English

Attitudes as part of human nature may change in varied ways and in relation to the varied conditions of life. The COVID-19 outbreak was a concrete example for one of these unplanned life circumstances. This unprecedented global crisis presented an urgent need for system change in schooling from face-to-face education to emergency remote instruction around the world. Schools of all stages have been closed for a period of time due to the risks related to the COVID-19 and alternative school settings have been created by using educational technology tools. As a result, there have been rapid shifts in teaching and learning practices, materials, activities, methods and techniques, and settings to create an effective language learning ecology. These shifts led to the quick acceleration of digitalization of language teaching and learning in a revolutionary way. This situation, on the other hand, arose confusion in the literature regarding the terminology and classification of instruction. Eventually, Hodges et al. (2020) introduced the concept of Emergency Remote Teaching

(ERT) and defined it as "a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis circumstances in contrast to experiences that are planned from the beginning and designed to be online". Bozkurt & Sharma (2020) focused on this contrast between online distance education and ERT and stated that "while distance education has always been an alternative and flexible option for learners, emergency remote teaching is an obligation" (p.2). They, on the other hand, emphasized the importance of current ERT implementations in the prosperity of distance education in a post-COVID world for better or worse. Then, if it is assumed that the current situation is actually an opportunity to incorporate digital technologies further into the traditional education settings, then the question arises: what can it be built upon in the near future to take full advantage of the recent educational revolution for maximizing the quality of English language teaching and learning practices? Therefore, the extant literature has focused more on the integration of technology to augment existing digital learning opportunities prior to COVID-19 (Azar & Tan, 2020; Peter, 2021; Rachman et al., 2020, Suadi, 2021) and limited attention has been paid to language teachers' and learners' perspectives amid the COVID-19 pandemic (Adnan & Awar, 2020; Atmajo & Nugroho, 2020; Hazaea et al., 2021). Even less attention has been devoted to investigating language learners' attitude towards learning English during COVID-19 (Madu, 2020; Purushotham & Swathi, 2020) and none of them administered comparative analysis of language learners' attitude towards learning English before and during COVID-19. However, since learners are considered as an axis around whom this system revolves, it is vital to start exploring the presence of any changes in their attitudes towards learning English during the times of COVID-19. To this end, this study aimed to investigate whether this shift from face-to-face education to remote mode of delivery as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic led to any significant differences in learners' attitudes towards learning English. In this respect, this study addresses a timely and widespread issue with the aim of acquiring insightful data on the determinants that may lead to changes in learners' attitudes towards learning English. Besides, this study is of representative significance for being a pioneering investigation into the attitude shifts of learners towards learning English with the remote mode of delivery and the findings of the study may contribute to the literature on the educational impacts of COVID-19. To this end, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in learners' attitudes towards learning English between face to face and remote mode of education?

a) Is there a significant difference in learners' attitudes towards studying English as a course subject?

b) Is there a significant difference in learners' attitudes towards engaging in extracurricular activities in English?

c) Is there a significant difference in learners' attitudes towards participating in class activities in English?

2. What are the distinct points where learners' attitudes towards learning English show discrepancies between face to face and remote mode of education?

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

A quantitative comparative case study research design was employed in this study. The differences in learners' attitudes towards learning English between face to face face-to-face

and remote mode of delivery were examined through quantitative research method. Moreover, as case study aims to "generate an in depth understanding of a specific topic" (Simons, 2009, p.10) and to enable researcher "collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time in a real-life context" (Creswell, 2014, p.14), the elements of case study are combined with qualitative research design inquiries.

Setting and Participants

The respondents were drawn from the population that was close to hand for this study through convenience sampling model. There were 312 freshman students (194 female and 118 male), aged between 18 and 21, at the department of nursing at Mugla Sitki Kocman University (MSKU), Fethiye faculty of health sciences, Turkey. To ensure the sequential parallelism between two groups, the heterogeneity of the participants in both groups and their distribution by age and gender was checked. To be able to compare their attitudes towards learning English in terms of any potential shifts due to COVID-19, it was presented in Table 1 that the results did not reveal a significant difference between those two groups ($p > .05$).

Table 1

Distribution of the participants

Administration	Gender		Age	
	Female	Male	*M*	*SD*
1st Group: face-to-face	97	59	19	.86
2nd Group: remote	97	59	19	.89
Total	194	118		
	(*N*=312)	*p* > 1.00	19	*p* > .007

Data Collection Tool

As the research design of this study is empirical in nature, an attitude scale (α=0.95) (see Appendix 1) developed by Hanci Yanar (2008, pp.119-121) was used with the author's permission (see Appendix 2). It consists of 30 questions and a personal information section. A five-point Likert-type scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" was provided to the participants to express to what extent they agree or disagree with each statement.

As a result of literature review, this specific scale was decided to be used because first of all its validity and reliability have been ensured through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Secondly, the scale includes items under 3 different dimensions as attitudes towards studying English as a course subject (2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 19, 20, 23, 24, and 28), attitudes towards engaging in extracurricular activities in English (7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 17, 25, and 29), and attitudes towards participating in class activities in English (1, 15, 16, 18, 21, 22, 26, 27, and 30), which appeal to the cognitive, affective and behavioral components of attitude respectively. Thirdly, the scale is not designed for a specific age group or gender or level of competence. All the items in the scale can be applicable to diverse profiles.

Data Collection Procedures

The attitude questionnaire was first presented to the freshmen in the 8th week of the face-to-face common compulsory English course in the fall semester of 2020 via Google Forms before the COVID-19 outbreak. The second administration was also conducted online at the mid-semester to a new group of freshmen who enrolled to the same course at the same department in the fall semester of 2021 but who received the course from distance since the

beginning due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The participants were informed that their personal information would be confidential and given consent form prior to the administration of the questionnaire. The ethics committee approval by the MSKU was granted before the implementation of the questionnaire by following the official permission procedures (see Appendix 3).

Data Analysis

The participants' responses to the attitude questionnaire were imported from Google Forms and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 26.0. First, normality test was run to ensure the normal distribution of the data. Second, reverse coded items (2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 12, 13, 19, 20, 23, 24, 25, and 28) were coded back to be aligned with the other items. Then, descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to examine the central tendency and dispersion of the results as well as to define their degree of significance.

RESULTS

As a response to the main research question of this study, the independent sample t-test results revealed no significant difference in the means of the students' overall attitude scores towards learning English between the face to face and remote mode of education ($p > .05$) as listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of the Participants' Overall Attitude Scores

	N	X̄	SD	t	df	p
Face-to-face	156	3.55	.74	-0.79	310	.937
Remote	156	3.56	.64			

Another independent sample t-test was run to examine if there was a significant difference in learners' attitudes between the face to face and remote mode of education towards studying English as a course subject, engaging in extracurricular activities, and participating in class activities in English (see Table 3). The results illustrated in Table 3 revealed no significant difference in learners' attitudes between the face to face and remote mode of education towards studying English as a course subject, engaging in extracurricular activities, and participating in class activities in English.

Table 3

Distribution of the Participants' Attitude Scores by the Subscales

	Subscales	N	X̄	SD	t (310)	p
Face-to-face	Studying English as a course subject	156	3.58	.90	-0.60	.549
Remote		156	3.64	.84		
Face-to-face	Engaging in extracurricular activities	156	3.85	.58	-0.49	.621
Remote		156	3.88	.53		
Face-to-face	Participating in class activities	156	3.19	.94	-0.83	.404
Remote		156	3.10	.89		

When their responses were descriptively analyzed for both groups on an item basis and their mean scores were compared, the mean scores of some items indicated a considerable degree of mismatch with respect to the changes in their attitudes towards learning English remotely and in face-to-face settings (see Table 4).

Table 4

Distribution of the Participants' Attitude Scores by the Subscales on an Item Basis

Items		N	$\bar{X}$	SD
1. I attend English classes because I want to.	Face-to-face	156	3.88	1.171
	Remote	156	3.69	1.254
2. I'm bored in English class.	Face-to-face	156	3.92	1.153
	Remote	156	3.60	1.284
3. English is a difficult subject.	Face-to-face	156	3.28	1.252
	Remote	156	3.35	1.313
4. I hate English.	Face-to-face	156	4.43	1.004
	Remote	156	4.56	.910
5. If possible, I would like to take another course instead of English.	Face-to-face	156	4.23	1.217
	Remote	156	4.08	1.337
6. I'm afraid of the English test.	Face-to-face	156	2.95	1.413
	Remote	156	3.37	1.460
7. I watch channels that broadcast in English.	Face-to-face	156	2.67	1.424
	Remote	156	3.22	1.425
8. I want to spend more time improving my English knowledge.	Face-to-face	156	3.85	1.372
	Remote	156	3.76	1.166
9. I don't like reading English texts.	Face-to-face	156	3.35	1.409
	Remote	156	3.42	1.401
10. Learning English is extremely unnecessary for me.	Face-to-face	156	4.76	.757
	Remote	156	4.75	.687
11. Knowing English has an important place in my life.	Face-to-face	156	4.46	.953
	Remote	156	4.33	.992
12. English class is a waste of time for me.	Face-to-face	156	4.65	.849
	Remote	156	4.65	.752
13. I don't like to speak English.	Face-to-face	156	4.29	1.084
	Remote	156	4.32	1.089
14. I like to listen to movies, songs, dialogues in English.	Face-to-face	156	4.09	1.241
	Remote	156	4.19	1.090
15. I don't want to miss the English lesson.	Face-to-face	156	3.69	1.211
	Remote	156	3.35	1.206
16. I enjoy doing English homework.	Face-to-face	156	2.86	1.351
	Remote	156	2.90	1.338
17. I would like to speak fluent and complete English.	Face-to-face	156	4.76	.701
	Remote	156	4.72	.630
18. I like to write something in English (postcard, email, letter, etc.).	Face-to-face	156	2.81	1.362
	Remote	156	2.92	1.432
19. Reading something in English is very boring.	Face-to-face	156	3.86	1.161
	Remote	156	4.01	1.142
20. It is difficult for me to concentrate on the tasks	Face-to-face	156	3.41	1.174

given in English class.	Remote	156	3.26	1.191
21. I would like to ask my teacher about the points that I do not understand	Face-to-face	156	4.06	1.085
	Remote	156	3.76	1.199
22. I motivate myself even when studying English is boring.	Face-to-face	156	3.13	1.240
	Remote	156	3.35	1.264
23. I don't like writing English texts.	Face-to-face	156	3.26	1.373
	Remote	156	3.39	1.347
24. I feel uneasy and unhappy in English classes.	Face-to-face	156	4.03	1.244
	Remote	156	3.83	1.198
25. I am not interested in learning English.	Face-to-face	156	1.45	.959
	Remote	156	1.44	.910
26. I look forward to English lessons.	Face-to-face	156	3.07	1.187
	Remote	156	2.79	1.181
27. I study English in my spare time.	Face-to-face	156	2.13	1.315
	Remote	156	2.59	1.339
28. When I have difficulty learning English, I lose my enthusiasm to study.	Face-to-face	156	2.75	1.413
	Remote	156	3.25	1.375
29. I like to share what I learned in English class with those around me.	Face-to-face	156	3.60	1.357
	Remote	156	3.51	1.308
30. I would be pleased if English course hours were increased.	Face-to-face	156	3.07	1.446
	Remote	156	2.59	1.343

According to Table 4, firstly the students who received face to face English instruction got more bored during the classes in comparison to the others ($\bar{X}$=3.92, SD=1.15). Second, they did not want to miss the class ($\bar{X}$=3.69, SD=1.121). Third, they would like to ask the instructor about the points that they did not understand ($\bar{X}$=4.06, SD=1.08). Fourth, they looked forward to English class ($\bar{X}$=3.07, SD=1.18) and the last they would be pleased if English class hours were increased ($\bar{X}$=3.07, SD=1.44). Regarding the students who received emergency remote English language instruction, on the other hand, it was found that (1) they were more afraid of the English exam ($\bar{X}$=3.37, SD=1.46), (2) they spent more of their free time studying English ($\bar{X}$=2.59, SD=1.33), (3) they watched English channels more ($\bar{X}$=3.22, SD=1.42), and (4) they lost their enthusiasm to study more easily if they face difficulty learning ($\bar{X}$=3.25, SD=1.37) English when compared to the other group of students who received face to face English instruction.

DISCUSSION

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, delivery mode of education at schools abruptly changed from in-person to remote instruction for a significant period of time all around the world. English language instruction also underwent considerable shifts in its teaching and learning practices. Although the use of technology for educational purposes in the field of English language teaching has been a hot research topic for the last two decades, it has gained more attention and importance as a consequence of this unanticipated outbreak. However, the human factor has been overlooked and given little attention during this transformational change. Thus, this study was designed to investigate whether the shift from face-to-face education to remote mode of delivery as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic led to any significant differences in learners' attitudes towards learning English. The results, on the other hand, revealed no significant difference in their attitudes irrespective of mode of instructional delivery. Moreover, the non-existence of significant difference was recorded on a subscale

basis. When their responses were analyzed descriptively on an item basis to descend to its particulars, a considerable degree of mismatch was found between the attitudes of the students who received face to face English instruction and the ones who received emergency remote English language instruction regarding studying English as a course subject and participating in class and extracurricular activities in English. These findings indicated that even though face-to-face students found English classes boring, they looked forward to English classes and did not want to miss them, they did not mind asking clarification questions and they advocated the increase in English class hours. This may suggest that face-to-face students are more aware of the importance of learning English for them, appreciate the physical presence of the language teacher and direct contact with them more, and relatedly support the increase in contact hours. ----It can be derived from these findings that since they spend more time in front of the screens, they become more exposed to any input in English and specifically English broadcast sources, so they can allocate more time for studying English. This also shows that the aforementioned studies (Azar & Tan, 2020; Peter, 2021; Rachman et al., 2020, Suadi, 2021) regarding the integration of technology to augment existing digital learning opportunities prior to COVID-19 have turned out to have a sound basis supported by the findings of this study. Moreover, the fact that they did not prefer much to ask the instructor about the points that they did not understand may imply that they are well aware that they have easy and instant access to digital information sources like translators, online dictionaries, and search engines in addition to the teacher's knowledge of subject matter. Yet, it can be suggested that the physical distance, lack of accustomed traditional classroom atmosphere, direct interactions with peers and teacher scaffolding may lead to the loss of their enthusiasm to study more easily when they face difficulty learning English. Besides, their reported fear from the English exam can be a sign that remote mode of educational delivery on digital platforms may bring on uncertainty which could cause exam stress and anxiety, or they may be because of their inadequate level of digital literacy.

The main limitation of the current study is the starting point of this study: the COVID-19 pandemic. The outbreak has paved the way to the new research area, on the one hand, and caused physical and temporal limitations on the other hand. In this study, the instrument was administered to two different groups of students in a sequential parallel manner and random sampling could not be achieved due to the limitations. Therefore, future research is needed to replicate the results of this study in an exploratory manner with random sampling to reach more reliable and generalized conclusions. Moreover, further research is needed to examine the underlying factors and causal relationships in their increased fear from the English exam amid the remote mode of delivery.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicated that the change of the instructional delivery model from face to face to remote did not have a significant impact on language learners' overall attitude towards learning English. Nevertheless, there were some items where a degree of mismatch regarding their attitudes were found between the students who received face to face English instruction and the other group who received emergency remote English language instruction. These were particularly about motivation, exam anxiety, and participating in class and extracurricular activities, which could be promising direction for future research as well. Moreover, these results may contribute to language teachers, administrative staff, and other authorities while designing and implementing future theoretical and practical programs for language learners.

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Appendix 1

The Attitude Scale

Fethiye Sağlık Bilimleri Fakültesi Ortak Zorunlu İngilizce Dersini Alan 1. Sınıf Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Öğrenmeye Yönelik Tutumu

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu ölçek sizlerin İngilizce öğrenmeye yönelik tutumlarınızı belirlemek için hazırlanmıştır. Ölçek iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Verdiğiniz cevaplar bilimsel araştırmamda kullanılacaktır. Önermelerin doğru ya da yanlış yanıtı yoktur, önemli olan sizin gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi belirtmenizdir. Lütfen her soruyu dikkatle okuyunuz, size uygun olan dereceyi işaretleyiniz. Ölçekteki tüm maddeleri eksiksiz cevaplandırınız. Verdiğiniz cevaplar kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır.

Katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Sultan Tutku Budak-Özalp

Kişisel bilgileriniz ve anket cevaplarınız tamamen gizli kalacaktır.

2. Cinsiyetiniz *
- ○ Kadın
- ○ Erkek

4. Yaşınız *
- ○ 18
- ○ 19
- ○ 20
- ○ Diğer:

10. En çok hangi amaçla İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz? *
- ○ Dersten geçmek
- ○ Yabancılarla iletişim kurmak
- ○ İyi bir iş bulmak
- ○ Yurt dışı seçenekleri
- ○ Akademik kariyer yapmak
- ○ Diğer:

Anket

1. İngilizce derslerine istediğim için katılıyorum. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

2. İngilizce dersinde sıkılıyorum. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

3. İngilizce zor bir derstir. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

4. İngilizce'den nefret ediyorum. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

5. Mümkün olsa İngilizce yerine başka bir ders almak isterdim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

6. İngilizce sınavından korkarım. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

7. İngilizce yayın yapan kanalları izlerim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

8. İngilizce bilgimi arttırmak için daha çok zaman harcamak istiyorum. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

9. İngilizce metin okumaktan hoşlanmam. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

10. İngilizce öğrenmek benim için son derece gereksizdir. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

11. İngilizce bilmek yaşamımda önemli bir yere sahiptir. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

12. İngilizce dersi benim için boşa zaman harcamaktır. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

13. İngilizce konuşmaktan hoşlanmam. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

14. İngilizce film, şarkı, diyalog dinlemek hoşuma gider. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

15. İngilizce dersini kaçırmak istemem. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

16. İngilizce ödevlerini yapmaktan zevk alırım. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

17. Akıcı ve tam bir İngilizce konuşmak isterim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

18. İngilizce bir şeyler yazmayı seviyorum (kartpostal, eposta, mektup vb.). *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

19. İngilizce bir şeyler okumak çok sıkıcıdır. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

20. Benim için İngilizce dersinde verilen görevlere yoğunlaşmak zordur. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

21. İngilizce dersinde anlamadığım noktaları öğretmenime sorup öğrenmek isterim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

22. İngilizce çalışmak sıkıcı olduğunda bile kendimi motive ederim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

23. İngilizce metinler yazmaktan hoşlanmıyorum. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

24. İngilizce derslerinde kendimi tedirgin ve mutsuz hissederim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

25. İngilizce öğrenmek ilgimi çekmez. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

26. İngilizce derslerini iple çekerim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

27. Boş zamanlarımda İngilizce çalışırım. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

28. İngilizce öğrenirken zorlandığımda çalışma hevesimi kaybederim. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

29. İngilizce dersinde öğrendiklerimi çevremdekilerle paylaşmak hoşuma gider. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

30. İngilizce ders saatleri arttırılırsa memnun olurum. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Hiç katılmıyorum	○	○	○	○	○	Tamamen katılıyorum

Geri   Gönder   Sayfa 3 / 3

Appendix 2

Permission for Use of the Scale
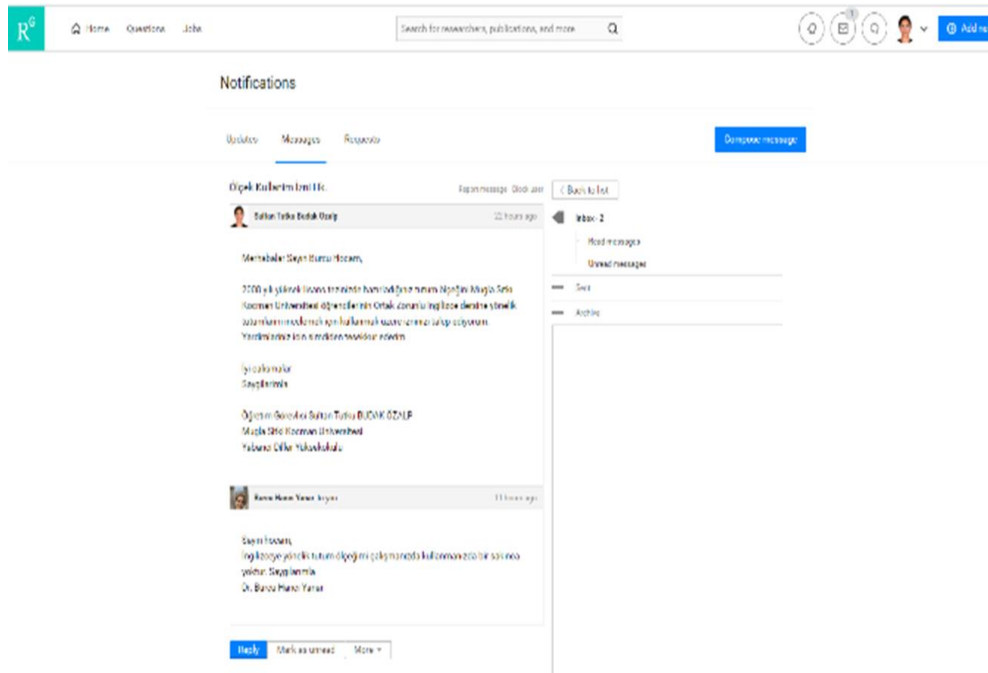
MORPHEME ACQUISITION IN EFL CONTEXT: A META-ANALYSIS OF L1 INFLUENCE AND NATURAL ORDER

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Abstract

This paper aims to revisit the major morpheme order studies in English as L2 from 2010 to 2020, considering mainly L1 influence. It addresses studies from various L1 contexts which aim to investigate minimum six morphemes in English as L2 and their accordance with the Krashen's (1977) Natural Order Hypothesis (NOH) regarding the presence of a universal order in morpheme acquisition. Within this purpose, the current study examines seven articles published in indexed journals classified into categories as participants from different L1 contexts, the year of the publications, minimum six grammatical morphemes under investigation, and measures that rely on TLU (Target-Like Use). As for data analysis, the results of the included studies were synthesized to investigate whether learners showed a universal pattern in the acquisition of English grammatical morphemes and the revealed TLU scores were statistically analyzed to examine how much of the variance among participants from different L1s could be predicted by the universal pattern in the acquisition order of morphemes. The results revealed strong correlations between Korean and Arabic, also between Persian and Filipino, lastly between Filipino and Spanish-Intermediates. Furthermore, only Arabic speaking learners had a positive correlation among themselves in the acquisition order. All these findings suggested that the significance of morpheme order studies lies behind their partly predictable but very dynamic nature.

INTRODUCTION

Theories of second language acquisition date back to the 1940s and since then research in SLA has grown at a remarkable rate. When Ellis looks back to the last 50+ years of SLA history and tries to identify the phases of it, he labels the 60s and 70s as the first phase: "Making a start" (2020, p.190) referring to a period when the order and sequence of acquisition was the main area of interest. Even though there have been many other areas of interests featured in the SLA history so far, the starting point of it, acquisition order in second language (L2), has remained the principal attraction among all with its complex, multifaceted and dynamic nature. Therefore, no matter how many times the order of acquisition in L2 has been studied, the period in which the study is conducted, participants, settings, and methodology of the studies have always brought different perspectives to the phenomena. Particularly morpheme acquisition order studies have spearheaded the investigation of different aspects of L2 acquisition.

Within the cognitive approach against behaviorist influence, the preliminary morpheme order study was carried out by Brown (1973) propounding that as children acquire their first language (L1) in a more or less established and predictable order, L2 learners acquire the grammar of an L2 in a similar way. The findings of another early study by de Villiers and de Villiers (1973) reached a similar conclusion, but they distinctly drew attention to the existence of possible determinants influencing the acquisition order of morphemes. Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974) investigated morpheme acquisition order from the standpoint of children learning English as second language and proposed the existence of universal acquisition order of grammatical morphemes. Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974) investigated adults enrolled in university preparation programs or continuing ESL programs and reported that their results were in line with those of Dulay and Burt (1974). Some other following studies in L2 also supported the idea that there is a universal acquisition order (Krashen et al., 1978; Larsen-Freeman,1975; Rosansky,1976). Moreover, Krashen (1977) set forth the Natural Order Hypothesis (NOH) in which L2 learners acquire morphemes in a universal, more or less fixed and predictable order.

Gass and Selinker (2001), on the other hand, criticized the idea of natural order by stating that the morphemes of L2 cannot be acquired without individual and external variances and L1 influence. Some other scholars also argued the importance of L1 influence on morpheme acquisition (Luk and Shirai,2009; Murakami, 2013). Other researchers proposed that, in addition to the function of the L1, there are other determinants that may influence the morpheme acquisition in L2 (Goldschneider and DeKeyser, 2001; Kwon, 2005).

More recently, a myriad of research has provided enough evidence for the assertion that while there is a universal pattern in L2 English learners' acquisition of grammatical morphemes, there exists some evidence for L1 influence and some underlying factors affecting the process. Although there are numerous studies concerning the effects of age, L1 background, and a variety of learning settings (Perkins and Larsen-Freeman, 1975; Pica, 1983) on morpheme acquisition order, most of the related systematic reviews and meta-analysis were carried out through the 2000s (Goldschneider and DeKeyser, 2001; Kwon, 2005; Luk and Shirai, 2009). Therefore, this paper aims to revisit the major morpheme order studies in English as L2 from 2010 to 2020, considering mainly L1 influence. It addresses studies from various L1 contexts which aim to investigate minimum 6 morphemes in English as L2 and their accordance with the most comprehensive and one of the most preliminary studies by Krashen (1977) regarding the existence of the natural order in morpheme acquisition. Within

this purpose, in the study, seven articles published in indexed journals were examined. To classify the articles, there are categories as participants from different L1 contexts, the year of the publications, minimum six grammatical morphemes under investigation, and measures that rely on TLU (Target-Like Use).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Language acquisition theories were given a start within the behavioristic approach in the early 1950s. Skinner, one of the earliest and the most prominent behaviorists, accounted for language acquisition by combining environmental factors and psychological works of the time in his paper "Verbal Behavior" in 1957. The main assumption for acquiring a language was mostly viewed as a habit formation process by behaviorists. According to behaviorists, there were significant differences in acquiring L1 and L2. While L1 acquisition was assumed easier because it was a set of new habits, L2 acquisition, on the other hand, was regarded more difficult because of the interference of habits formed in the process of L1 acquisition. Later on, the concept of *contrastive analysis* suggested that differences between pairs or small sets of L1 and L2 identify learners' error in language learning (Gast, 2013; Saville-Troike, 2006).

However, Chomsky (1959) started a cognitive revolution against Skinner's views in language acquisition and proposed *Universal Grammar*: a concept of innate, biological categories in grammar that help children's language development and adults' overall language processing. In Krashen's (1977) theory of language acquisition, this concept has been expanded to account for SLA. According to Krashen (1977), within the NOH, there exists a predictable order in the acquisition of grammatical structures (see Figure 1). Namely, it was asserted that certain grammatical morphemes are acquired before others in L1 English, and it is possible to follow a similar order in SLA. Thereafter, studies concerning the order of English grammatical morphemes, which started in early 1970s, became an area of interest.

Figure 1

Proposed order for grammatical morphemes in English L2 acquisition (Krashen, 1977, p.13)
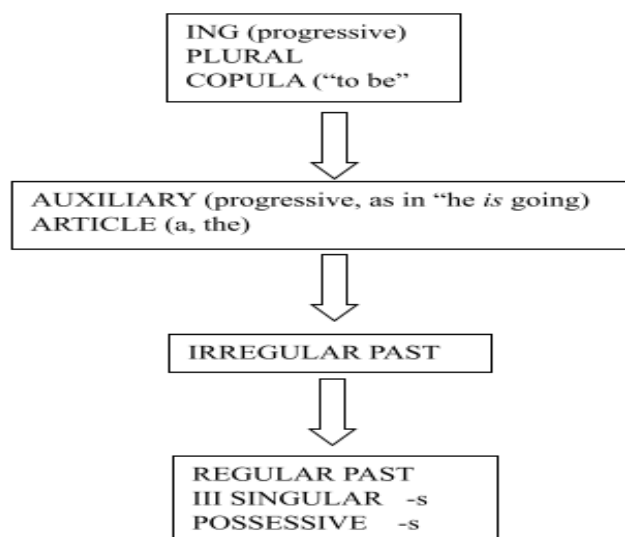
Morpheme order studies were mostly influenced by Brown (1973) who carried out a longitudinal study with three American children learning English as L1. The participants were 18-month-old Eve, 27-month-old Sarah and Adam. In the study, children's spontaneous speech was tape-recorded and noted through interaction. Their process was monitored and

their morpheme acquisition order was traced. When observed, it was revealed that they acquired the set of morphemes not simultaneously but within the given order (see Table 1).

Table 1. Order of morpheme acquisition (Brown, 1973, p. 274)

Morphemes
1.Present progressive –*ing*
2-3. in, on
4. Plural –s
5. Past irregular
6. Possessive *'s*
7. Uncontractible copula
8. Articles *a, the*
9. Past regular –ed
10. Third person regular
11. Third person irregular
12. Uncontractible auxiliary
13. Contractible copula
14. Contractible auxiliary

Brown (1973) used the *Mean Length of Utterance* (MLU) to assess the children's language development because newly learned morphemes were supposed to lengthen their sentences. He also developed a way of measuring morpheme acquisition: *Obligatory Occasion Analysis.* The presence or absence of morpheme use by children was counted in grammatical contexts in which they were obligatory to be supplied. As stated by Brown (1973), to be regarded as being acquired by the learners, of all obligatory contexts a grammatical morpheme is necessarily supplied in 90 percent. Originally introduced by Brown (1973), *Suppliance of Obligatory Context*, hereafter SOC (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001; Pica 1983) was applied next by de Villiers and de Villiers (1973) and then by Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974) in L2 context.

Following Brown's (1973) groundwork, Dulay and Burt (1973) conducted a study on the acquisition of eight grammatical morphemes: plural –s, progressive -ing, copula is, articles, auxiliary is, irregular past, 3rd person singular, and the possessive by 151 L1 Spanish ESL children, between the ages of 5 and 8. The *Bilingual Syntax Measure* (BSM) method was used to trace children's oral production. It consisted of simple syntactic constructs, seven cartoon images, and 33 questions that elicited children's natural speech. They also specified the *Group Score Method* for the functor in each obligatory context as; no functor supplied: = 0, misformed functor supplied: = 0.5, and correct functor supplied: = 1.0. Furthermore, they worked on *Group Means Method*, and *Syntax Acquisition Index* to analyze the total number of obligatory occasions. According to the results, it was reported that "there seems to be a common order of acquisition for certain structures in L2" (Dulay and Burt, 1973, p. 256). Similarly, in their further studies, Dulay and Burt (1974) asserted that "regardless of first language background, children reconstruct English syntax in similar ways" (p.37). To this end, the acquisition order suggested by Brown (1973) for L1, and L2 by Dulay and Burt (1973) and Krashen (1977) is consistent even though their foci for the number of the morphemes differed.

Changing the participants from children to adults, Bailey et al. (1974) investigated whether ESL learners followed a common order in morpheme acquisition as children. It was found out that there was a similar but not exactly the same order as those of Dulay and Burt's (1974).

However, Larsen-Freeman (1975) asserted that these studies focused solely on the product of the BSM. In her study with adult L2 learners, she used the concept of occasions of obligatory context, with five tasks in the form of tests. According to the results "there is some consistency in morpheme ranking across tasks, but the morpheme orderings are by no means the same on all tasks" (Larsen-Freeman, 1975; p. 417). Furthermore, Rosansky (1976) criticized that morpheme studies were limited in the aspects of their methodologies since case studies had constraints in the number of participants despite providing naturalistic data and the data gathered in cross-sectional studies had constraints because they were elicitation-based and reflected only a specific part of an entire continuum.

Pica (1983), on the other hand, added another criticism to morpheme order studies regarding scoring methods. SOC was criticized because learners might correctly use a specific morpheme in obligatory contexts but incorrectly overuse it in not specifically obligatory contexts (Andersen, 1977; Hatch,1978). Therefore, apart from using SOC in her study, Pica calculated TLU using the formula below (see Figure 2), which is based on Lightbown, Spada, and Wallace (1980) and Stauble (1981):

Figure 2

Formula for Target-Like Use Analysis of Morphemes (Pica, 1983, p.71)

$$\text{TLU score} = \frac{\text{number of correct suppliance in obligatory contexts}}{\text{number of obligatory contexts} + \text{number suppliance in nonobligatory contexts}}$$

However, after the 1990s, the number of morpheme order studies started to decline, instead the scholars analyzed and reviewed the previous related studies. Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001) conducted the first meta-analysis regarding multiple determinants in L2 morpheme order studies between 1973-1996. They identified these determinants as perceptual salience, semantic complexity, morpho-phonological regularity, syntactic category and frequency in the input. After they performed multiple regression analysis, their results indicated that "a very large portion of the total variance in acquisition order is explained by the combination of the five determinants" (Goldschneider and DeKeyser, 2001, p.1). Similarly, Kwon (2005) revisited numerous L2 morpheme studies and suggested that three putative determinants including semantic complexity, input frequency, and L1 transfer determine the perceived differences of morpheme acquisition.

After all, morpheme order studies after the 2000s dealt with not just the NOH but also other variables such as the role of L1, identification of determinants, and environmental settings. One of the most important variables to be mentioned was undoubtedly the influence of L1. Regarding the influence of L1 background in morpheme order studies, Gass and Selinker (2001) stated that there exists some evidence related to the role of the L1 in these studies. Although L1 influence was neglected in earlier studies, the recent ones focused more on diverse L1 backgrounds and their transfer into acquisition of English grammatical morphemes. Izumi and Isahara (2004) suggested that L1 influence and transfer is one of the most important variables that determine morpheme acquisition. In another review, Luk and Shirai (2009) investigated various L1 learners' acquisition of three grammatical morphemes in English, and they reported that the absence or presence of the morphemes in L1 may be a predictor for the order in L2 morpheme acquisition. Accordingly, they attributed great importance to L1 influence in morpheme acquisition.

Murakami and Alexopoulou (2016) analyzed approximately 10,000 written exam scripts from Cambridge Learner Corpus. The scripts of English learners from seven different L1 backgrounds including Japanese, Korean, Spanish, Russian, Turkish, German, and French, through five proficiency levels were examined to trace the acquisition order of six English grammatical morphemes by applying TLU. The reason to apply the TLU was explained by the authors in a broader sense as "The key difference between the TLU and SOC is that the latter does not take overgeneralization errors into account" (Murakami and Alexopoulou, 2016, p.375). According to their findings, accuracy orders were more similar within the same L1 group when compared to different L1 groups, indicating that the natural order hypothesis was not supported by their results.

In parallel with Murakami and Alexopoulou (2016), in this study, with the aim of avoiding possible missing data in overgeneralization errors because of SOC, the studies employing TLU were selected to be investigated. Moreover, while Brown (1973) listed 14 morphemes to be examined within SOC, Dulay and Burt (1973) specified 8 morphemes and applied *Group Means Method*, and *Syntax Acquisition Index*. On the other hand, Krashen (1977) suggested nine morphemes within the NOH which were then examined by not only SOC but also mostly by TLU by other scholars recently. Therefore, this study compared the rank-orders of the NOH suggested by Krashen (1977) for nine morphemes, which is mostly revisited in other meta-analysis studies, with variance among participants from different L1s in selected studies to identify if there is a universal pattern in the acquisition order of morphemes. In this regard, the research questions of the study are listed below.

1.Is there a correlation between the rank-orders of the NOH proposed by Krashen (1977) and different L1s in terms of the English grammatical morpheme?

2. Is there a correlation in the rank-orders of morphemes between the different groups with the same L1 background?

3. Is there correlation between the TLU scores of learners from different L1s?

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

Meta-analysis method was used in this study to present a systematic synthesis of the research evidence from seven articles published in ISSN (Print & Online) Journals and to combine statistically the numerical data of the selected studies and to reach a general conclusion. "Meta-analysis provides an overall effect size and a confidence interval that is not based on a single study, but on cumulative evidence, yielded from the combination of two or more studies" (Cumming, 2012 cited in Crocetti, 2016, p.4). Therefore, meta-analysis design was preferred for the current study to search exhaustively for, identify, critically appraise, and synthesize the existing results of the relevant studies in order to answer the research questions. The PRISMA 2020 (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) statement (Page et al., 2020) was followed to ensure the transparent reporting of the current meta-analysis study.

Data Collection and Analysis

As a requirement of the exhaustive nature of meta-analysis design, explicit and transparent research protocol was set after formulating the research questions and before information retrieval in the aim of limiting potential bias. Then, the inclusion and exclusion criteria for eligibility was determined prior to literature search, appraisal, and synthesis of findings to avoid selection bias. To this end, it was determined to use the full electronic search strategy

with the search strings of (order of acquisition) OR (English grammatical morpheme order) OR "morpheme acquisition order" OR (English morpheme acquisition order) on ERIC, JSTOR, ProQuest, EbscoHost, Wiley databases and on Google Scholar intending to maximum coverage of high quality, peer-reviewed, open access journals. As for the inclusion criteria, it was decided to include (1) the combination of search terms of morpheme acquisition, morpheme order, acquisition of English grammatical morphemes, in accordance with their keywords, abstracts, and titles during the preliminary search on the selected databases, (2) papers published in journals within the last decade (2010-2020), (3) minimum 6 grammatical morphemes under investigation since multiple functors approach leads to reveal more exhaustive evidence and presents strong implications for future research (Gass and Selinker, 1994; Goldschneider and DeKeyser, 2001; Kwon, 2005), (4) participants from different L1s learning English as a foreign language with respect to the aim of the current study and also because the presence or absence of the equivalent category in their L1 can cause deviations from the established universal order (Luk and Shirai, 2008), and (5) measures that rely on SOC and TLU to determine the statistical patterns and accuracy of the selected morphemes in data analysis process since these measure either suppliance or non-supliance of the target morpheme in both in obligatory and non-obligatory contexts which is considered to yield more concrete data on morpheme acquisition order (Fen-Chuan Lu, 2001; Kwon, 2005; Murakami, 2011; Seog, 2015). Considering the research protocol, potentially relevant studies were saved, listed and screened for analysis. The flowchart for the data selection process was detailed in Figure 3.

Figure 3

PRISMA 2020 flow diagram
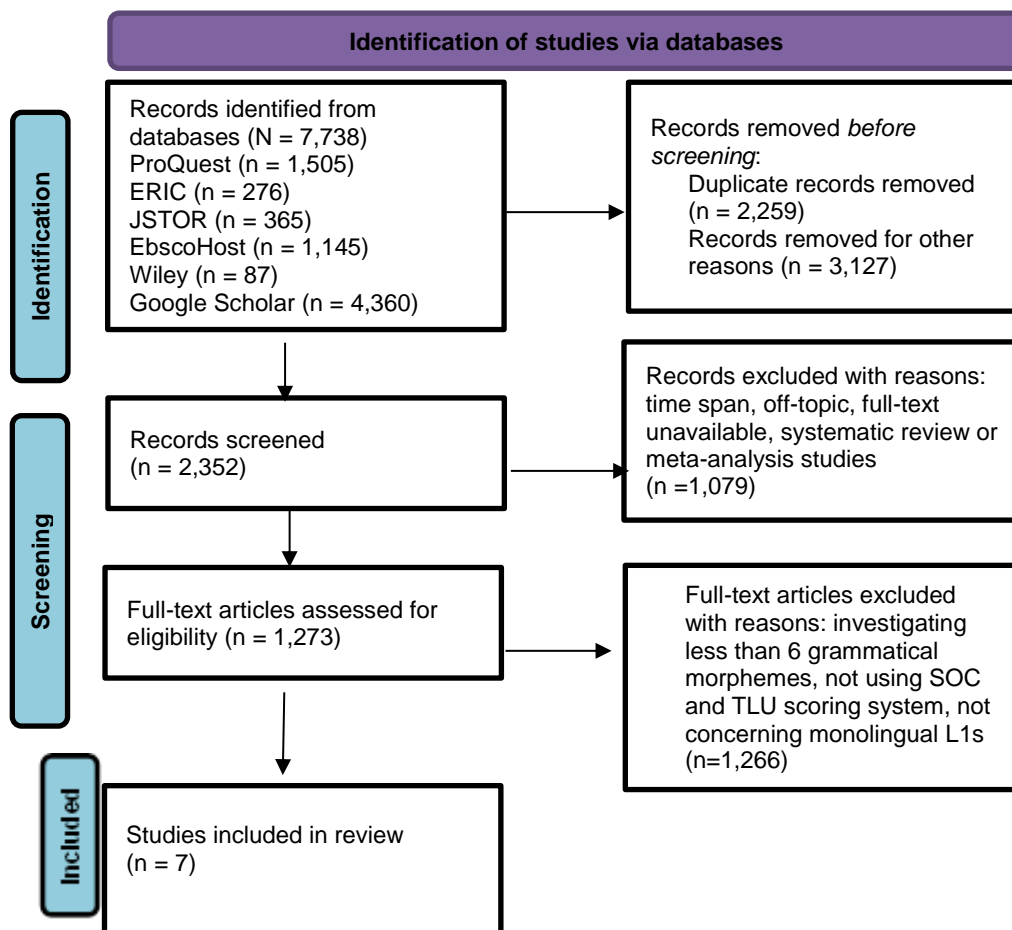
As for data analysis, the results of the included studies were synthesized to investigate whether learners showed a universal pattern in the acquisition of English grammatical morphemes and the revealed TLU scores were statistically analyzed with SPSS 26.0 to examine how much of the variance among participants from different L1s could be predicted by the universal pattern in the acquisition order of morphemes.

Included Studies

Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) intended to examine if Krashen's NOH (1977) worked in the same way in the Saudi EFL contexts. Besides, it was aimed to uncover whether age and learning settings have an impact on the Saudi EFL learners' acquisition of English grammatical morphemes. It was a descriptive study implemented with three groups (Group A was composed of 85 intermediate school students, and Group B was composed of 84 secondary school students. Group C included 89 college students) consisting of 258 male and female students randomly chosen from universities and public schools. A grammar elicitation task focusing on the use of 6 target morphemes was employed to obtain data. After the assessment of their performance, the TLU scores were computed for each group and found out that there was a fixed order of morpheme acquisition for each group, but the percentages were ranked for each group as follows: plural -s (A:55.7% B:68.5% C:74.6%), past -ed (A:48.2% B:60.9% C:66.1%), progressive -ing (A:39.1% B:52.6% C:59.5%), 3rd person -s (A:33.8% B:42.2% C:48.5), possessive -s (A:23.6% B:33.5% C:37.7%), and articles (A:9.4% B:16.8% C:21.1%). Besides, there was no significant correlation ($p= 0.41$) between the order by Krashen (1977) and the order found in this research. The remarkable distinction was between articles, progressive -ing, and past -ed, which was considered because Arabic and English languages did not have the morphemes that were equivalent for the same purpose in grammar structure. Therefore, it was concluded that whereas the variables in learner settings like age and exposure to the target language were not found to have a significant impact on the order of acquisition, the role of L1 as an interference was found to be evident.

Lazono and Negrillo (2019) aimed to investigate the existence of any patterns in morpheme accuracy orders of 486 L1 Spanish secondary school students from four different proficiency levels. The written productions of the participants were uploaded on to the COREFL (Corpus of English as a Foreign Language) and 40 texts (ten for each level) including 5869 words were selected as a sample. After tagging nine target grammatical morphemes, UAM Corpus Tool (v.2.8) was run for the TLU analysis. The results demonstrated that any proficiency levels had a transparent group variability for most morphemes. Whereas the revealed order of the beginners was found as plural -s (93.3%), possessive -s (85.8%), articles (80.6%), copula be (72.1%), auxiliary be (50%), progressive -ing (47.4%), past irregular (41.5%), past regular (39.7%), and 3rd person singular -s (11.8%), the acquisition order of the intermediates was found as auxiliary be (95.8%), plural -s (94.4%), progressive -ing (93.6%), copula be (92.5%), articles (92.1%), past regular (83.5%), past irregular (82.7%), possessive -s (57.1%), and 3rd person singular -s (0%), which indicated that proficiency level could be a determinant influencing the acquisition order.

Cheng and Lee's (2020) study focused on English morpheme acquisition order of Chinese and Korean EFL and ESL learners to evaluate if and to what extent their acquisition order of L2 English morphemes was influenced by Krashen's NOH (1977) and Dulay and Burt's (1974). The participants were purposely selected based on their L1 languages, Chinese and Korean, their position of learning English, EFL and ESL, and proficiency levels, low, medium, and high. In the end, 38 Korean and 38 Chinese EFL learners were involved in the study. The researchers scoped down the study to six morphemes. The study employed two types of tasks

one of which was a fill-in-the-blank type test for data elicitation. The participants were given three short paragraphs where the target morphemes were used in obligatory contexts and asked to fill in the blanks by using the six target morphemes. A total of 228 tokens were collected and analyzed according to the SOC method and then calculated by Pica's TLU (1983) formula. The results indicated the following order of morpheme acquisition for Chinese learners according to the accuracy rates from higher to lower: possessive – 's (96.4%), progressive-ing (96.2%), irregular past (90.8%), regular past (90.5%), plural -s (83.4%), and third singular -s (76.7%). The results from the Korean learners, on the other hand, indicated the order of regular past (86.8%), irregular past (86%), progressive -ing (80.1%), possessive - 's (77.1%), plural -s (71.2%), and third singular -s (62.1%). The orders were found to be the same despite proficiency variances in the participants. When compared, the revealed order was found to support neither Krashen's NOH (1977) nor Dulay and Burt's. Therefore, the researchers concluded that the settings, the type of participants, the methodology, the amount of instruction and input frequency play major roles in the learners' morpheme acquisition.

Ghonchepour et al. (2019) examined the accuracy order of nine target morphemes by 60 Persian upper intermediate EFL learners within the age range of 15 to 17 years old. The participants were selected in a purposive manner based on their proficiency level and self-reported aptitude level. As for data collection, they were asked to fill in the blanks based on what they saw in the pictures. Collected data consisting of 2160 morphemes was analyzed by the combination of SOC method and Pica's TLU (1983) formula. The findings indicated the following morpheme acquisition order, ranked in a decreased order: regular past tense (96.66%), auxiliary be (91.04%), copula be (89.79%), present progressive tense (85.62%), indefinite articles (84.37%), plural -s (82.08%), possessive –'s (81.25%), irregular past tense (80.20%), and third person singular -s (74.16%). The results evidenced that the morpheme acquisition order of Persian EFL learners was not found out to be in line with the natural order. The researchers considered the role of transfer rather than universal grammar in EFL acquisition for this conclusion and suggested that the results of this study could contribute to designing instructional techniques and teaching procedures accordingly to facilitate language learning. Moreover, coursebook designers may make necessary arrangements according to the revealed order to provide Persian EFL learners with more learning opportunities.

Lebeco (2013) also carried out a descriptive morpheme order study with the Filipino students. This study aimed to examine in which order 10 Filipino university freshman multilinguals acquired the selected eight grammar morphemes. The participant selection was made in a purposive manner on the basis of age, educational background, fluency and length of stay in the Philippines. They were to be multilingual, between 16 to 19 years old, fluent at conversational level in minimum three Philippine languages. Besides, they were to complete their elementary and high school education in the Philippines and have neither lived nor stayed in any country where English was used as the L1 for the past six months prior to the data collection. As for data collection, the students were asked to write two expository and one narrative text on the given topics. The collected data was analyzed by the combination of SOC and Pica's TLU (1983). The findings of this study revealed the following morpheme acquisition order from higher to lower percent accuracy: Auxiliary *be* (100%), Article *the* (98%), Progressive -ing (93.54%), Plural -s (88.61%), Copula *be* (86.66%), Irregular Past (82.14%), Possessive –'s (69.69%), and Third Person Singular Present (69.47%). As for the pedagogical implications, the researcher noted that English grammatical morphemes must be presented in the order of how that specific group of learners acquire them, namely introducing the morphemes acquired easily before presenting the ones with the higher inaccuracy

percentage. Moreover, language teachers should provide extra support to help learners internalize those grammatical items that they have difficulty with.

Seog's (2015) descriptive study investigated the morpheme acquisition orders of 105 L1 Korean elementary students in the intermediate level English classes at an EFL program. The aim was to clarify and explicate the revealed disparities from Krashen's NOH (1977) to shed a light on their language acquisition process. Convenient sampling was employed during the selection of the participants and their writing samples produced during the writing sessions at the program were permitted for use. 173 writing samples, a total of 4,360 sentences with 39,402 words, were analyzed through SOC and Pica's TLU (1983) for the accurate use of the 8 target morphemes The calculated results in a ranked order revealed the following order from higher to lower acquisition percentages: Copula be (95.50%), Plural -s (91.97%), Past Irregular (90.55%), Past Regular -ed (88.28%), Progressive -ing (83.46%), Possessive –'s (78.16%), Auxiliary be (66.52%), and 3rd Person Singular -s (60.76%). The conclusion was that the revealed acquisition order proved the existence of deviations among the L1 Korean group of EFL learners from Krashen's (1977) proposed order of acquisition and further investigation towards generalizability should be carried out to examine influential determinants for these disparities in other contexts.

Purnamaningwulan (2020) investigated the grammatical morpheme acquisition order of 26 Indonesian senior high school students through their writing productions in the aim of finding out whether their acquisition order followed Krashen's NOH (1977). The participants were looked to be L1 Indonesian EFL learners who had studied English a compulsory subject in junior high school and have a minimum three years of English study length. As for data collection, each participant was asked to write a personal letter on a given topic. The final data consisted of 26 pieces of written texts, approximately 4,600 words. Data analysis focused on nine target grammatical and was processed through Pica's (1983) TLU method was performed to take the overuse of morphemes or their suppliance in non-obligatory contexts into consideration. The total scores and percentages as a result of the analysis revealed the following morpheme acquisition order of the Indonesian high school EFL learners from higher to lower acquisition percentage: Copula be (70.21%), Plural -s (67.91%), Progressive -ing (66.25%), Articles (56.38%), 3rd Person Singular -s (50%), Auxiliary be (41.67%), Regular Past -ed (31.03%), Irregular Past (23.9%), and Possessive -s (0%). The results showed that the Indonesian high school EFL learners' order of grammatical morpheme acquisition was not fully in line with Krashen's conclusion (1977). The researcher suggested further and more thorough morpheme order studies to discover other determining factors behind deviations from the established orders in the literature in the aim of gaining in-depth understanding of L2 acquisition process.

The characteristics and findings of the studies are as follows (see Table 2):

Table 2.

The characteristics and findings of the included studies

Morphemes	Accuracy Order and Scores	Krashen (1977)	Lebeco (2013) L1 Filipino	Seog (2015) L1 Korean	Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) L1 Arabic Group A	Group B	Group C	Ghonchepour et al. (2019) L1 Persian	Lazono and Negrillo (2019) L1 Spanish Beginners	Intermediates	Purnamaningwulan (2020) L1 Indonesian	Cheng and Lee (2020) L1 Chinese	Korean
Present progressive –ing	Order TLU	1	3 (93.54%)	5 (83.46%)	3 (39.1%)	3 (52.6%)	3 (59.5%)	4 (85.62%)	6 (47.4%)	3 (93.6%)	3 (66.25%)	2 (96.2%)	3 (80.1%)
Regular plural –s	Order TLU	2	4 (88.61%)	2 (91.97%)	1 (55.7%)	1 (68.5%)	1 (74.6%)	6 (82.08%),	1 (93.3%)	2 (94.4%)	2 (67.91%)	5 (83.4%)	5 (71.2%)
Copula –BE	Order TLU	3	5 (86.66%)	1 (95.50)	-	-	-	3 (89.79%)	4 (72.1%)	1 (92.5%)	1 (70.21%)	-	-
Auxiliary	Order TLU	4	1 (100%)	7 (66.52%)	-	-	-	2 (91.04%)	5 (50%)	1 (95.8%)	6 (41.67%)	-	-
Articles	Order TLU	5	2 (98%) the	-	6 (9.4%)	6 (16.8%)	6 (21.1%)	5 (84.37%) indefinite	3 (80.6%)	5 (92.1%)	4 (56.38%)	-	-
Irregular past tense verbs	Order TLU	6	6 (82.14%)	3 (90.55%)	-	-	-	8 (80.20%)	7 (41.5%)	7 (82.7%)	8 (23.9%)	3 (90.8%)	2 (86%)
Past tense regular –ed	Order TLU	7	-	4 (88.28%)	2 (48.2%)	2 (60.9%)	2 (66.1%)	1 (96.66%)	8 (39.7%)	6 (83.5%)	7 (31.03%)	4 (90.5%)	1 (86.8%)
3rd person –s	Order TLU	8	8 (69.47)	8 (60.76%)	4 (33.8%)	4 (42.2%)	4 (48.5%)	9 (74.16%)	9 (11.8%)	9 (0%)	5 (50%)	6 (76.7%)	6 (62.1%)
Regular possessive –s	Order TLU	9	7 (69.69%)	6 (78.16%)	5 (23.6%)	5 (33.5%)	5 (37.7%)	7 (81.25%)	2 (85.8%)	8 (57.1%)	9 (0%)	1 (96.4%)	4 (77.1%)

RESULTS

Is there a correlation between the rank-orders of the NOH proposed by Krashen (1977) and different L1s in terms of the English grammatical morpheme?

Spearman's rank-order correlation was utilized to pinpoint the similarities and differences between the morpheme rank-order of the NOH and the morpheme rank order of different L1 groups. Orders were based on the TLU scores for each group. The result indicated that there was not a correlation between Krashen's NOH (1977) and different L1s which are L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013), L1 Korean (Seog, 2015), L1 Arabic (Mohammed and Sanosi, 2018), L1 Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019), L1 Spanish-Beginners (Lozano and Negrillo, 2019), L1 Chinese and L1 Korean (Cheng and Lee, 2020). On the other hand, L1 Spanish-Intermediates ($p=.004$, $r=.850$) and L1 Indonesian (Purnamaningwulan, 2020) ($p=.013$, $r=.783$) had a positive correlation with the NOH (See Table 3).

ORDER CORRELATION

			Lebeco (2013) L1 Filipino	Seog (2015) L1 Korean	Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) L1 Arabic Group A	L1 Arabic Group B	L1 Arabic Group C	Ghonchepour et al. (2019) L1 Persian	Lazono and Negrillo (2019) L1 Spanish Beginners	L1 Spanish Intermediates	Purnamaningwulan (2020) L1 Indonesian	Cheng and Lee (2020) L1 Chinese	L1 Korean
Krashen (1977)	Krashen	r	.383	.400	.390	.390	.390	.383	.300	.850**	.783*	.220	.237
		p	.308	.286	.300	.300	.300	.308	.433	.004	.013	.569	.539
Lebeco (2013)	L1 Filipino	r	1.000	.250	.136	.136	.136	.867**	.017	.633	.117	.322	.627
		p	.	.516	.728	.728	.728	.002	.966	.067	.765	.398	.071
Seog (2015)	L1 Korean	r		1.000	.068	.068	.068	.183	.467	.250	.467	.322	.458
		p		.	.862	.862	.862	.637	.205	.516	.205	.398	.215
Mohammed and Sanosi (2018)	L1 Arabic Group A	r			1.000	1.000**	1.000**	.305	-.119	.458	.153	.086	.310
		p			.	.	.	.425	.761	.215	.695	.825	.416
	L1 Arabic Group B	r			1.000**	1.000	1.000**	.305	-.119	.458	.153	.086	.310
		p			.	.	.	.425	.761	.215	.695	.825	.416
	L1 Arabic Group C	r			1.000**	1.000**	1.000	.305	-.119	.458	.153	.086	.310
		p			.	.	.	.425	.761	.215	.695	.825	.416
Ghonchepour et al. (2019)	L1 Persian	r						1.000	.017	.617	.217	.458	.695*
		p						.	.966	.077	.576	.215	.038
Lozano And Negrillo (2019)	L1 Spanish Beginners	r							1.000	.417	.267	.407	.085
		p							.	.265	.488	.277	.828
	L1 Spanish Intermediates	r								1.000	.550	.390	.424
		p								.	.125	.300	.256
Purnamaningwulan (2020)	L1 Indonesian	r									1.000	.102	.119
		p									.	.795	.761
Cheng and Lee (2020)	L1 Chinese	r										1.000	.828**
		p										.	.006

Is there a correlation in the rank-orders of morphemes between the different groups with the same L1 background?

This study included the studies which were conducted with the different groups with the same L1. Firstly, Seog (2015) and Chang and Lee (2020) conducted their studies to find out the morpheme acquisition orders of English learners whose mother tongue was Korean. The order was found as regular past (1), irregular past (2) progressive -ing (3) possessive - 's (4), plural -s (5) and third singular -s (6) by Chang and Lee (2020) whereas Seog (2020) found it as copula be (1), plural -s (2), past irregular (3), past regular -ed (4), progressive -ing (5), possessive –'s (6), auxiliary be (7), and 3rd Person Singular -s (8). Findings indicated that the morpheme orders were different from each other in these studies. Additionally, Spearman's rank-order correlation also showed that there was no correlation between the morpheme orders of these different groups with the same L1 background.

Secondly, Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) conducted their research among three different groups with L1 Arabic. Each student group had a different education level which was derived from secondary, intermediate and college. The order was found the same for each group: (1) plural -s, (2) past -ed, (3) progressive -ing, (4) 3rd person -s, (5) possessive -s, and (6) articles. It was also stated that there was no significant correlation between the order by Krashen (1977) and the order found in this research.

Lastly, Lozano and Negrillo (2019) carried out their studies to explore the English grammatical morpheme acquisition order of Spanish learners, who were grouped as beginners and intermediates. The order for beginners was (1) plural -s, (2) possessive -s, (3) articles, (4) copula be, (5) auxiliary be, (6) progressive -ing, (7) past irregular, (8) past regular, and (9) 3rd person singular -s while it was found as (1) auxiliary be, (2) plural -s, (3) progressive -ing, (4) copula be, (5) articles, (6) past regular, (7) past irregular, (8) possessive -s, and (9) 3rd person singular -s. Besides, it was found out using Spearman's rank-order correlation that there was no correlation between the morpheme acquisition orders of two groups.

Is there correlation between the TLU scores of learners from different L1s?

It was also aimed in the study to discover whether there was a correlation between the TLU score of learners. Spearman rank-order correlation analysis was used to see the correlations and the results have shown that there were strong correlations between as following: (1) L1 Korean (Seog, 2015) and L1 Arabic (Mohammed and Sanosi, 2018) with a *p value* of .037 and r value of .900, (2) L1 Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019) and L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013) with a p value of .015 and r value of .810, (3) L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013) and , L1 Spanish-Intermediates (Lozano and Negrillo, 2019) with a p value of .010 and r value of . 833 (See Table 4).

TLU CORRELATION

			Lebeco (2013) L1 Filipino	Seog (2015) L1 Korean	Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) L1 Arabic Group A	L1 Arabic Group B	L1 Arabic Group C	Ghonchepour et al. (2019) L1 Persian	Lozano and Negrillo (2019) L1 Spanish Beginners	L1 Spanish Intermediates	Purnamaningwulan (2020) L1 Indonesian	Cheng and Lee (2020) L1 Chinese	L1 Korean
Lebeco (2013)	L1 Filipino	r	1.000	.214	-.200	-.200	-.200	.810*	.262	.833*	.286	.300	.500
		p	.	.645	.747	.747	.747	.015	.531	.010	.493	.624	.391
Seog (2015)	L1 Korean	r		1.000	.900*	.900*	.900*	.238	.429	.286	.429	-.086	.371
		p		.	.037	.037	.037	.570	.289	.493	.289	.872	.468
Mohammed and Sanosi (2018)	L1 Arabic Group A	r			1.000	1.000**	1.000**	.314	.086	.486	.429	-.400	.200
		p			.	.	.	.544	.872	.329	.397	.505	.747
	L1 Arabic Group B	r				1.000	1.000**	.314	.086	.486	.429	-.400	.200
		p				.	.	.544	.872	.329	.397	.505	.747
	L1 Arabic Group C	r					1.000	.314	.086	.486	.429	-.400	.200
		p					.	.544	.872	.329	.397	.505	.747
Ghonchepour et al. (2019)	L1 Persian	r						1.000	.017	.617	.217	.257	.600
		p						.	.966	.077	.576	.623	.208
Lozano And Negrillo (2019)	L1 Spanish Beginners	r							1.000	.417	.267	.429	-.143
		p							.	.265	.488	.397	.787
	L1 Spanish Intermediates	r								1.000	.550	.029	.257
		p								.	.125	.957	.623
Purnamaningwulan (2020)	L1 Indonesian	r									1.000	-.543	-.371
		p									.	.266	.468
Cheng and Lee (2020)	L1 Chinese	r										1.000	.429
		p										.	.397

DISCUSSION

This study set out with the aim of revealing similarities and differences in the English grammatical morpheme order between the groups with the different and same L1 background. With the help of previous research, inclusion and exclusion criteria were employed to collect the data and 7 studies were found. Publications were only included in the analysis if they included measures based on SOC (Supplied in Obligatory Contexts) and TLU (Target-Like Use). After collecting data from the studies which were presented in table 4, Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation was performed using SPSS software (26.0) in an attempt to uncover whether there is a correlation between the NOH by Krashen (1977) and the orders and the TLU scores in the selected studies.

The first question in this study sought to test if there was a correlation between NOH and the orders of different L1 groups. In light of the analysis, it was ascertained that there was no correlation detected between NOH and L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013), L1 Korean (Seog, 2015), L1 Arabic (Mohammed and Sanosi, 2018), L1 Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019), L1 Spanish-Beginners (Lozano and Negrillo, 2019), L1 Chinese and L1 Korean (Cheng and Lee, 2020. On the contrary, the NOH and L1 Spanish-Intermediates with a p-value of .004 and L1 Indonesian with a p-value of .013 were positively correlated. The second question in this research was to determine the correlation between morpheme orders of the different participants with the same L1 background. In the selected publications, there were 2 different studies that studied the morpheme order of L1 Korean learners: Seog (2015) and Chang and Lee (2020). Besides, Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) conducted their study with participants with L1 Arabic. However, there were three groups from different education levels. Lastly, Lozano and Negrillo (2019) also carried out their research with the participants with L1 Spanish. In the study, participants were groups in accordance with their proficiency levels as beginners and intermediates. Data from these studies help us analyze the correlation between the different groups with the same L1 backgrounds. The results of the correlational analysis were presented in Table xx. It is apparent from this table that beginners and intermediates groups' morpheme orders (Lozano and Negrillo, 2019) were correlated neither positively nor negatively. Similarly, morpheme acquisition orders of the participants with L1 Korean were not correlated. Nevertheless, a positive correlation was found between the morpheme

acquisition orders of learners with L1 Arabic (Mohammed and Sanosi, 2018). The last research question was to address the correlation of the TLU scores of different L1 groups. As can be seen from table xx, strong correlations were discovered between (1) L1 Korean (Seog, 2015) and L1 Arabic (Mohammed and Sanosi, 2018), (2) L1 Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019), and L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013), (3) L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013) and L1 Spanish-Intermediates (Lozano and Negrillo, 2019). The correlation between these groups was interesting because none of them had similar grammatical structures. However, their TLU scores were somehow correlated. In conclusion, for each study, it resulted that L1 influence was a factor affecting English grammatical morpheme acquisition orders and there was no clear universal order. A note of caution is due here since the NOH and L1 Spanish-Intermediates and L1 Indonesian had a positive correlation. These findings may be somewhat limited by different factors.

Goldschneider and DeKeyser's (2001) meta-analysis focused the effects of five determinants which were perceptual salience, semantic complexity, morphophonological regularity, syntactic category, and frequency, and how these determinants elucidate the variance detected in acquisition order. Their result indicated the combination of the determinants clarifies the acquisition order variance. Luk and Shirai (2009) reviewed the morpheme order research conducted among participants with L1 Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Spanish. They traced the influence of L1 on English grammatical morpheme acquisition order. Results uncovered the orders were different from the predicted order by Krashen. They stated that "the presence or absence of the equivalent category" in L1 could predict the morpheme acquisition order, which indicated how L1 transfer was strong and had a role in morpheme acquisition order. As a continuation of these studies, we have conducted this meta-analysis that includes the seven publications on the target topic, L1 influence on English grammatical morpheme acquisition order, between 2010-2020.

Due to the declining number of research studies on the morpheme acquisition order because of its complex and difficult nature, there were some limitations encountered. As this study set out as a meta-analysis, inclusion and exclusion criteria quite limited the number of included studies. This led us to examine only seven studies, which made it much more difficult to make generalizations due to the minority of participants.

Some of the issues emerging from this finding relate specifically to the materials utilized while teaching English to different L1 groups. The materials to be used in English language teaching should be prepared in accordance with the language structure of a particular L1 when necessary, taking into account different L1 groups, and should also be in accordance with the order of morpheme acquisition. In addition, language teachers should also be aware of the L1 influence on language learning, and taking this influence into account, they should teach the language with appropriate methods and strategies and should be able to predict the effects that may lead to negative transfer.

CONCLUSION

All in all, this meta-analysis examined the recent seven morpheme order studies which were selected within the established criteria to investigate the role of various L1 backgrounds and their consistency with the NOH by Krashen (1977) and their correlation with their presented TLU scores. It also examined the correlation between studies with the participants sharing the same L1 background. The findings revealed that although Spanish and Indonesian speaking participants had a correlation with the NOH, it is impossible to assert that there exists a clear natural order followed by the learners with each different L1 background. As suggested by Luk and Shirai (2009), it is possible to mention the universal considerations of morpheme

acquisition but it is improbable to accept the existence of a universal order of acquisition, as proposed by Krashen (1977). On the other hand, the TLU scores of these studies showed strong correlations between Korean and Arabic, also between Persian and Filipino, lastly between Filipino and Spanish-Intermediates. Furthermore, only Arabic speaking learners had a positive correlation among themselves in the acquisition order. All these findings suggested that the significance of morpheme order studies lies behind their partly predictable but very dynamic nature. Correspondingly, although there is an increasing and decreasing trend in morpheme studies throughout the years, these studies are of significant in revealing the importance of the role and transfer of L1 and other factors affecting the language learning process.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF COORDINATING CONJUNCTION IN DUTCH TURKISH VARIETIES WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF CROSS LINGUISTIC INFLUENCE

Esma Nur Dikmen

INTRODUCTION

In communities where more than one language is spoken, languages contact with each other inevitably. People that live in a multi-language community, communicate with others that speak a different language or a different version of the same language, in that case, we assume that this language contact has outcomes that can be discussed in terms of its types, advantages, and disadvantages.

Languages are living entities and they may be vulnerable when they encounter different varieties of language contact, in return languages are said to show a tendency to differ or even change. In situations of language contact, language maintenance, complete language shift or creation of new mixed languages can be observed (Winford 2003:11).

Language change can be observed as the outcome of an internal or an external reason, but it is argued that those reasons are not exclusive, they rather complement each other when a grammatical change is facilitated.

Frequency of use is an important item when deciding whether a change has occurred or not. In the present study, two corpora are investigated to compare the frequency of coordinating conjunction use in NL-Turkish bilinguals and TR-Turkish monolinguals spoken data. If statistically significant differences are found among monolinguals' and bilinguals' use of coordinating conjunction by looking at the frequency, *cross-linguistic influence* will be suggested as a facilitator for the occurrence of contact-induced language change.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Bilinguals have two languages in their repertoire which means their two languages can be influenced by each other. Bilinguals are people that use their languages in different contexts for different purposes. Their rate of using each language may differ in terms of their needs and purposes. Having two languages at the same time means that they are interchangeably moving back and forward between those languages and use them spontaneously, their mother tongue/ the heritage language seem to be the dominant one but in cases where they are exposed to their second language more, it is discussed in the field that contact-induced language change might be observed.

Being exposed to two languages at the same time provide bilinguals a repertoire of linguistic structures that allow them to communicate in diverse situations. Their use of that repertoire seems to develop when they make use of it more, which might result in creativity and high proficiency in language use. It is suggested by Matras (2010) that those skills need to be acquired by bilinguals and to do so they need time and to linguistically socialize.

As a result of the choices bilinguals make while using their language, convergence can be observed. When those choices involve replication of a foreign structure it is explained as the unintended results of that replication leading to convergence and/or grammaticalization.

Bilinguals set a mental demarcation line between their languages in contact in times that unconventional uses of languages in speech production might occur. Those unconventional lapses are seen as important for the language contact phenomena, thus observed closely.

Bilinguals are said to have unified language systems in their brains, therefore their linguistic repertoire contains both languages and bilinguals try keeping those elements separate by a mental demarcation line, which can also be referred to as inhibition mechanism. When that line is crossed, the reason for this occurrence is questioned whether it was done intentionally or arbitrary. Those cases of 'crossing' are investigated as being possible outcomes of language contact.

In order to incorporate a basic insight of what is influential on linguistic structure, usage-based theory has emerged in the field. Usage-based theory investigates evidence from usage for the understanding of the cognitive organization of language. Thus usage patterns, frequency of occurrence, variation, and change are all taken to provide direct evidence about cognitive representation. Recently the usage-based framework is extensively used in language change studies. Onar Valk and Backus (2013) study the difference between Turkish heritage speakers' and Turkish monolinguals use of subordinate clauses, by recording the speakers' spontaneous speeches on bilinguals and monolinguals mode. The results show that the Dutch-Turkish bilinguals predominantly use finite subordinate clauses, on the other hand, monolinguals are reported to be making use of non-finite constructions in their speeches. As a result, they suggest the interplay between the fundamental processes in the sense of usage-based linguistics.

From a pragmatic perspective, Sağın Şimşek (2009) investigates the German contact on the feature of Turkish pronominal system and pro-drop parameter by the bilingual spoken data and found that German-Turkish bilingual informants use subject pronouns much more than their monolingual peers.

Iefremenko and Schroeder (2019) studied the Turkish heritage speakers' language uses in official and inofficial contexts in terms of clause-linking types that are investigated in two different contexts: Germany and the United States. It is found that monolingual Turkish speakers tend to use non-finite subordinate clauses rather than their finite equivalents while Turkish heritage speakers intensely use coordinate clauses. In the following part subordination in Turkish and Dutch is explained.

2.1. Subordination in Turkish

In Turkish, there are simple (have only main clause) and complex (encompass a main and a subordinate clause) sentences. In complex sentences, Turkish allow forming both finite and non-finite clauses. In Turkish, finiteness means that the predicate of the subordinate clause is finite while non-finiteness indicates a subordinate clause that comprises a subordinator ending attached to a non-finite verbal predicate (Kornfilt, 1997). However, most of the subordinate clause uses of Turkish are non-finite. Though finite constructions are grammatical, it is less frequent.

Subordination is regarded as a more complex use of language since there is a hierarchical relationship within an embedded clause and another (Schleppegrell 1992:117). It is argued in the literature that whether finite and non-finite subordinate construction differs in terms of complexity. Non-finite subordinate construction is referred to as a more complex use of language compared to finite subordinate construction. It is observed in the literature that much of contact-induced change involves a reduction in 'complexity'. Therefore, complexity is

considered having a connection in possible language contact influenced changes in the present study.

2.2 Subordination in Dutch

In Dutch language use, there is more of an analytic structure observed, whereas in Turkish they tend to make use of morphological constructions. It is argued that analytic constructions are more attractive compared to synthetic ones (i.e. morphological) and it is believed that analytic constructions are easier to be copied. Therefore, Johanson (2002) hypothesized that in language contact settings a replacement of a synthetic construction with an analytic construction borrowed from the other language might be observed when the right conditions are present.

NL-Turkish bilingual children were shown to prefer analytical types of subordination (making use of finite subordination) and make limited use of synthetic subordination (making use of non-finite subordination) compared to Turkish monolinguals (Verhoeven & Boeschoten 1986).

Therefore, in the present study, the frequency of finite and non-finite subordination use of NL-Turkish bilinguals are compared to TR-Turkish monolinguals by investigating coordinating conjunction to observe whether NL-Turkish bilinguals prefer finite subordination to non-finite subordination due to Dutch influence.

2.3. Coordinating Conjunction in Turkish

Coordinating conjunctions combine two clauses of the same syntactic type, e.g., two main clauses, like in English. They typically appear in the middle of the sentences and show an affinity with the second clause.

In Turkish both finite and non-finite structures are possible, whereas in Germanic languages such as German, Dutch and English finite uses are more frequent.

- Yanlış anladım diyorum <u>da</u> *gülüyorlar bana*. ☐ non-finite
- I said I've misunderstood <u>and</u> *they laughed at me.* ☐ finite
- Yanlış anladım dedim <u>ve</u> *bana güldüler*. ☐ finite

As can be seen in the examples above, the coordinating conjunction ''ve'' is used in a finite clause. Therefore, the motivation behind this study comes from the idea that in NL-TR bilingual cases if the finite ''ve'' (and) is used more frequently then TR monolingual cases, is it possible to suggest cross linguistic influence as a result of the language contact between Dutch and Turkish, since Turkish is naturally show a tendency in non-finite uses, whereas in Dutch finite clauses are dominantly used.

2.4. Immigrant Turks in Western Europe

Turkic languages are spoken in a large area. They are present in a zone from Bosnia to China and from southern Persia to the Arctic Ocean. Large-scale immigration caused Western Europe to host Turkish for some decades (Johanson 2002a:3). In the form of labor migration, the Turkish immigrant wave to Western Europe started from 1960's and early 1970's. Although the migration was happening mostly to Germany there were sizeable groups migrating to other countries, including the Netherlands. The growing economy in the European countries needed a larger labor force, therefore the call for workers were significantly high. The Dutch government signed an agreement with Turkey in 1964 to compensate for labor shortage, inviting ''guest workers'' to their country. (Arends-Tóth

2003:16). Although the immigrants were all male workers at the beginning, the number of Turkish immigrants increased over time due to informal situations as family reunification and marriage, etc. At first, after earning some money for increasing their quality of life, most of the migrants had going back to Turkey in their minds, however, a large number of Turks eventually settled down in Europe with their families, which turned a migrant into an immigrant community. By now, this Turkish community is into its third generation, and it has grown into a regular immigrant community (Backus 2010:227, 2013b:771).

2.5. *NL-Turkish Bilinguals*

Turkish people living in the Netherlands stick to preserve themselves as communities that stay together, therefore inevitably create opportunities for using Turkish (Backus 2013b:774). Apart from that, Turkish-Dutch people consider being able to speak Turkish, their heritage language, as a commitment to their values (Extra & Yağmur 2010:131; Backus 2013b:773). Turks seem to be highly loyal to their language, and they also identify their culture with the language. However, the second generation NL-Turkish bilinguals in the Netherlands seem to develop a more flexible attitude towards the culture they are exposed to and show higher proficiency skills in Dutch, which enable them to interact more with the society they are living in. Dutch being the dominant language in the society there is an inevitable unidirectional influence on NL-Turkish because of the language contact they are facing. Therefore it is considered that slowly but observably there may be changes in their heritage language as a result of cross linguistic influence.

METHODOLOGY

In the present study, the aim is to investigate the coordinating conjunction ''*ve*''(and), ''*ve sonra*''(and then), ''*en*''(and) used by Dutch-Turkish bilinguals living in the Netherlands by looking at their frequency of use. In order to answer the research question presented below, this study adopts a quantitative method research approach and Usage-based linguistics as its theoretical framework.

> Do 2nd generation NL-TR bilinguals increase their use of finite clauses by making use of coordinating conjunctions ''ve'',''ve sonra'', ''en'' compared to TR monolinguals, due to Dutch influence?

For implementing the study, an NL-Turkish 1st generation and 2nd generation Bilingual corpus and a TR-Turkish monolingual corpus compiled in the Netherlands and Turkey for a dissertation has been used. The corpus investigated in the study is obtained from Mehmet Akkuş with his permission. Akkuş selected his participants through convenience and snowball samplings from two research contexts, the Netherlands and Turkey for his study. In his data collection process, first of all, a language background questionnaire was given to the participants to be informed about their linguistic and generational backgrounds. The participants were then categorized into three groups depending on their generational background and on whether they are monolingual or bilingual language speakers. A total of 35 Turkish monolingual and Dutch-Turkish bilingual (1st generation and 2nd generation Dutch-Turkish bilingual speakers) interactants were selected through convenience sampling technique. Group 1 consisted of eleven 1st generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers who migrated to the Netherlands, marrying a Netherlands-born Turkish partner. They acquired Turkish as their native tongue in Turkey and learned Dutch in second language environment in the Netherlands after their arrival. They are not fluent speakers of Dutch in comparison to their children and grandchildren (Backus, 1996, Broeder & Extra, 1995). Group 2 included twelve 2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers who were born in the Netherlands

and were exposed to both Turkish and Dutch from birth. They are regarded as balanced bilinguals who have regular contact with Dutch from their schooling onwards. In intergroup interactions (see Backus, 1996) heritage speakers (2nd generation bilinguals) often speak Dutch or switch between Turkish and Dutch depending on their needs of communication.

The reason for including 1st and 2nd generations into the study is the assumption that in language contact situations heritage speakers' morphosyntactic features might be vulnerable, and if so, a divergence on the use of coordinating conjunction ''ve'' between two generations would be expected to be observed in comparison to monolingual Turkish speakers.

Participants

In the following section the two research contexts, the Netherlands and Turkey, will be presented in detail.

There are 404,459 people with Turkish background reported to live in the Netherlands according to the most recent demographic statistical figures in 2018. While 191,513 96 people are claimed to have had "1st generation background", 212,946 of the population with Turkish origin are categorized as "2nd generation". In this study, these people categorized with "2nd generation" background are referred to as "heritage Turkish speakers living in the Netherlands".

The main aim of the present study is to investigate the cross-linguistic influence on coordinating conjunction used by bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers living in the Netherlands. However, as mentioned by Backus (2004) and Dabrowska (2013) any data which are gathered for comparison from a non-contact variety is of great importance in contact-induced language change studies.

In order meet this purpose, apart from the data gathered from the 2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers (N=12), two sets of control data were also collected: one set from bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers with the 1st generation background (N=11), and the other one from Turkish monolingual speakers in Turkey (N=12).

Following are the three groups of participants involved in the study:

1) 2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers (N=12)

2) 1st generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers (N=11)

3) Turkish monolingual speakers (N=12)

2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers aged 18 to 29, up to then, none of whom had Turkish education before in a Dutch school. It is important to mention that the 2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers, who are in the second immigrant generation circle, only had the chance to acquire and use their first language, with their family members, relatives, and Turkish friends. All the 2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers considered themselves as Dutch native speakers, however, they did not define themselves as "fully-competent" speakers of Turkish.

1st generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers were selected according to the dialects compatible with those of the 2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers (Ardahan, N=1; Ankara, N=1; Nevşehir, N=1; Kayseri, N=2; Yozgat, N=2; Konya, N=2; Aksaray, N=2). All of the Dutch-Turkish bilinguals arrived as adults, and have always maintained their original dialects.

Turkish monolingual participants' age range differed from 19 to 30. Data were collected from eight urban and suburban areas of Aksaray, Ankara, Ardahan, Kayseri, Kırşehir, Konya, Nevşehir and Yozgat.

The Corpora

The present study makes use of a corpus consisting of spontaneous natural interviews. All transcriptions are counted utterance-by-utterance by two researchers (Akkuş, 2019). As a result, the following subcorpora is constructed:

I.   2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers' subcorpus: **22.163** utterances,

II.   1st generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish speakers' subcorpus: **21.822** utterances, and

III.   Monolingual Turkish speakers' subcorpus: **23.125** utterances.

The corpus then is analyzed by looking at the frequency of ''ve'', ''ve sonra'', ''en'' uses of 2nd generation NL-TR bilinguals, 1st generation NL-TR bilinguals and TR monolinguals.

Data Analysis

The monolingual and the 1st and 2nd generation bilingual speaker corpora are analyzed to mark all the coordinating conjunction ''ve'', ''ve sonra'', ''en'' occurred in the data in order to identify the frequency of use.

|	2nd Gen.	1st Gen.	Monolingual
■ ve (and)	5,4821	2,5513	2,6464
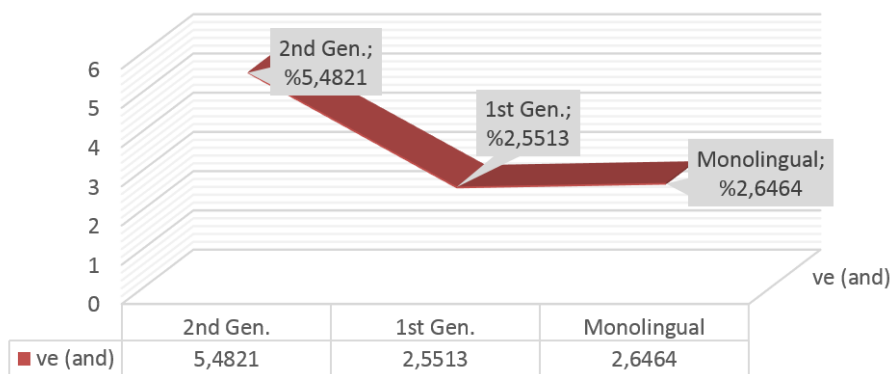
Figure 1: Frequency of ''ve'' (and) Conjunction in Three Speakers' Subcorpora

According to the analysis, it is found out that 2nd generation bilinguals make use of ''ve'' (and) conjunction more (%5,4821 per hundred utterance) compared to the 1st generation and the monolingual group. The results indicate that the 1st generation and the monolingual group don't differ much in terms of their frequency of use of the coordinating conjunction ''ve'', 1st generations using %2,5513 per hundred utterances and monolinguals using %2,6464 per hundred utterances. Figure 1 shows the frequency of ''ve'' (and) in the monolingual and the 1st and 2nd generation bilingual speaker corpora. The horizontal axis in the table refers to the number of occurrences of the coordinating conjunction ''ve'' (and) identified within each subcorpus (per hundred utterances), the vertical axis refers to the distribution among the speaker groups.
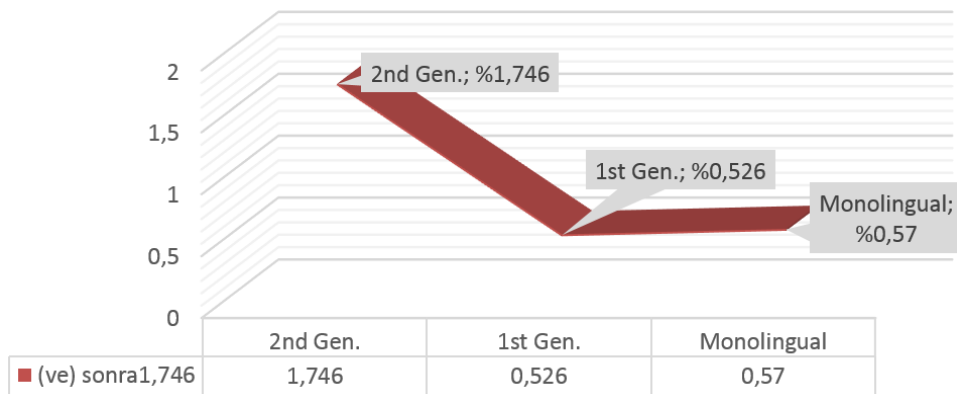
Figure 2: Frequency of ''(ve) sonra'' (and then) in Three Speakers' Subcorpora

The results indicate that the 2nd generations make use of ''ve sonra'' (and then) more (1,746) compared to the 1st group (0,526) and the monolingual group (0,57). Again the 1st generations' and the monolinguals' use of ''ve sonra'' per hundred utterances is similar, however, this time monolinguals' frequency of use is slightly more than the 1st generation bilinguals frequency of use.
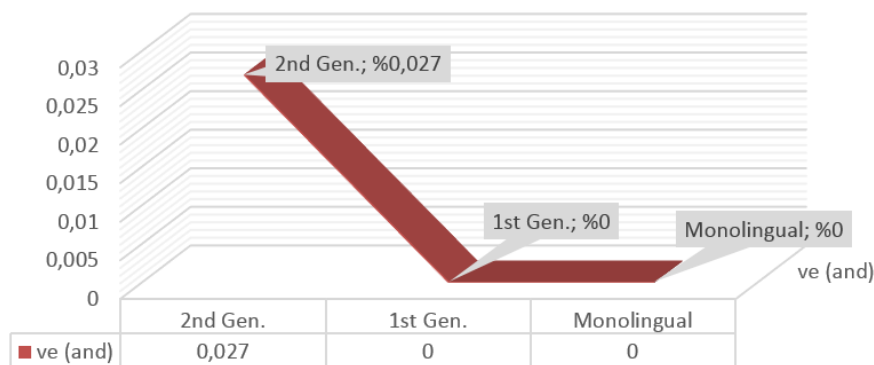

Figure 3: Frequency of ''en'' (and) Conjunction in Three Speakers' Subcorpora

As the results have shown, the 2nd generations use ''en'' (and in Dutch) %0,027 per hundred utterances, whereas the 1st generation and the monolingual group doesn't use the Dutch coordinating conjunction ''en'' at all.

In all three situations the 2nd generation group makes use of ''ve'', ''ve sonra'', ''en'' significantly more than the 1st and the monolingual group. These findings might be the results of the vulnerability of morphosyntactic features of 2nd generations in language contact situations. This issue will be discussed further in the discussion part.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Following, the findings of the present study will be discussed and summarized.

As suggested by many contact linguists, during the contact-induced language change processes, the frequency of use is an important variable for both the model and replica languages (Johanson, 2002; Heine, 2008). It can be suggested that the frequency of use is determinative towards the outcomes that are accounted for language change. The present

study looked closely whether there was a difference in frequency of use of coordinating conjunction ''ve'' (and), ''ve sonra'' (and then), ''en'' (and in Dutch) across the 2nd generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish, the 1st generation bilingual Dutch-Turkish and the Turkish monolingual speech production. The findings revealed that there were significant differences across all speaker groups. According to the results, it is shown that the 2nd generation bilingual group made the most use of coordinating conjunction compared to the 1st generation bilingual group and the monolingual group.

The frequential analysis of the use of coordinating conjunction produced by the 2nd generation Dutch-Turkish bilinguals showed that they tended to make more use of coordinating conjunctions than the 1st generation bilingual speakers. In that sense, it could be seen as a signal of language change in Turkish spoken in the Dutch context. Contact-induced language change situations generally show a minor deviation in the frequency of use ''rather than complete loss of forms or the adoption of completely new forms" (Demirçay, 2017, p. 53).

The connectivity mechanism between non-finite and finite constructions could be suggested as another issue regarding the difference in the frequency of use of coordinating conjunction between groups. Turkish and German are from different language families and their structures differ, German is an analytic language that facilitates finite use, whereas Turkish is a synthetic language and mostly facilitate non-finite use. Their connectivity devices affect each other inevitably when the two languages are in a contact situation. In the present study, the possibility of cross-linguistic influence resulting in language interference is investigated. The results indicate that the Turkish 2nd generation bilinguals prefer using coordinating conjunction more compared to Turkish 1st generation bilinguals and Turkish monolinguals in their spontaneous speech, which can be interpreted as a result of the influence the Dutch language has on the heritage language Turkish.

The findings on the frequency of use of the Dutch coordinating conjunction ''en'' indicate that only the 2nd generation Turkish bilinguals make use of ''en'' (and), it might be seen as an evidence in terms of the tendency the Turkish language show to be influenced by another language when their exposure is more intense and prominent from birth.

These findings supported the view that Turkish heritage language has undergone an ongoing structural language change as a result of Dutch language contact (Backus, 1996; Demirçay, 2017; Doğruöz & Backus, 2007; Onar Valk, 2015; Onar Valk & Backus, 2013; Şahin, 2015; Verhoeven & Boeschoeten, 1986; Akkuş, 2019) in the Netherlands. However, it is concluded that a systematic contact-induced language change cannot be suggested according to these findings. In order to validate the findings of the present study in terms of contact-induced language change more studies that will examine Dutch-Turkish of new generations are required to determine whether the increase in the use of coordinating conjunction by the 2nd generation bilinguals observed in this study are true indicators of contact-induced language change.

Moreover, to understand whether there is a pattern on cross-linguistic influence resulting in language change scenarios, different variables and contexts should be observed and investigated in future studies, i.e. other in contact languages from different languages families, Turkish bilinguals in England/USA, etc. The question is can we talk about a universal tendency that influences synthetic languages to become analytic languages in language contact situations?

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USE OF SHORT STORY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL TO IMPROVE LEARNERS' BASIC LANGUAGE SKILLS

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INTRODUCTION

The lack of environment where students can be exposed to or use the language is one of the greatest obstacles in front of reaching the success in teaching a foreign language (Littlewood, 2000, as cited in Kırkgöz, 2012, p. 111). Textbooks are utilized by English language teachers for this end to overcome the problem by means of various themes and related exercises. However, it does not make much sense to expect complete learning in students, unless they encounter newly learned grammatical subject or words in a real context and environment. Stereotyped pedagogical tools such as textbooks and worksheets are sometimes insufficient to provide students with the opportunities and situations that they could practice the language (Collie & Slater, 1991). Breaking the artificial nature of textbooks, literature might be an instructional material in English language classes. In addition to providing an authentic model and presenting examples of the use of different language forms, literature eliminates the uniformity of a usual language course and brings forth motivation necessary for the students to acquire the target language. The culture of the target language, the importance of which cannot be ignored while teaching a language, is transmitted best to the student thanks to these literary works. In addition to being an invaluable instructional aid for teachers in assisting students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar and in the development of language skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking, it also shows how these structures and skills are applied to the various aspects of the language framework by the speakers of that language. Nevertheless, it is still possible to encounter students who are biased towards literature and find literary works long, boring, and difficult to focus on. At this point, short story gets on the stage as the most suitable material with its ideal length (Collie & Slater, 1991; Kırkgöz, 2012). The present study examines the reason why it is advantageous to incorporate short stories into English language teaching curriculum and what are the perceptions of students on this issue. The study is conducted with the participation of 30 high school students via online education. Students' writings and a survey are utilized as the instruments to collect data. Findings of the research project utilized to come to a conclusion whether students' negative perspectives are changed at the end of lessons and the use of short stories promoted their linguistic competence.

LITERATURE IN EFL CLASSROOM

In creating an environment where students can use or are exposed to the language, teachers have a major role in foreign language teaching. This is because such an environment does not

exist in real life of EFL settings. For years, teachers have used many linguistic, auditory and visual materials for this purpose. Literature has undoubtedly been one of the most helpful of these instructional materials to teachers. There are many reasons why literary works are so important in foreign language teaching. The first of these is that a good literary work chosen in accordance with the purpose of the lesson offers students an invaluable authentic content. In this way, students witness the natural language used by real language users, rather than artificial contents prepared only for the lesson. Language learners are provided with examples of various styles and patterns in that language (Brumfit & Carter, 1986; Collie & Slater, 1991, Ur, 1996). Secondly, literary works complement course materials as well as be of great assistance for the language teachers in providing students with a variety of creative activities that can convey both cultural and linguistic knowledge. It is possible to state that the more students encounter with cultural information, which is an undeniable factor in language teaching, the more language learning is facilitated. Another reason why literature is useful in EFL classroom is linguistic development. Literary texts help students develop their language skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking by grammatical constructs and vocabulary examples in its context. Moreover, language structures such as words and sentences encountered in a particular context are more easily remembered by students. Students get the chance to learn the answers to many questions such as what a word means, how to use it in a sentence, how to construct a sentence, what types of tenses are used in what situations, etc., from an appropriate book that contains a more familiar context than a worksheet (Collie & Slater, 1991). Having the opportunities and situations that they could practice the language, learners are motivated to open the doors of the class to the world of target language.

Short Story as an Instructional Material

A suitable literary work should be selected so that language learners' anxiety and prejudices do not make the use of literature in the course disadvantageous. Discussions on the use of literature in language teaching are resulted in short stories as one of the most ideal option for teaching English as a foreign language (Bretz, 1990; Kelly, and Krishnan, 1995; Gilroy, and Parkinson, 1997; Belcher, and Hirvela, 2000; and Kim, 2004, as cited in Pathan, 2013, p. 30).

Short stories are preferred in language teaching more due to the practical and linguistic difficulties of other literary works, such as the allegoricalness of the poem and the length of the novel. Short-story is a literary genre defined by Poe (as cited in Abrams, 1970, p. 158) "as a narrative that can be read at one sitting of from one-half hour to two hours, and that is limited to 'a certain unique or single effect,' to which every detail is subordinate". From the definition, it can be more or less predicted why the short story is the most suitable genre for language teaching. Its features such as shortness, limited number of characters and events, and uncomplicated flow, make short stories an incomparable material not only for teachers but also for students. Few materials other than stories have helped English teachers in grabbing students' attention and helping them learn languages. Moreover, this method works not only for low levels but also for learners of many ages and levels. (Collie and Slater, 1991; Ellis & Brewster, 2014) It is considered beneficial to use this material for the introduction of language to beginner level (Spack, 1985) and for the development of cultural knowledge as well as vocabulary and grammar for the advanced level language learners.

The researchers argue that short stories might be utilized in language teaching as they provide additional benefits, such as motivation, literary knowledge, cultural awareness, and critical thinking, with a major focus on enhancing the language skills of EFL/ESL students (Erkaya, 2005). According to Murdoch (2002), short stories that are chosen appropriately and adapted

to the subject of the lesson can provide textual content that will improve the quality of language learning for students. Along with reading and listening to such a work, side activities such as summarizing or making a dialogue support students' competences in writing and speaking. In terms of rich new vocabulary input, the help of short stories is undeniable. Students are most likely to recall language patterns such as vocabulary encountered in a short and specific context. Short stories are motivating for students because of their shortness, practicality and ease of use. Students who are able to make comments on them get a sense of accomplishment and are eager to learn. Thanks to the chance to make their own comments creatively, their critical thinking skills are also facilitated (Collie & Slater, 1991). In the short story, the student is taken into the world of target language with its optimal size and language level, and the various forms and rules used in that language are surrounded. The student will have an idea about how most of the words used by the native speakers in communication and the structures in a non-artificial field are used. In this way, learning is facilitated and supported (Kırkgöz, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

The present study dwells upon the application of short stories that provide a rich and valuable authentic resource to the classroom in EFL education, exemplify the use of natural language, attract students' attention with their ideal length and interesting themes, improve understanding, thus increase motivation, emphasize student participation, and also present the culture of the target language. During the study, a short story oriented curriculum was applied and a questionnaire was directed to the students at the end of the process. In this way, it is tried to indicate why such a method is very advantageous and what perceptions of students are on this issue. This research project seeks to answer the following two essential questions:

1. What are the students' attitudes towards utilizing short stories as an instructional material on the development of their linguistic skills, grammatical and vocabulary knowledge?

2. In the students' view, how much does the use of short stories contribute to the teaching and learning environment in the classroom?

The sub-questions of this study are whether students are motivated by the introduction of short stories to the foreign language class and whether authentic language samples are provided to them effectively in a non-native atmosphere. This chapter introduces the participants who help to answer these questions, the research design, data collection tools and data analysis techniques applied in the process.

The Setting and Participants

The participants of this study are 50 (M: 20 and F: 30) 11th grade students studying at Mehmet Hanife Yapıcı Anatolian High School in the spring semester of the 2020-2021 academic year. Most of the participants whose native language is Turkish have been learning English as a foreign language for at least six years, and general proficiency levels are accepted at A2 level in the Common European Framework (CEF). Students, who are subjected to one-hour English lessons twice a week, are exposed to authentic language examples for a month, thanks to the lessons in which short stories are integrated. At the end of the process, they are asked to answer the questionnaire questions to reflect their attitude towards this method.

Data Collection

The research adopts a research design employing a case study in which positive and negative effects of an invaluable literary material such as a short story on both language development and motivation of high school students are observed. The "story perception questionnaire" developed by Kırkgöz (2012) is used as a quantitative data collection tool at the end of the process (See Appendix 1 for the questionnaire). Thanks to the findings of the 13-item questionnaire consisting of two parts, it was tried to observe the students' attitudes on the technique of using short stories in foreign language classroom. While the first 10 items measure students' attitudes towards using short stories as a teaching material for the development of language skills, grammar and vocabulary, the last 3 items determine the contribution of the use of short stories to the teaching and learning environment in the classroom, according to the students' opinion. The responses to the items were classified in the 5-point Likert form as "1: Never", "2: Rarely", "3: Sometimes", "4: Often", and "5: Always". It took an hour for students to complete the questionnaire, including approximately 5 or 10 minutes of introductory explanation provided by the teacher.

FINDINGS

This section presents the findings of the research. The findings are evaluated based on the data collected in response to the research questions.

Student Attitudes towards Utilizing Short Stories for Language Development. The first part of the questionnaire including 10 items, as mentioned before, measures students' perception towards using short stories as a teaching material for the development of language skills, grammar and vocabulary. As seen in Table 1, almost all of the participants (90%) agree on the fact that they witnessed *particular use of language* thanks to the short story-oriented foreign language teaching curriculum. The whole class (70% always and 30% often) is convinced that *short stories reinforce the grammar they learned in lessons much better*. Participants of this study also (44% always and 50% often) indicate that the use of short stories help them to recognize *different language structures*. Moreover, the answers which are %80 positive to item 4 prove that they are assisted to utilize grammar in a more expressive manner provided by the context of ideally-sized stories. Again, 80% of the students confirm the reinforcing nature of such a material with their answers to the item 5. According to all participants, it is possible to come across a wider variety of words in literary texts such as short stories than in textbooks. Students share common attitude on another advantage that they can easily store new words, thanks to the opportunity to use them in a meaningful context. With the opportunity to utilize them in a meaningful context, students share a common standpoint on being able to easily store new words in their minds, which is another advantage of short stories. Although 4% of students say this is rare, there is still considerable (38% always and 50% often) consensus that short stories support creativity. It is also reported by almost whole class (98%) that short stories provided them with the opportunity to become more aware of the use of English language. Last but not least, 76 percent of the students stated that they were made easy to express themselves.

Table 1

The Distribution of the Answers to the Attitude Scale for Using Short Stories in Language Classrooms to Enhance Language

Statements	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
I realized the particular use of language.	29	58	16	32	5	10	-	-	-	-
I reinforced the grammar subjects much better that I learnt in the lessons.	35	70	15	30	-	-	-	-	-	-
I got to know different language structures.	22	44	25	50	3	6	-	-	-	-
I used grammar in a more meaningful way.	19	38	21	42	10	20	-	-	-	-
I reinforced the words that I met in the course books.	32	64	13	26	5	10	-	-	-	-
I learnt words that differed from those I met in the course books.	31	62	19	38	-	-	-	-	-	-
I could retain the new words easily since I used them in a meaningful context.	39	78	11	22	-	-	-	-	-	-
It enabled me to be more creative.	19	38	25	50	4	8	2	4	-	-
It enabled me to be more aware of the use of English language.	40	80	9	18	1	2	-	-	-	-
I could express my feelings more easily by means of short story.	10	20	28	56	12	24	-	-	-	-

Student Perceptions on Using Short Stories for Motivation

The last 3 items of the questionnaire measure students' attitudes towards using short stories as a motivational material that contribute to the teaching and learning environment in the foreign language classroom. As seen in Table 2, most of the students (86%) agree that the short stories are motivating as they *enjoyed the lesson more*. As it is confirmed by the responses (44% always and 46% often) to the item 9, the lessons taught with student-focused short story activities offer a fun and non-threatening atmosphere. Among the students participating in the study, 84% of the subjects report that the utilization of short story enhances their *interest and the motivation toward the courses.*

Table 2. The Distribution of the Answers to the Attitude Scale for Using Short Stories in Language Classrooms to Motivate

Statements	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
I enjoyed the lesson more.	33	66	10	20	3	6	3	6	1	2
It enabled me to study in an enjoyable and comfortable setting.	22	44	23	46	2	4	2	4	1	2
It increased my interest and motivation toward the courses.	22	44	20	40	5	10	2	4	1	2

DISCUSSION

Students, who initially abstained, began to approach the lesson more moderately to the material of this ideal length and uncomplicated structure. Moreover, it is quite possible to deduce that students have a positive attitude towards the use of short stories in lessons for both language development and motivation, when the survey findings made at the end of the process are analyzed. The overall findings of the study show parallelism with similar case studies in this field (Yeasmin et al., 2011; Pourkalhor & Kohan, 2013; Saka, 2014; Temizkan, 2018). In this study, as in other studies on the contribution of authentic short stories to language skills in foreign language teaching, an increase is observed in the specific grammar and vocabulary knowledge of the students who have been practiced in class with short stories. The vast majority of students agree that when they encounter a grammatical knowledge they cannot understand or a word they cannot memorize in a meaningful context, they can now overcome these problems.

Thanks to the authentic nature of short stories, it is easier to come across the word and sentence patterns commonly used by real language users in daily life, which are not included in normal textbooks, as the participants state. Unlike the stereotypical true / false activities, students convey that they can use the language more efficiently and express their thoughts more easily by interpreting through short stories. In this way, it is concluded that short stories transform the stereotypical language classes into a motivating and non-threatening environment by opening the doors to the real world of language used native speakers.

CONCLUSION

In Turkey, English is taught as a foreign language, not a second language. For students with limited exposure to language outside of the classroom environment, rich language inputs should be provided in the course as much as possible. The common point of the studies on the adaptation of literature to language classes is that literary texts are irreplaceable materials to show the structure of the target language and society (Brumfit & Carter, 1986; Collie & Slater 1991; Spack, 1985; Ur, 1996; Elyıldırım, 1993). It is very useful to use literary texts in vocabulary and grammar teaching, which allows the student to witness original uses as well as increasing the awareness of the language (Saraçoğlu, 2006). Short stories are one of the most valuable materials in this sense. Therefore, this study contributes to the literature by introducing language educators to the advantages of using short stories in EFL classes and encouraging them.

As a result of broad considerations of this study, suggestions such as including carefully selected stories in line with the interests and needs of students in the foreign language curriculum, encouraging students to participate in short story-oriented activities where they

can develop their creativity, interpretation and critical thinking skills, and offering opportunities to express themselves can be directed to foreign language teachers (Saka, 2014).

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SMALLER CHANGES IN THE DIGITAL EFL CLASSROOM DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC FOR BETTER RESULTS

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Abstract

We all agree that Covid-19 has extensively affected human behaviors in that almost all countries have applied online education during the pandemic process which has changed the way people live, work, study, and socialize (Gentili & Cristea, 2020). Similarly, many countries have employed technology as the main learning tool in the Covid-19 period to continue the learning process, in spite of the absence of interaction between students and teachers (Fansury, Januarty, & Ali Wira Rahman, 2020). Technology in education was implemented long before the pandemic since it plays a significant role in assisting both learning and teaching to make lessons more entertaining and motivating for students. Currently, the employment of technology in education is seen as an alternative way to take over the classical learning practice (Alrubaie, Alrubaie, & Hassoon, 2020). During Covid-19, EFL/ESL instructors have regularly represented new online teaching methods to keep their students motivated (Kawinkoonlasate, 2020). However, the students' motivation to learn English was highly low since they solely studied at home. EFL/ESL instructors must accordingly solve this problem in order to obtain adequate learning outcomes (Fansury, Januarty, & Ali Wira Rahman, 2020). Considering all the mentioned factors, the transformation in EFL instruction from the traditional classroom setting to the digital EFL instruction during the Covid-19 pandemic was probed by means of the conceptions of EFL teachers from different contexts. Countries all over the world are at diverse conditions in terms of their Covid-19 infection rates. It is known that around 1.5 billion students were affected by school closures or confinements as a result of the pandemic throughout the world (Unesco). With this abrupt change from the traditional classroom into the digital one in numerous countries, it is wondered whether the employment of online education will go on prevailing post-pandemic era as well. It is also crystal clear that the pandemic has changed the accustomed route of education, just like the case in EFL classes. In order to gather the data of this qualitative study, a qualitative research was conducted to clarify the related cognitive constructs of the informants engaged in EFL teaching in Higher Educational Institutions in Turkey, Georgia and Kazakhstan to evaluate smaller changes in the digital EFL settings during the Covid-19 pandemic.

The informants included in the study are Turkish, Georgian and Kazakhstani EFL teachers.

Keywords: online learning, digital classroom, Covid-19, Changes; EFL Classes

INTRODUCTION

Proficiency of English is a requirement for every learner to survive in the contemporary world (Gore, 2013). Scholars have manifested that integrating technology into foreign language classes enhances learners' consciousness, supplying them knowledge and promoting foreign language competency (Ortega, 1997). Online education may develop students' linguistic competency, foster their proficiency in grammar, spelling, and pronunciation while promoting a chance to increase their efficiency in all foreign language skills (Belz, 2003). Besides, employing the necessary technology in foreign language teaching has an indispensable dimension in assisting foreign language settings by means of digitalizing the related content to be readily and easily attainable (Hazaymeh, 2021). It is clearly observed that the field of education has witnessed considerable developments during the recent decades. The emergence of digital era and significance of integrating contemporary technologies into educational settings have extensively and promptly shifted the way we teach and learn (Yadov, Gupta, & Khetrapal, 2018; Martins, Goncalves, Oliveira, Cota, & Branco, 2016; Adnan et al., 2019). Further, technology can promote learner involvement since traditional instruction is not motivating learners and instructors in utilizing their full capacities. By means of utilizing the recent educational technology, the learning process is leveled up (Pital, 2020). Incorporating the related technological and digital compounds into the language field has turned to be a universal demand in order to establish fostered learning strategies for EFL/ESL learners (Hutchinson & Reinking, 2011).

Despite of the benefits of using technological and digital equipment to promote EFL/ESL students' proficiency, online learning is employed interchangeably since it turned to be a tendency in the current age to respond to the student problems such as unavailability of attending schools (Ahmad, 2016). Online education also helps developing the communication skills of EFL/ESL learners by improving their learning experiences (Boonkit, 2010). Moreover, the excellence in EFL/ESL learning highly depends on authentic interaction among teachers and learners. This is indeed a reciprocal action in which teachers and learners interact by means of using technological devices. The related literature displayed that adjusted technology is essential in improving four language skills, in supplying the adequate feedback and enhancing the learning setting by means of authentic communication among learners and instructors (Zhao & Lai, 2005). Furthermore, learners are more motivated and enthusiastic to acquire a foreign or second language in an atmosphere integrated with technological facilities (Marwan, 2015). Nonetheless, some scholars suggested that it is extensively challenging to employ online education to teach a foreign language as a result of the lack of direct interaction (Huang, 1997; Mashile & Pretorius, 2003; Palvia et al., 2018; Paudel, 2021). However, this problem may be overcome by means of employing technological equipment that is developed to provide authentic interaction or cooperation between teachers and students (Hazaymeh, 2021). Recently, as a result of the developments in educational technologies, virtual learning gathers learners and instructors together in flexible meetings through the internet. It is a broadly accepted belief in the educational field that the inclusion of educational technologies in foreign or second language settings may result in high levels of student success (Cahyani & Cahyono, 2012).

The emergence of Covid-19 has supplied EFL/ESL instructors with numerous facilities to represent online courses and with digital tools to foster students' language proficiency. Contrary to the former standards of EFL/ESL settings in which technology integration was a significant but a secondary constituent, the contemporary Covid-19 situation has carried online education into the center since it is exclusively a technology directed master plan in

education now. Nevertheless, technology-based challenges encountered by EFL/ESL teachers have also enhanced (Hakim, 2020). The employment of technology has created valuable facilities for EFL/ESL instructors to maintain online appliances or tools to promote students' competency in complex situations such as Covid-19 pandemic (Derakhshan, 2021). On the other hand, the development of educational technologies has created various challenges for EFL/ESL instructors as well (Khatoony & Nezhadmehr, 2020). As a response to Covid-19 — emerging in China and spreading intensely all over the world— numerous countries have implemented strict confinement measures and followed lockdown plans. Covid-19 has harshly affected educational institutions in that most countries have declared school terminations while some of them have totally closed their schools (Huang, Liu, Tlili, Yang, & Wang, 2020). The pandemic has led both students and instructors to leave their schools and start urgent distant education (Van Lancker & Parolin, 2020). Therefore, keeping the success in education has turned to be a challenge during this era which caused several nations to adapt to the current situation in various areas involving education (Simamora, 2020). Thus, countries adjusted their education status from traditional classroom settings to online atmosphere employing different online tools such as Google classroom (Octaberlina & Muslimin, 2020).

Covid-19 has extensively affected human behaviors in that almost all countries have applied online education during the pandemic process which has changed the way people live, work, study, and socialize (Gentili & Cristea, 2020). Similarly, many countries have employed technology as the main learning tool in the Covid-19 period to continue the learning process, in spite of the absence of interaction between students and teachers (Fansury, Januarty, & Ali Wira Rahman, 2020). Technology in education was implemented long before the pandemic since it plays a significant role in assisting both learning and teaching to make lessons more entertaining and motivating for students. Currently, the employment of technology in education is seen as an alternative way to take over the classical learning practice (Alrubaie, Alrubaie, & Hassoon, 2020). During Covid-19, EFL/ESL instructors have regularly represented new online teaching methods to keep their students motivated (Kawinkoonlasate, 2020). However, the students' motivation to learn English was highly low since they solely studied at home. EFL/ESL instructors must accordingly solve this problem in order to obtain adequate learning outcomes (Fansury, Januarty, & Ali Wira Rahman, 2020). Considering all the mentioned dimensions, the transformation in EFL instruction from the traditional classroom setting to the digital EFL instruction during the Covid-19 pandemic was probed by means of the conceptions of EFL teachers from different contexts. In order to identify smaller changes made in the Digital Classroom during Covid-19b pandemic for producing better results within shortest time constraints the following research question was put forward: Which Digital Tools produced better results in EFL classroom to the informants from each country in the form of online interview?

METHODOLOGY

For administering qualitative survey practices, online survey tools have offered many opportunities. Research shows that web survey tools are more reliable than traditional face to face surveys (Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001). They are known as survey instruments that physically locate on a web-server, and can be available only through a web-browser (Baker, Crawford & Swinehart, 2004). The adoption of web surveys has spread faster than any other similar innovation. Web surveys are characterized as more standardized and convenient for users than its predecessors, like fax-based and telephone surveys (Couper, 2008).

Initially this type of survey was popular in marketing, for a pop-up survey, when a wide audience was targeted to cover. It has been acknowledged as 'the most positive contribution

to website research in the brief history of Internet research' (Comley, 2000). Today, it has been widely used in different fields of study, and education research is not an exception. The increasing number of web-user population has made online survey as the main instrument and form for data collection in research. The major benefits of using web-based surveys are time-consuming, geographically has no borders, convenient for data analysis and reporting. Taking into account the advantages of web-survey mentioned above, Google forms have been used for empirical data collection. The informants included in the study are 5 Turkish EFL teachers, 5 Georgian EFL teachers, and 5 Kazakhstani EFL teachers. The following questions were answered by the informants of the study:

1. How do you keep up teaching EFL and support learning by using technologies?

2. How would you improve your teaching through technologies when you run into some challenges?

3. How supportive is your institution in teaching EFL online?

4. What makes a successful online teacher?

5. What makes a successful online learner?

For locating another credible research participants online, we referred to the generated sample frame. Since this method is effective to identify people who are willing to consider taking part in the study, seeking their permission to contact them privately to discuss the issue in details (Ritchie, J., Lewis, J.).

Web-Survey and Online Interview Results

In total, 15 university EFL teachers participated in the web survey with experience in teaching English ranging from 3 to 43 years. In terms of professional commitment and use of technologies during the Covid-19 period, and the study found that the language experts generally gain the information from Internet and online webinars/courses provided by the institutions or on massive online open education resource. The majority of respondents have used Zoom or Microsoft Teams for distance learning in their EFL classrooms.

'I regularly use Internet resources to present language materials. Google classroom and the Edmodo network are of great help and fun.'

'Before Covid-19, I only used a projector in my class. It was totally face to face teaching. However, just after the pandemics, I have started distance education and taught my students through zoom.'

'I improve teaching EFL by attending various webinars and online courses. For students learning, I use Microsoft Teams, Kahoot'

'…I always take part in CPD events which give me useful tips on effective integration of ICT in EFL even before the pandemic.'

Regarding to the issues faced in using the technologies in a digital classroom, one of the teachers responded that the university online platform itself fails to meet high quality standards, which is frustrating.

Other language experts mentioned that:

'I just try to check for the solutions available on the internet when I run into related technological challenges.

In terms the institution support in teaching EFL online, the majority of teachers are positive about the university policy in technology integration language learning and agreed that their institutions are doing their best in creating a healthy and safe working environment. Whereas two respondents (20%) expressed a negative attitude towards the local support.

The teachers were also asked to depict the image of a successful online teacher. For them, 'a successful online teacher' is the one who demonstrate good ICT skills and use digital tools effectively.

Another teacher stated:

'Same as a traditional successful teacher", - regularly self-developing, being thoughtful/self-critical while planning, realizing the plan, and afterwards, being student-centered, etc. The only difference is - whether we like technologies or not - realizing that there is no teaching without them today. So developing a positive attitude towards teaching / learning via technologies and learning how to do it optimally.'

'A successful online teacher should be free from institutional biases, and offer new tools for diversifying EFL teaching process and strive for continuous learning.'

The majority of respondents believe that a "successful learner" is the one who is self-motivated, diligent and good at educational technologies. One of the teachers emphasized that a successful learner in a digital classroom needs to demonstrate the same skills as in a more traditional physical classroom.

'Intrinsic motivation to learn, taking more responsibility on oneself, regular work, belief in ability to overcome problems... Today young people "live" in technologies, but mostly for entertaining themselves. It's very important to understand that learning online has no boarders, so just learn how to use it!'

'A successful online learner simply should try to be a digital native and seek the ways of enjoying digital classroom benefits.'

For a video conference. We asked all participants to reflect on the digital tools they used in their initial experience of online language. And later, when these have been mastered, to introduce some newer technologies into the teaching routines.

All the participants emphasized, at the beginning transformation and transition, in shifting from a physical to a digital classroom, was painful. The language experts recognized personal professional commitment is the most powerful booster for a successful digital classroom management. Webinars and seminars on technology and language learning integration, provided by local institutions and other communities/offices/private companies specialized in language teacher development is a good source for self-learning and personal practice. Likewise, Dumbadze shared with her positive experience in using technologies during online learning at her institution, the way she has equipped herself with technology tools for better results in her EFL classroom:

'….In most cases, teachers had totally no experience before pandemic of working remotely and faced a lot of troubles. For dedicated teachers, tackles are not barriers but challenges. … We were provided with numerous webinars or trainings conducted by experienced professionals. We got familiar with different tools, platforms, efficient assessment systems and applications as well. At the very beginning, TTP was regarded as the only tool for delivering materials in a digital class, later Mentimenter was selected as an alternative web-based system. It has increased students' engagement. We have become more techno-

friendly…' (Dumbadze. Interview script)

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The current research enabled us to outline the key factors which greatly impact on creating a friendly environment for better results within a digital language learning mode. Firstly, EFL teachers' professional commitment and perseverance in being a lifelong learner is of paramount importance. Language instructors must remain actively engaged in exploring how students acquire language skills and competences best. Secondly, institutional support for faculty teaching in an online learning environment requires attention. Institutional guidance implies, policies and strategies for improving teacher performance in delivering online classes. Information leaflets to help teachers in designing and managing digital classroom must be produced. Thirdly, teachers should be enhanced with digital tools and applications. We must admit there is no way back to traditional chalkboards. Students in online learning mode expect us to be interactive and approachable in a virtual setting as well. In being a facilitator for students to achieve desired goals, teachers may rely on technologies which grant the space for creativity and innovation.

Being competent in digitalizing learning contents can guarantee successful learning outcomes and teachers' confidence in pursuing excellence in a vibrant virtual learning setting.

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TO WHAT EXTENT CAN TURKISH PEOPLE HELP ENGLISH SPEAKING FOREIGNERS' IN CONTEXT OF DOWNTOWN AND CAMPUS

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Abstract

This case study investigated whether Turkish people in downtown and city center can understand and answer English speaking people's direction questions. Besides, researchers tried to find out the rate of helping and its connection with the locations. The study focused on the relationship between academic level, age and English level of speakers. In this study 43 participants were interviewed, with their informed consent. 23 people were chosen from the university campuses, the other 20 from downtown. The researchers found out that there is a positive relationship between academic degree and English speaking level. That is, the higher the academic degree, the higher the rate of helping. However, we have to bear in mind that sudden questions may make people feel excited and nervous. In Coşkun's (2007) study, the researcher came to the conclusion that in Turkey most people think "I can understand English but I cannot speak". This qualitative case study also confirmed Coşkun's (2007) results. The researchers generally focus on the lack of teachers in terms of methodology, other factors such as individual, social and societal factors are neglected.

INTRODUCTION

English is a lingua franca of the modern world in many countries, therefore many countries around the world including Turkey give attention to adding English Language Classes into the curriculum in all grades of schools from kindergarten to Ph.D process. For younger learners, learning a foreign language leads them to improve their problem solving, critical thinking, developing memory, concentration and listening skills (Ghasemi & Hashemi, 2011). Moreover, for adult learners it is the step for higher salary and more job opportunities in Turkey and other countries. In Turkey Although teachers and politicians give importance and efforts for it, Turkey is far away from the desired proficiency level, even students and graduates live hardships to answer easy questions from tourists or social media.

There is a discussion topic for all students and educators, even though students get a lot of English lessons for a long time, from the second grade to throughout their life, they cannot explain themselves in English (Ministry of National Education, 2013). "The difficulty of speaking English is generally explained by EFL learners in Turkey with the statement 'I can understand English, but I can't speak' (Coşkun, 2016). In order to explain the reasons for this dilemma, the researchers generally focus on the lack of teachers in terms of methodology, other factors such as individual, social and societal factors are neglected. Students' language attitudes and comprehended language status are also milestones for foreign language learning (Karahan, 2007; Coşkun, 2016) Sociolinguistic approaches to this problem are studied by some researchers and their outcomes are also valuable for further research. Büyükkantarcıoğlu (2004) stated that social dimensions and affections of foreign language could differ in different environments and these factors should be examined separately in a sociolinguistic approach.

The purpose of the current study is to find out and clarify the English oral proficiency level of people in two different areas of Turkey: downtown and university campus. Furthermore, their helping rate will be taken into consideration according to their age, academic degree and the place where they study or live.

Literature Review

Many studies into the usage of English in a certain community from the perspective of sociolinguistics were carried out by implementing quantitative research methods through surveys and questionnaires. There is an insufficient study that was conducted by adopting qualitative research methods. Thorne (2000) stated that in literature there are no definitive data obtaining tools for qualitative studies. It can be seen different data collection techniques in most studies such as recorded observations (both video and participatory), focus groups, texts and documents, multi-media or public domain sources, policy manuals, photo-graphs, and lay autobiographical accounts. Presuppositions, principles, and values about reality differentiate qualitative studies from quantitative studies (Thorne, 2000). Morse (1994) approved that a qualitative study should consist of these features: comprehending (understanding the issue), synthesizing (combine new findings with already existed ones), theorizing (formulating theories), and recontextualizing (putting the new finding in an appropriate context) However, Thorne (2000) argued that the quality of the researched study depends on the readers; their approval or disapproval.

Specifically, this study focused on the Turkish EFL learners' rate of understanding and responding to the foreigners' questions. In this sense, the listening and speaking skills of Turkish EFL learners are questioned through interviews. Coşkun (2016) stated that there are

many factors of the consensus of 'I can understand but I cannot speak'. These factors are 'the focus on grammar rules in English lessons, differences between English and Turkish, lack of experience abroad, limited speaking practice opportunities outside the classroom, feeling anxious while speaking English, use of mother tongue by the teacher and the coursebooks which do not include colloquial English'. Coşkun (2016) has conducted his study with high school students, he has conducted a quantitative study with a Likert-scale questionnaire. He has questioned high school students' understanding and speaking skills with this scale. He has found that %71 of students do not believe that they can speak English. Those students have different reasons for it, they have chosen the suitable reasons from the questionnaire and Coşkun stated the factors as mentioned before.

According to Richard and Lockhart (1996), if people have positive attitudes toward a certain community, they have more positive beliefs about learning the language which the community speaks.

METHODOLOGY

The rationale for carrying out this study is to find out whether Turkish people can understand English and respond to the researchers' questions. Besides, this study will reveal the rate of responses in English. This study was carried out by applying a qualitative case study research method. The reason for choosing the case study method is that it is nearly about life experiences themselves. Therefore, case study is a research approach that is used to discover an understanding of a complex issue in its real-life context, it is the most proper method for the research in Sociolinguistics (Avery et al., 2011). Semi-structured interviews were implemented by the researchers. They aimed to examine the people in a society and their English-speaking level. As Yin (1994) stated that the nature of case studies is changing in the last 30 years, multiple case studies would be more cited and admired in the future. It is a motive for the researchers to choose studying with case study.

Research Questions

1. Can Turkish people help English speakers in Turkey?

2. What is the rate of helping in the foreign language and how can we define its connection with the location?

3. What is the relationship between the academic level of participants and their English level?

Variables

1. Campus and downtown

2. The academic level of participants (illiterate, literate, primary, secondary school, high school, bachelor, Master, PH.D.)

3. The age of participants

Participants

In the present case study, 43 participants were interviewed in total. 23 of them were chosen on campus and the other 20 participants downtown. The participants were chosen randomly in both locations. They were informed that the researchers will use the data in their study and recordings will only be listened to by the researchers. There were no objections by the participants to use the collected data and recordings.

Data collection

Data was collected through semi-structured interviews. During the data collection, the tasks of the researchers are to go to the downtown and campus respectively and ask the questions which were made by the researchers. The study was carried out in two different cities: Bursa and Erzurum. They interviewed the people on the campuses of Uludağ and Atatürk Universities and city centers of those two cities. In the first part of the interviews, participants are required to answer the researchers' questions about the way to their destinations. After that, it requires demographic information, participants' age and their academic level.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The locations where the researchers have interviewed the interviewees were Uludag University and Ataturk University campuses and city centers in Bursa and Erzurum. Totally 21 participants have been interviewed in Erzurum and 22 participants in Bursa.

Analysis began with a careful reading of the transcribed data and was categorized under the title of participants' academic degree, age and the locations where the interviews took place.

In Karahan's (2007) study he studied students' attitudes toward the English language and its usage in Turkey. He found that in private schools students have more positive thoughts about the English language, specifically female students. The students are aware of the importance of learning and speaking English, however, they do not prefer to speak and tolerate the people around them who speak in English. English is not spoken as a first or second language in daily life in Turkey, it is taught as a foreign language. "Although a huge amount of time and effort is spent, learners either cannot go beyond the basics or they experience difficulty in developing their level of proficiency unless they are individually motivated" (Karahan, 2007).

Akalin and Zengin (2007) have investigated the perspectives of Turkish people about foreign language learning. In their study, they found that people with higher education thought they needed to know a foreign language. Among genders, men thought that they had to know at least one foreign language. Female participants stated that they had to learn a foreign language for their prestige in society. When Akalin and Zengin (2007) observed the relationship between age and attitudes for English, they concluded that older people tend to use their linguistic skills in their professions.

Table 1 shows that in Erzurum city center 3 people could help with finding Atatürk University campus, 3 participants could understand but could not give directions, 4 participants could understand nothing. In Bursa city center 2 people said that they did not know the direction to the metro station, and 5 participants could understand but could not speak English. 3 people tried to help; however, their language was not understandable enough. In Atatürk University campus 8 people could help with finding the way to the city center. 2 people out of 10 could understand but could not help and 1 person could not understand and could not help. Interestingly a few participants said that they know English and communicate with their friends, however when they were asked the questions suddenly, they felt excited, consequently, they were not able to speak well.

1. Participants' Academic Degree

The researchers observed that participants' academic levels were different from each other. In Uludağ Campus the people were mostly studying for bachelor's, master's and PH.D. degrees. Therefore, their English level differed from one another. However, we can not say a higher-level academic degree brings about higher-level English proficiency. For instance, one of the participants was a Ph.D. student, and he was more excited and nervous than the others. The

researchers have interpreted that the concept of being undermined by his prestige made him feel these feelings.

2. Participants' Age

Generally, 15-18 years old students (high school students) have difficulty while explaining themselves. They stated that they were not self-confident enough to talk in English with foreigners. The researchers have observed that their pronunciation was not bad, but they avoided initiating a conversation with foreigners. It has revealed the importance of the relation between self-confidence and speaking skills. As Park and Lee (2005) claimed, the higher confidence they have, the higher oral performance they show. Some of them stated that they were not capable of telling directions even in their mother tongue. Talking about directions and addresses could be a negative situation for this study.

3. The Locations: Campus and Downtown

Since our purpose is the sociolinguistic comparison of two different locations, this part has higher importance for the research. According to the results, the researchers have focused on the differences between the data collected from downtown and campus. The participants in both campuses were able to help the researchers better than the participants in the city centers.

Table 1. The reactions of participants to the questions according to the understanding and the rate of help

		could understand and help	could understand but could not help	Could not understand and could not help	Total
Bursa	Campus	6	3	4	13
	City Center	3	5	2	10
Erzurum	Campus	8	2	1	11
	City Center	3	3	4	10
Total		20	13	11	44

CONCLUSION

The researchers investigated and compared the English level of the people in University Campuses and downtown of two cities. They obtained the results which they expected. Since every person has different circumstances and attitudes about English, their aim is not to generalize the results to Turkey.

The essential variable in this study, academic level, plays an important role in the rate of helping. Because there are people who have more academic knowledge on campus, the rate of helping is higher than the rate of helping tourists downtown. In city centers there were diverse people in terms of academic level ranging from primary school to higher education, therefore the rate of helping was different from those on campuses.

Questions for Interviewees:

1. I am sorry! Can you help me ?

2. How can I go to the city center/university campus?

3. Which bus can/should I take ?

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Appendix

The Data collected at Uludağ University Campus

Interviewee 1.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: No speak English.

G: Sorry

I: No speak English

G: You don't speak English, okay, thank you

Interviewee 2.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Ahh. Metro istasyonu.. metro station..you have to go this way

G: Aha

I: There is hospital ..near..it is close

G: It is close to hospital, right?

I: Yes

G: Metro station

I: You have to go this way

G: Does a train go directly to Shehrekustu?

I: mmm..tell ..announce..station

G: They say that I went to Shehrekustu, right?

I: You have to ask there and they will tell you

G: Okay, thank you

Further information about the interviewee: female, 31 years old, undergraduate degree student at veterinary school

Interviewee 3.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Shehrekustu..you should go to subway

G: Aha

G: Where can I go? How can I go to Subway?

I: Ehh you should go straight..right..after ..ehh inforward..left..after street…you can see after 100 metres

G: Aha so I can see metro station right?

I: Yes, yes.

I: Firstly, you should go, after left

G: This side?

I: This side..after you should turn left.. after street go forward

Further information about the interviewee: male, 30 years old, Phd student

Interviewee 4.

G: I am sorry. How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: what?

G: how can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Shehrekustu ..ehhh..Shehrekustu ..goes metro

G: where is metro station?

I: metro station ehh its ehh and ehh

G: should I go straight?

I: yes

G: and should I turn right or left?

I: right.. go right ..and metro station.. sees metro station

G: so I can see metro station there okay thank you, thank you very much

Further information about the interviewee: male, postgraduate finance student, 26 years old

Interviewee 5.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: no speak English

G: okay, thank you

Interviewee 6.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Yeah

G: How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Shehrekustu? Mm nasıl anlatayım şimdi.

I2: bende ingilizce bilmiyorum

I: you can ..you know metrobus

G: ahh no, how can I go?

I: go

G: this way or that way

I: yes, yes

G: aha that way

I: you go this..otobus..turn left ..go

G: I should go straight, right

I: ya ya metro

G: aha I can see metro station and where should I get off?

I: aha ya ya

G: where should I get off? Is it written up there?

I: just one tren to Shehresutu?

G: thank you!

Further information about the interviewee: male, female: 28 years old, they are not students, they work in Bursa

Interviewee 7.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Ingilizce.. no speak English

G: you don't speak English

I: no

G: what about you

I2: no, no

G: no English? Okay, thank you

Interviewee 8.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Shehrekustu? You need to reach subway you will

G: Subway is a train station, right?

I: yes, yes. After you get the train station..

G: How can I go to the train station? Should I go this way or that way?

I: No, this way you will go this way and you will turn left then you see the another way first another way, okay?

G: Then get on the train and …

I: You will go straight and you will see train station

G: Okay

I: And after you get the train station you will see the Shehrekustu

G: So, which station should I get off?

I: I think after ten station

G: After ten station? Okay.

I: Probably

G: It is written up there? Okay?

I: Yes, it is written if you ask the …

G: Security?

I: Man, yes, security you can ask

G: Okay thank you, thank you

Further information about the interviewee: female, 27 years old, doctor

Interviewee 9.

G: I am sorry can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: You can go metro

G: Sorry by metro?

I: Metro

G: Okay, where should I get off?

I: Shehrekustu station

Further information about the interviewee: 31 years old, undergraduate student, works at buffet at campus

Interviewee 10.

G: I am sorry can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu ?

I: Shehrekustu?

I: Ahh şimdi bu caddeye çıkacak

I2: Burden caddeye hastanenin önünden aşagıya dim dik, aşagıya, düz aşagıya

G: But, I don't know Turkish

I: Anlamıyor ya içerde varmı acaba kimse..

I2: Kalem kağıt, kalem olsa şöyle çizsek ona

I3: yokki bende

I: hah böyle gel, bu yoldan git, anayola çıkacak anayola anlıyonmu anayol

I2: büyük yol

I: büyük yol, araba yolu

G: should I go this way? And?

I: çıkacan böyle buradan dik aşagıya gitcen dik aşagıya oralardan birilerine daha sor yani trene gitcen demi sen?

I2: yeah train station

I: tren

G: aha train station

I: ben bir dakikada gösterecem

I2: sen gösterde gel ya, sana zahmet

I3: çiçekleri nerden buldun?

I: aa bak herşeyi biliyorda kızcagaza onu soruyor ..bakarmısın..

I3: bunları nerden buldun

G: ohh, bamboo

I3: nerden aldın

I: gel gel, gel oyalama kızı

I: metromu? Metromu?

G: aha Shehrekustu

I: onu anladım tamam, okay, ama metromu? Otobusmu?

G: I don't know

I: ha gel

…

I: şimdi ben burdan siz nasıl tariff edeyim?

G: should I go straight?

I: düm düz en son metro

G: okay, okay, thank you very much

I: o kadar

Interviewee 11.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to shehrekustu?

I: Shehrekustu eee metro ilemi göndersek? Daha mantıklı direk orda iniyor ya, tamam (two friends are talking to each other)

I2: you can try train?

G: train station? How should I go there?

I: ehhh. (burdan sola dönecek) turn left

G: aha this way, right?

I: aha (kaç metre 300 metre sonra) 300 metres then station

G: aha and which station should I get off?

I: zaten.. all the same, train (üstünde yazıyor zaten, ne yazıyor üstünde, en son şeyin üzerinde ne yazıyor)

I2: 2 number train

G: number 2 I should take?

Further information about the interviewee: 2 males, postgraduate mechanical engineering students.

Interviewee 12.

I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

Yes ,yes

Well, I am new in here, in Bursa. But let me ask someone in Turkish

…

Okay. You can use the subway. Just go straight. Do you know the station?

Aaa okay is it …

You should go straight away. It is empty end. It is in this direction. And then you are gonna.. that's the first stop anyway. So you will take the subway.

G: which number is…subway should I take?

…

I: any of them just go.

G: where should I get off?

I: It is written there. Shehrekustu it is the station number

Further information about the interviewee: female, interpreter,

Interviewee 13.

G: I am sorry. Can you help me? How can I go to Shehrekustu?

I: Shehrekustu? Go staright, metro. Metro station.

(They showed google translation)

G: ahhh. I don't understand. I am sorry

I: metro station

G: how can I go? Is it straight? Should I go straight?

I: Yes, go straight

G: ehe

I: Metro station (uzun neydi) universite metro station …metroya bindikte sonra...shehrekustı station. Yani Shehreküstü duragında inmeniz gerekiyor

G: So, I should get off Shehrekustu station? Okay. Which number should I take? 1, 2, 3 which number is the tarin?

I: Take first

G: Number one, aha. Thank you, thank you very much.

Further information about the interviewee: undergraduate student (first grade), 19 years old

The Data Collected Downtown in Bursa

Interviewee 1.

G:I am sorry, I am sorry how can I go to metro station?

I: No English

G: No English, okay, thank you.

Interviewee 2.

G: Excuse me, how can I go metro station do you know that

I: Biraz daha ilerde

G: This way, can I go straight

I: Evet

G: Okay, then should I turn left or..

I: Şöyle gösterim gel

I3: Arda, götür götür

…

G: Straight? I should go staright?

I: Aynen, tarif ederler orda, yardım ederler

G: Left side or right side

I: Düm düz, LC Waikiki

Further information about interviewee: 15 years old, high school students, 2 male students

Interviewee 3.

G: How can I go to metro station? Do you know that?

…

G: Should I go to straight ?

I: Yeah, yeah

G: Then?

I: And right

G: I should turn the right? Then?

I: ….on the right …

G: You mean that I should go straight? And then turn right?

I: Karşıda durak tam orda

G: Ha, okay, I can see it. The metro station. Okay thanks.

Further information about interviewee: 27 years old. Undergraduate student, studies Law

Interviewee 4.

G: How can I go to metro station? Do you know that?

I: Ehhh.

G. How can I get to metro station?

I: Metro istasyon

G: Aha, yes.

I: Istersen benimle gel, aşagıya gidiyorsun

G: I should go staright, then?

I: Right

G: I should turn the right, then?

I: One hundred metre

G: Okay, so I should go 100 kilometres. And I can see metro station?

I: Yes

G: Okay, thanks.

Further information about interviewee: graduated from vocational high school, pazarcılık yapıyor, 34 years old

Interviewee 5.

G: I want to ask something. How can I get to metro station?

I: Metro?

G: Aha. I want to go to the university. Can you help us?

I: I don't speak English.

G: But, you can speak English?

G: You are speaking now. And you can understand.

G: How can I go to metro station?

I: Bilmiyorum, sorry

G: You don't know, right?

G: Do you know the place of metro station

I: No.

Further information about interviewee: high school students, 2 males, 1 female one of the males studies at university

Interviewee 6.

G: We want to go to metro station. How can we go?

I: Ahh. Ilerden aşagıya döneceksiniz.

G: Should I go straight?

I: Yes

G: Then

I: Turn right. Go to way.. in metro

G: I should go staright, then.

I: Evet

G: Okay. Thanks.

I: Ehhh

G: That's all?

I2: Ehh. Istersen demirtaşa yollayalım orası daha kolay (two friends re talking to each other) shehrekustunemi yollayalım?

I: Evet öyle yepın siz yes ye öyle yapın, turn right go to way in metro

Okay I can see metro then. Okay thanks

Further information about interviewee: undergraduate students, they mentioned that they took English preparation class. 19-20 years old

Interviewee 7.

G: I am sorry how can I go to metro station? Metro station. How can I go there?

I: Metro istasyonu nasıl analatabiliriz çok zor anlatırız

I2: Ya şey yapsana, nerden gitcek, nasıl gitcek?

I: ben şimdi anlatacam, ne yazacam bir dakika

I2: düz devam edip aşagıya dönmesi gerekiyor

I: 100 metre ileriden sola dönüp (they are writing on google translator)

I2: saga …

I: soldan, bu taraftan gidecekler, bkm den aşagıya inecekler

I2: hangi metroya götürüyorsun bunları

I: demirtaşpaşa

I2: tamam

(They showed us the written direction on google translator)

G: I don't understand

I2: eyvah anlamadı, ver bakım nasıl çevirdin sen

G: should I go this way? Or that way? This way?

I2: evet yes

G: should I turn right or left

I-I2: left

G: then? Should I go straight or ..

I2: düm düz ne demek ya? düm düz gidecek şimdi

…

G: hmm okay

I: and left

G: then I should turn left then. I can see metro station right? (read the direction on the phone) Okay, okay. Thanks.

Further information about interviewee: an undergraduate student, two of them graduated form university

Interviewee 8.

G: Excuse us, excuse us. How can we go to metro station?

I: Nasıl tariff edimkiçok uzak tamda bana denk geldi

G: Should I go straight or should I turn ..

I: Tam olarak neresi bilmiyorum, ingilizce çevir! I don't know diyeyim çünkü eee karışık, karışık.

G: You cannot speak English?

I: Yes

Further information about interviewee: high school students

Interviewee 9.

G: I am sorry, how can I go to metro station?

I: Metro station?

G: Yes

I: Eee, ulu mosque finish,

G: Aha

I: Mosque finish its direct shehrekustu

G: Should I turn right?

I: Yes, right

G: Aha

I: Shehrekustu station ..its walking maximum five or seven minutes

G: Seven meters?

I: Five minutes walking

G: Five minutes, okay, okay. So, I can see metro station, right?

I: Its direct

Further information about interviewee: consultant at tourism office, female

Interviewee 10.

G: I am sorry, how can I go to metro station?

I: Ehh. You go, right go

G: Should I go straight?

I: Yes

G: Then, should I turn right or left?

I: Right

G: Right then where is the station?

I: ..

G: Sorry

I: ….

G: So, I can see metro station. Okay thank you.

 Further information about interviewee: graduated from university, female, 25 years old

P.S: because of the loud noise downtown the interviewer could not hear some parts of spoken language, thus she has not been able to transcript them. Those parts were transcribed as dots (……)

The Data collected at University Campus in Erzurum

The 1st case

(bachelor, 24 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can we get to the city center?

P1: Şehre gitmek diyor, ama..

T1: Which bus should I take?

P1: nasıl anlatsak ki, you are go , left. Kapıyı nasıl diyeceğiz? Left , left, tekrar aşağıya go, orada zaten. Kağıt var mı? Kağıt kalem?

P2: haritadan bak, haritadan.

T1: I don't understand maps, please tell me the way.

P1 : 100 metre, oradan kapı, door. Left, five hundred down.

T1 :Okay, thank you. We got it.

The 2nd case

(undergraduate student, 21 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ?

P1 : I don't speak English.

T1: You speak. I need to go downtown . How can I go?

P1 : bizimle gelin.

T1 : No , I can't just tell me. Which bus should I take?

P1: Hangi otobüs diyor. – they speak to each other about bus numbers- K3 no G4. – She is trying to remember the pronunciation of G- a,b,c,d,e,… g4. Turuncu otobüs. You can go orange bus. Orange bus.

T1- okay, thank you.

The 3rd case

(high school graduate , 18 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can we go to city center?

P1: Bilmiyoruz ki. Center diyor, haa.

T1: Which bus should I take?

P1: Haa otobüs diyor. Bak burdan bineceksin, buradan. (by pointing at the stop)

T1: This bus stop, okay. Can you say the bus number or colour.

P1: (he is pointing his phone screen, g4 (bus number) can be seen on the screen)

T1: Okay , g4 bus. Thank you.

The 4th case

(high school graduate, 41 ; bachelor , 39 years old)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can we go to city center?

P1: bir saniye, (he is calling his boss)

T2: We want to go to city center.

P2: Burası üniversite.

T1 : not campus, we want to go city center .

P2: center , center, neydi bu center. İsrafil sende İngilizce var mı, çatpat(he is calling at his friend)

T1: We wanna go to the city center. Which bus should we take?

P3: City center ,şehir merkezi demek. G1 (he pronunces it correctly) g1 bus.

T1: It's okay. Thank you.

The 5th case

(bachelor, 24 ; undergraduate student , 24 years old)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can we go to city center?

P1:Nereye?

T1: We want to go city center. How can we go?

P1: City center dedi. Station şeyde, nereye gidebilir buradan?

P2: Nereye gidecekmiş?

P1: şehir merkezine.

P2: haa. Orange minibus. Orange car.

P1: This station. Orange car.

T1: okay. This statition , orange car.

P1: Havuzbaşında inecekler, şehir merkezinde inecekler.

P2: Tamam ya, otobüste söylerler.

P1: Okay, City center say.

T1: okay thank you.

The 6th case

(bachelor, teacher at primary school, 49 years old)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can I go downtown?

P: Where are you?

T1: I want to go city center, downtown. How can I go? Which bus can I take?

P: One bus, one number one. One.

T2: just one?

P: evet, one minibüs.

T2: bus? Or can we just walk to the city center?

P: yes, twenty … fifteen minutes walk ya da number one bus.

T1: okay, which way should I walk?

P :evet,direct, direct.

T2: okay, from that way, thank you.

The 7th case

(undergraduate student, 19 years old)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can I go downtown?

P: err, turuncu otobüs, siz de mi turistsiniz?

T2: We want to go to the city center?

P: Orange car, geldiğinde, binin ona

T2: Okay, orange car goes to city center.

P: evet şehir merkezine gidiyor. Sizinle bekliyim isterseniz, bekliyim sizinle.

T1: I don't understand what you say.

P: Sizinle bekleyeceğim

T1: No, no. Just tell us.

P: Tamam, orange car, bindiniz.

T1: Bindiniz, what is it? What is that?

P: Bir dakika. Translate'i açıcam.

T1: no map. We don't have internet. Just tell us.

P: (by reading from translate application) You are getting into orange bus

T1: We are getting into orange bus, okay.

P: bir dakika. You will pay two TL.

T2: Okay, thank you.

The 8th case

(Doctor – phd, academician ,66 years old)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can I go downtown?

P: ohh , sorry. Sorry.

T2: we just want to go city center.

P: Araba mı istiyorsunuz, dolmuş mu yani?

T1: Which bus can we take to go downtown?

P: Yes, yes. I understand. One moment, dur bi saniye, şimdi buradan geçer. Şurada durun, şimdi geçer.

T2: From this way, but which bus? Is there a number or anything?

P: Yes , I understand . One moment. This car (he is pointing at the coming bus)

T1: okay, okay thank you.

The 9th case

(high school graduate, 18 years old)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can I go downtown?

P: city center, şehir merkezi.

T2: Yes, which bus can we take?

P: haa şehir merkezine gidecekler. go,

P2: K2.

T1: From that way or across?

P2 : from that way, go and turn righ and then left. City center.

T2: Okay, thank you.

The 10th case

(n/a)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can I go downtown?

P: yok İngilizce

The 11th case

(undergraduate student, 22 years old)

T1: Excuse me? Can you help us? Do you speak English ? how can I go downtown?

P: I don't speak English.

T1: You do, you speak.Why? Can you help us?

T2: We want to go to city center. How can we go to city center?

P: city center. (she is thinking …) orange

T2: okay, thank you

P: this(she is pointing at the bus)

T1: Dont stop the bus. Please, tell me. How much does it cost?

P : two liras.

T2: Okay, thank you.

Transcriptions of collected data in Erzurum, downtown

The 1st case

(bachelor, 21 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to campus?

P: campus, yes, hmm

P2: nasıl anlatıcaz, boş ver gidelim.

P: You go ahead this street. And orange bus you can take.

T: From that direction or across?

P: across, orange bus.

T: Thank you.

The 2nd case

(high school, 18 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to campus?

P: Campus, hmm, campus. Şimdi… you go, right

T: Yes.

P: You can come with me

T: No , please tell me the way, I cannot come.

P : I am sorry, I can't

T: Okay, thank you

The 3rd case

(bachelor, 22 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to campus?

P: hmm. You get across, go ahead and you should take the orange buses

T: Has it any number or writings?

P: No, just orange bus

T: Okay, thank you.

The 4th case

(high school students, 18 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to the campus?

P: bilmiyoruz, anlamıyourz

T: I want to go to the campus, can you help me?

P: Sorry.

T: no problem, okay

The 5th case

(N/A, 25-30 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to the campus?

P : (No answers, just passing away)

The 6th case

(high school graduate , 21 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to the campus?

P: I don't speak English

T: Okay, thank you

The 7th case

(bachelor , 22 years old)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to the campus?

P: You go to the campus, university?

T: Yes

P: You go orange bus.

T: Which station should I take in?

P: Go across, from that station, you take orange bus.

T: Okay, thank you.

The 8th case

(high school , 50 years old couple)

T1 : Excuse me? Can you help us? How can I get to the campus?

P: Ne diyorsun, anlamıyoruz

LEARNING HOW TO INTEGRATE MULTIMODAL MOBILE ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING: A STUDY ON PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

Gülin ZEYBEK1

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Abstract

This study aims to understand the perceptions of pre-service English teachers (PSTs) on using multimodal mobile technologies in foreign language teaching and was implemented on two PST groups at a state university in Turkey. A pilot training program on Multimodal Mobile Assisted Language Learning (M-MALL) was designed and implemented on both groups. After the training process, both groups were asked to integrate M-MALL in their own teaching contexts. Participants' perceptions were gathered though training evaluation questions, data-led reflections, and researcher's field to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the data collection tools and instruments for the development of a more detailed and comprehensive training model. The findings revealed the potential problems or external factors that might have an effect on the integration of M-MALL in ELT. According to participants the lessons became more enjoyable, motivating and interactive. However, they also stated some problems due to technological insufficiencies such as internet connection. Furthermore, they stated that the training on M-MALL should include more practices next to theoretical background.

Keywords: Multimodal Mobile Assisted Language Learning, English Language Teaching, Mobile Technologies.

INTRODUCTION

New trends in education highlight the necessity to integrate digital tools into existing learning environments to transform and enhance learning (Anderson, 2009). The use of these recent ICTs and the Internet enables both learners and teachers to have the opportunities to develop academically and socially by providing new assessment models, collaboration mediums, visual stimulants, and new learning activities (Meyer, 2015). The studies emphasize that foreign language teachers (both pre-service and in-service) have positive attitudes towards adopting ICTs and the Internet in their language courses (Barnes, 2018; Mei, Brown & Teo, 2018). However, foreign language teachers have been found to lack mental and skill access that can help them use ICTs at their hands (Lozano & Izquierdo, 2019). Even though a variety of organizations and institutions state many expected competencies from teachers, there is still obscurity in how teacher training should pave the way for gaining these competencies to integrate technology into teaching (Aydın, 2017).

Studies (Aşık et al, 2019; Aydın, 2017; Kuru Gönen, 2019, Sert & Li, 2017; Yeh, 2018) show that teacher education on technology integration should provide systematic training including experience and reflection steps. However, these studies also highlight that there is a serious gap in language teacher education in terms of integrating technology into their lessons. Almost all of the studies treat technology as a whole in training PSTs and do not offer specific training methods for recent technologies existing today such as mobile technologies. Therefore, focusing on a specific technology integration approach, i.e. MALL in PST education may offer a more comprehensive and detailed model. Furthermore, these studies found out that understanding the perceptions of PSTs towards adopting and using technologies in the classroom play an important role in EFL teaching. Therefore, how EFL PSTs accept recent technologies is another issue necessary for investigating their views on the integration of multimodal mobile technologies.

The integration of mobile devices into the learning process provides multimodality for learners in making meaning (Kukulska-Hulme et al., 2017), which is an essential point in English language teaching. Multimodality of mobile tools helps learners find more accessible and usable environments since it allows adaptability to the environment considering the cognitive abilities and limitations of learners (Magal-Royo et al., 2011). Despite its usefulness, there are few studies on multimodality in Mobile-Assisted Language Learning leaving it as somewhat an understudied area (Eisenlauer, 2014). As Lee, Lo and Chin (2019) assert language limitations can be overcome through multimodal resources since they offer a variety of possible modes for the process of meaning-making. Although various contributions of multimodal resources have been found in previous studies, a comprehensive framework for training EFL teachers on how to make EFL lessons multimodal by integrating MALL has not been presented in the literature.

In this light, the aim of this study is to design and pilot an M-MALL training program, evaluate the effectiveness of the training sessions and find out the strengths and weaknesses to reach a more comprehensive training model. Also, it aims to understand the perceptions of pre-service English teachers (PSTs) on using multimodal mobile technologies in foreign language teaching.

METHOD

Participants

This study was implemented on two groups of student and the contexts these students are as the following:

- Group – Micro-teaching context: 18 junior ELT students who were enrolled in a selective course named Technology use in ELT offered by the English Language Teaching Department in the same state university,

- Group 2- teaching practice context: Four senior English Language and Literature (ELL) students who were enrolled to Teaching Experience course offered by Faculty of Education Pedagogical Formation Program.

Detailed information on these groups are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1.

Participants of the pilot M-MALL training program

	Group 1: Micro-teaching context	Group 2: Teaching practice context
Grade/Course Enrolled	ELT Junior Students / Technology Use in Language Education	ELL Senior students / Teaching Practice Course as a part of Pedagogical Formation Program
Number	18	4
Gender	11 Females and 7 Males	3 Females and 1 Male
Frequency	Each student did 1 micro-teaching with a different M-MALL mobile application	Each student taught 4 English lessons using the most appropriate M-MALL mobile application for their assigned task
Teaching-context	Micro-teaching (peers)	Teaching practice in a state high school

Training on M-MALL

A training program on M-MALL was prepared and implemented on both groups in order to evaluate the materials, detect any problems with the training, find out its strengths and weaknesses. These steps were followed for two weeks in both groups.

Step 1. The researcher presented the topics of Multimodality and Mobile Assisted Language Learning and explained what these terms refer to and what the importance of M-MALL is.

Step 2. The researcher gave instructions on the parts of a lesson plan and how lesson plans are designed in general. The researcher also gave a lesson plan template to the PSTs.

Step 3. Criteria for Selecting Multimodal Smartphone Applications were prepared by the researcher based on research findings in the field (Blitz-Raith & Liu, 2017; Franklin, 2011) to guide PSTs in their choice of smartphone applications.

Instruments

Training evaluation questions

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the training sessions, the researcher asked participants in their native language to answer the following questions after the training session.

Guidance questions for data-led reflections

Guidance questions were given to the participants in order to help them in writing their reflections on M-MALL after watching the videos of M-MALL integrated lessons and micro-teachings. Both the questions and answers were in participants' native language in order not

to create anxiety stemming from language limitations, and to make them feel relaxed and intimate in their responses.

Researcher's field notes

The researcher took field notes during micro-teaching presentations of ELT 3rd grade PSTs and ELL PSTs in Teaching Experience course. The aim of taking field notes was to identify the strengths and weaknesses on the tools used.

Data Analysis

Inductive Content Analysis was done, which indicates that there were no pre-existing categories and all the patterns, themes and categories have emerged from the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Patton, 2002).

The use of this method was appropriate for this study since the aim of the researcher was to understand PSTs' perceptions on M-MALL training and M-MALL integration in EFL learning based on reflections and views.

Procedure of the study

The procedure of data collection and analysis is explained through Figure 1.
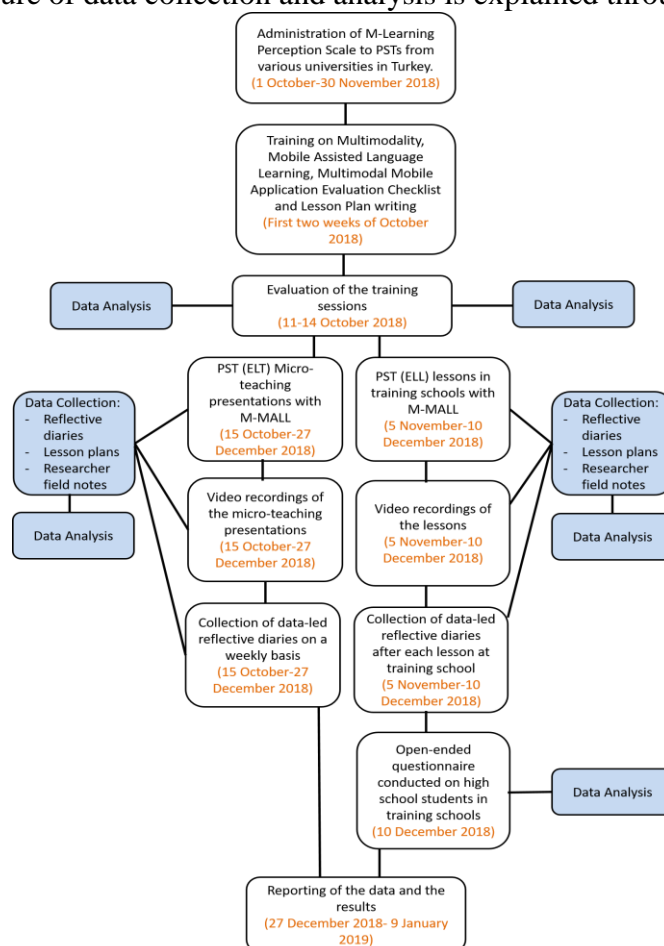
Figure 1. The procedure of data collection and analysis in piloting

FINDINGS

The findings in this section reveal the potential problems or external factors that may have an effect on the integration of M-MALL in ELT. This section includes PST perceptions on M-MALL training and M-MALL integration in ELT and Researcher's Field Notes.

M-MALL Training Evaluation Results

M-MALL training evaluation questions were directed to PSTs in both groups and their answers revealed the following suggestions:

1. Time allotted for training on M-MALL should be longer.

2. Sample lesson plans can be presented to PSTs.

3. There should be a practice part on M-MALL for PSTs next to the theory.

4. There should be a smartboard in the classroom during training.

5. It would be nice to learn how to teach with M-MALL to learners, who are very young to own a mobile phone.

PST perceptions on M-MALL integration in ELT

In order to find out the perceptions of PSTs on using M-MALL in their reflective diaries were collected from both PSTs in the micro-teaching context (Group 1) and the ones in teaching practice context (Group 2). The aim of this data collection process is to find out the weaknesses and strengths of training on M-MALL integration in ELT and to test the reliability and validity of data collection instruments (e.g. reflective diaries) used. The perceptions of both groups of participants regarding M-MALL training implemented in ELT are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

PST perceptions on M-MALL in the pilot study

	Opinions	Problems
Group 1: Micro-teaching Context	*The M-MALL mobile applications…* ● were attractive ● were enjoyable ● were motivating ● were easy to use ● provided in-class interaction ● resulted in whole class participation ● enhanced creativity ● enabled teacher feedback ● resulted in more fruitful lessons ● provided students a chance to research and explore on their own ● highlighted weaknesses for students ● helped students gain self-confidence	● Infrastructure problems ● Features requiring payment ● Complexity of PST's instructions

| Group 2: Teaching Practice Context | ● were attractive
● were enjoyable
● were appropriate to the content of the lesson
● supported the subject
● resulted in more fruitful lessons | ● Poor download rate in the class
● Uninterested students
● Distraction due to Social Media
● Complexity of the application
● Crowded population
● Limited-time (40 minutes)
● Complexity of PST's instructions
● Classroom management
● Internet connection |

Researcher's Field Notes

The problems identified by the researcher were:

1. PSTs need extra tasks in the training process in order to understand and integrate better M-MALL in their lessons.

2. PSTs need to be trained with various tasks on M-MALL lesson planning prior to their actual lesson planning process in their Teaching Practice.

3. Various M-MALL applications and how to search and find these applications should be introduced to PSTs.

4. Evaluation of the appropriateness of M-MALL mobile applications and determining the necessity of M-MALL integration to ELT should be highlighted in the training session with PSTs.

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

The findings on PSTs' perceptions on M-MALL Training showed that this kind of a training should be more systematic and offer more practices for PTSs, which were also highlighted by many researchers in the field (Aşık et al., 2019; Aydın, 2017; Kuru Gönen, 2019, Sert & Li, 2017; Yeh, 2018). Furthermore, modelling, collaboration, reflection, and transfer and reconstruction of knowledge have been stated as important factors in training PSTs for technology integration (Kuru Gönen, 2019; Sert & Li, 2017; Son, 2018). PSTs need to observe and understand the teacher educator as models of technology use (Teo & Noyes, 2014) and collaborate with peers and the experienced ones (Son, 2018). Also, reflectivity (Kuru Gönen, 2012) has been asserted to help PSTs foster their teaching skills. Thus, these factors needed to be taken into consideration when preparing a more comprehensive M-MALL training program.

PSTs' perceptions on M-MALL integration in ELT in this study signaled that this integration is helpful for EFL PSTs in carrying out their lessons, evaluating learners learning, giving feedback and supporting the subject being covered. Previous studies have also found out that technology integration, especially integrating mobile technologies into ELT, reinforces the comprehensibility by simplifying and providing information that cannot be covered in textbooks (Batane and Ngwako, 2017) and provides opportunities for comprehensible input, output and noticing (Kukulska-Hulme & Viberg, 2018). Furthermore, thanks to this integration learning becomes easy and fast (Aygül, 2019; Inggita, 2019). Studies also showed that multimodality enables learners to find more accessible and usable environments in which

their comprehension is increased (Magal-Royo et al., 2011). Unfortunately, in classical textbooks multimodality is limited and visuals are presented in isolation from the textual mode (Weninger, 2020). Considering the fact that more than one mode is needed for increased meaning-making (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001) it can be concluded that integrating M-MALL into language learning can enhance learners meaning-making abilities. Thus, M-MALL can provide various opportunities for ELT PSTs to boost their lessons.

Finally, this study found out that there may be some problems during the integration of M-MALL in ELT. These problems such as limited or lack of internet connection (Aygül, 2019; Inggita et al., 2019), high cost (Hockly, 2013; Öz, 2015), limited battery (Bayyurt et al., 2014; Singh, 2010) and limited tech support on facilities (Izquierdo et al., 2017), identity concerns (Kilmonova & Dembovskaya, 2013), lack of awareness on MALL and digital literacies (Aygül, 2019), distraction (Hockly, 2013; Öz, 2015), monitoring students' actions (Inggita et al., 2019), internet restriction in schools (Özdemir, 2017) and limited time and the crowded classroom (Kuru Gönen, 2019) have all been pointed out as issues to be taken into consideration while integrating mobile technologies in ELT. While some of these problems can be overcome by training PSTs on M-MALL integration, for some problems such as internet restriction or high costs should be solved by taking nation-wide steps.

All in all, the findings of this pilot study helped researchers develop a more comprehensive M-MALL Training Model for ELT PSTs. Furthermore, the data collection tools such as data-led guidance questions for reflective diaries, training evaluation questions and the instruments such as M-MALL Mobile Application Evaluation Checklist, and M-MALL training materials have all been validated through this study.

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DO LANGUAGE TEACHERS AFFECT THEIR STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO TRANSLANGUAGING PEDAGOGIES?

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Abstract

The present mixed-designed study focused on the relationship between teachers' translanguaging pedagogies (TP) and students' attitudes to these pedagogies in a Turkish State University. Teachers (N=3) of English, teachers (N=2) of English and Russian/Turkish, and their students (N=157) were selected through convenient sampling. The data were collected through a questionnaire developed by the researcher and semi-structured interviews. The quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive statistics and Spearman Rank correlation. The qualitative data were analyzed through content analysis by using CLAN (Computerized Language ANalysis) Program. The findings displayed that students' preference for TP positively correlated with the extent to which it is used by their teacher in class. According to the interviews, by being exposed to their teachers' methods, students adopt their teachers' attitudes and approaches to language learning.

Keywords: FL Learners & Teachers, SL Learners & Teachers, Translanguaging Pedagogies

INTRODUCTION

Translanguaging pedagogies (TP) refer to the process in which students and teachers display multilingual behavior in the classroom by using two or more languages to mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, teaching and learning in the classroom.

The following research questions were posed for the study:

RQ1. Is there a Relationship between Teachers' Pedagogies and Students' Attitude to These Pedagogies?

RQ2. How do teachers influence their students' attitude to TP?

METHOD

Participants

Teachers (N=3) of English, teachers (N=2) of English and Russian/Turkish, and their students (N=157) were selected through convenient sampling.

The students were:

(1) learners of English as a FL (Foreign language), monolingual university students in the English Prep Program,

(2) learners of Turkish as a (Second Language), bi/multilingual foreign university students in the Turkish Prep Program

(3) learners of Russian as a FL, multilingual students in the Russian course program.

Data Collection Instruments

The data were collected from a questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher and built upon translanguaging strategies, L2 and L3 acquisition differences, and language and culture integration.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics and Spearman Rank correlation analysis were applied to analyze the quantitative data. The interviews were analyzed via content analysis by using CLAN (Computerized Language ANalysis) Program (MacWhinney, 2000).

Validity and Reliability

The reliability of the study was supported by the reliability test of the questionnaire (r=,63; r=,72) and inter-coder reliability of the interviews (Kappa = ,85; Sig= 0.000; p < 0.001). For the validity of the study, Factor analysis was run which displayed the theoretically appropriate grouping of the interview items.

Qualitatively, the study was supported by using triangulation, member checking, and standard codes, transcription and command conventions from CHILDES manual.

FINDINGS

Findings related to RQ1

Spearman's rho correlation analysis was used to answer RQ1. The findings indicated that students' preference for a specific pedagogy positively correlated with the extent to which it is used by their teacher. The more teacher applies a pedagogy, the more students like it. When the teacher integrates three languages, students appreciate it. when the teacher uses mostly two languages, students like it the most too. If their teacher focuses only on TL, students prefer monolingual pedagogies. In other words, the more teacher applies a TP pedagogy, the more students like it.

Findings related to RQ2

The correlation above might mean that students are influenced by their teachers' methods and adopt the attitudes of their teachers. Interview data supported qualitatively this parallelism between teachers and their students because teachers and their students revealed not only similar attitudes but also stated the same reasons behind their attitudes. Students' statements overlapped and echoed the explanations of their teachers about the preference of TP.

DISCUSSION

The finding that teachers' TP positively influence students' attitudes is in line with the previous research. This could be explained with the multilingual model of Krisner and their colleagues (Kirsner et al., 1993) according to which, similar languages are suggested to have strong lexical connections and interlanguage activations. It seems that TP, comparison of similar languages in class, high exposure to multiple and similar languages contribute to students' interlanguage activations of the languages in their mental lexicon. As a result, teachers' use of TP may have a positive effect on students' learning and, therefore, on their attitude to TP (Cenoz, 2009).

CONCLUSION

The role of the teacher is crucial for the implementation of TP in language education. Teacher educators should reconsider monolingual policies and raise teachers' awareness of using TP in the classroom.

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AN ANALYSIS OF APOLOGIES BY NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE INSTRUCTORS OF ENGLISH

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Abstract

The present paper examines the pragmatic competence of Turkish teachers of English as a foreign language. For this purpose, a discourse completion questionnaire with eight situations targeted to elicit apology speech acts is given to both native and non-native speakers of English. The apologies provided by these two groups are thoroughly analyzed and categorized into apology speech act realization strategies. Following that, the data is also scrutinized in terms of strategy use and distribution of tokens across strategies with Pearson's chi-square test. The length of the apologies and the average number of strategies and sub-strategies per apology speech act are investigated using the independent samples t-test. The results of the statistical analyses have indicated that non-native English teachers differ from native teachers in their use of apology strategies. That is to say, non-native English teachers do not meet the native norms with regard to their knowledge of pragmatics. Overall, the implications of the current study are supposed to help language teachers be a better model of native-like language use and also provide students with necessary exposure to native language use.

Keywords: Apology, Native Speakers of English, Non-native Speakers of English

INTRODUCTION

The communicative movement, starting in the early 70s, has mainly focused on the use of language in context. With the communicative functions of language, the concept of 'pragmatics' has come into existence.

Pragmatics is difficult to acquire as it is highly dependent on context; thus, success in pragmatics involves not only pragmalinguistic but also sociopragmatic knowledge. Pragmalinguistic knowledge requires certain linguistic forms to perform specific functions in a context whereas sociopragmatic knowledge demands that time and place determined by the norms of language community are important for a linguistic form to be uttered. According to Cohen (2005), speech acts are appropriate examples to this assertion in that successful performance of speech acts includes both proper use of pragmalinguistic forms and their conformation to the sociocultural criterion of the present language community. The distinction between these two concepts is crucial because sociopragmatic knowledge is not completely built upon general language proficiency (McNamara & Roever, 2006). That is to say, a speaker may be highly proficient in structural forms of the target language; but bad at carrying out pragmatic judgments, which develop much later (Barron, 2003). This might be true not only for language learners but also for language teachers as Cohen (2005) states;

"L2 pragmatics with an explicit focus… has traditionally been underrepresented in teacher development programs" (p. g. 285).

This means that although language teachers are highly - competent in structural forms of the language they are teaching, there may be deficiencies in their pragmatic competence because of the lack of proper context in order to use the language they have acquired.

For this purpose, the present study is built on the investigation of the pragmatic competence of non-native teachers of English with regard to their speech act productions in comparison to native teachers of English.

Pragmatic Competence

As opposed to Chomskyan linguistic competence, the introduction of *'communicative competence'* by Hymes (1972) in foreign language teaching has brought about a wind of change in the field. It is worth mentioning that Hymes (1972) can be accepted as one of the pioneers of introducing pragmatics into the foreign language field by proposing a new approach to language teaching and assessment. Furthermore, Canale and Swain (1980) discussed communicative competence and asserted that it consists of grammatical competence (the knowledge about phonology, rules of morphology and lexis, syntax, structural rules, and semantics), sociolinguistic competence (use of structural rules in discourse) and strategic competence (verbal and non-verbal communication strategies) (p. g. 29 - 30). Discourse competence is later included in the list by Canale (1983). Pragmatic competence was not listed as a separate category in neither Canale and Swain's (1980) nor Canale's (1983) categorization; however, it was present inherently in sociolinguistic competence as Kasper (2001) stated; "it had just not yet come to its own name" (p. g. 503).

According to Thomas (1983), pragmatic competence is defined as being competent enough to use language in an effective way so as to reach a certain goal and attain high comprehension in context. On the other hand, Bachman (1990) presents two components of language competence as pragmatic competence and organizational competence. According to his definitions, organizational competence – including grammatical and textual competencies – is the capability of understanding and producing structurally acceptable sentences with

appropriate cohesive devices; pragmatic competence – involving illocutionary and sociolinguistic competencies – is the ability related to the functions of linguistic structures demonstrated via language use.

Figure 1.

Bachman's Model (1990:87)

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │    LANGUAGE COMPETENCE      │
                    └─────────────────────────────┘
                                  ↑
  ┌──────────────────┐                          ┌──────────────────┐
  │  ORGANIZATIONA   │ ←──────────────────────→ │    PRAGMATIC     │
  │  L COMPETENCE    │                          │   COMPETENCE     │
  └──────────────────┘                          └──────────────────┘
```
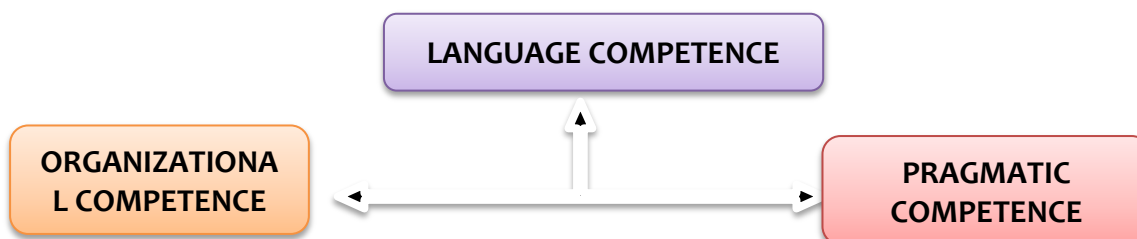
● **GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE**

● **TEXTUAL COMPETENCE**

1. **ILLOCUTIONARY COMPETENCE**
2. **SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE**

According to this model, although all the constituents seem to be separate, they are interrelated to each other during a course of communication, and Bachman (1990) believes that this interaction between differing competencies and context leads to communicative language use. In a similar vein, Savignon (2002) puts forward that four competencies namely grammatical, discourse, sociocultural and strategic competencies all have a relationship with each other in a way that development in one of these competencies results in progress in overall communicative competence.

Bachman's (1990) model is crucial in the field of language teaching because the other models - such as Hymes's (1979) and Canale and Swain's (1980) - fail to explain the relationship between sub-components of competencies in communicative competence (Jorda, 2005). What is more, this model is important since pragmatic competence is acknowledged as a part of communicative competence and defined as a combination of knowledge of pragmatic and sociolinguistic conventions so as to fulfill language functions properly in a specific situation. Kasper (1997) concurs with this definition and asserts that pragmatic competence is essential in language learning for successful communication and interaction in the target language. When other definitions of pragmatic competence are concerned, Edwards and Csizer (2004), also emphasizing the significance of pragmatic competence, state that it is the knowledge about social, cultural, and discourse conventions traced in differing contexts. Apart from that, there are other definitions of pragmatic competence in which appropriateness is a key factor. As an example, Fujioka (2003) defines pragmatic competence as the capability to use a language in *'culturally and contextually appropriate ways'*. In a similar vein, Chapelle (2004) puts forward that pragmatic competence is the knowledge leading speakers to choose what is linguistically appropriate to the given context. Another definition comes from Belz (2004) as the competence of speakers to deal with proper communicative processes *'with right people in right places and at right times'*. However, the most comprehensive definition is presented by Barron (2003):

"...knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources." (p. g. 10).

From another perspective, Thomas (1983) has come up with the term *'pragmatic failure'* in order to express incompetency in pragmatic competence particularly in terms of foreign language speakers. She believes that a pragmatically competent speaker should behave in a way that s/he is able to avoid being invidious without deliberation, especially to strangers speaking the same language with the speakers. Moreover, she accepts that even native speakers produce pragmatically inappropriate structures intentionally or unintentionally; however, this does not mean that they are incompetent with regard to pragmatic competence. On the other hand, when non-native speakers use a pragmatically inappropriate structure, it becomes difficult for their interlocutors to take them seriously (p. g. 96), which results in the fact that pragmatic failure of non-native speakers is not as acceptable as their grammatical failure because grammatical mistakes appear in surface structure whereas pragmatic breakdown shows up in the deep structure of a sentence. Hence, Thomas (1983) concludes that language teaching practice should be revised as it is not fair to expect learners to acquire all the pragmatic norms of a language by themselves:

> *"...sensitizing learners to expect cross-cultural differences in the linguistic realizations of politeness, truthfulness, etc. takes the teaching of language beyond the realms of mere training and makes it truly educational"* (p. g. 110).

Apologies in English

Apology speech acts are important for interpersonal relationships because it is an act controlling the communication and inhibiting the conflict; hence hindering the damage of social interactions or re-forming the relationships. What is more, as an act with a strong cultural dimension, the interpersonal functions of this speech act might vary from culture to culture.

When the dictionary meaning of this speech act is concerned; it is *'a statement saying that you are sorry about something; an expression of regret for having done or said something wrong'*, which are also called offences (Kanık, 2010). Holmes (1995) groups these offences into six categories; namely *(1) space offences; (2) talk offences; (3) time offences; (4) possession offences; (5) social gaffes and (6) inconvenience offences*. During such a situation, the offender's social image is lowered, resulting in a necessity for apologies in order to manage or repair social impression/image (Meier, 2004). This repair can only be achieved by appropriate apologies to the circumstance. In such a case in order to apologize, one may utilize varying types of strategies (Intachakra, 2004). However, as mentioned before, since apologies are culture-dependent acts, an apology strategy can be accepted as appropriate to one culture, but it may be inappropriate to another culture (Harris et. al., 2006), which means that expertise in apology strategies is crucial especially in terms of healthy relationships between interlocutors.

Another point to mention about apology strategies is that they are not simple acts as they cause breakdowns of relationships in any case of misunderstanding. Also, they are completely formulaic especially in English (Intachakra, 2004) and some of the strategies are apt to be more influential than others. Exline et. al. (2007) provides such examples to this assertion as apology strategies of acknowledgment of wrongdoing, expression of remorse, and offers of compensation.

To this end, apology strategies are commonly researched acts in the field as they reflect the basis of pragmatic competence especially of speakers of English as a foreign language. When these strategies are concerned, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) propose that there are five strategies included in apology speech ac set, which are *an Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID), an expression of responsibility, an account of the situation, an offer of repair,* and *a promise for forbearance.* Likewise, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) have come up with a similar group of strategies in their famous project; CCSARP. Their categories are composed of *strategies of IFID, explanation, expression of responsibility, offer of repair* or *promise forbearance* as well as *apology intensifications*. There are three types of intensifications; the first of which occurs in IFID phrases like 'I am <u>really</u> sorry'; the second type is the concern for the hearer and the third type focuses on multiple intensifications. Also, some sub-strategies have been identified in categorization, as well. The same categorization has been extended by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) as they have added alerter and downgrader categories in addition to some sub-strategies to categories of IFID and taking on responsibility.

Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) carried out another project focusing on three types of speech acts; requests, refusals, and apologies. As this project was cross-culturally designed, the strategies identified were the ones facilitating cross-cultural communication. With respect to apologies, the categorization was a little bit different from previous ones; three types of categories namely *alerters, head acts,* and *modifications* have been determined within the scope of the project. Under the alerters category, five strategies have been listed; *attention getters, surname, first name, undetermined name, and title/role.* The second category, as the most important group, consists of nine strategies; *IFID, explanation, offer of repair, taking responsibility, statement of fact, promise forbearance, minimize offense, express gratitude, distract from offense.* For the final category - modification, seven strategies have been presented; *politeness markers, subjectivizer, hedge, appealer, pause filler, understate* and *cajoler.* As for the upgraders, *intensifier, emotional expression* and *commitment indicator* have been listed as the main strategies.

As these projects are the pioneers focusing on apology speech act strategies in the fields, a number of other studies follow their footsteps (Iragui, 1996; Sachie, 1998; Hussein and Hammouri, 1998; Afgari, 2007; Al-Zumor & Abdul W. G., 2011; Farashaian & Yazdi Amirkhiz, 2011; Kuhi & Jadidi, 2012; Shahrokhi & Jan, 2012; Farhangian, Behjat, & Kargar, 2013; Ghanbaran, Rahimi & Eslami – Rasekh, 2014; Salehi, 2014; Nasiri & Forutan, 2015). Based on the aforementioned studies, apology strategies likely to occur are demonstrated in Table 1:

Table 1.

The strategies in apology speech acts

HEAD ACTS	
IFID	I am sorry I am afraid I apologize Forgive me Excuse me
Expression of responsibility	I assume all responsibility for missing the
Account of situation	I am sorry I missed the bus
Offer of repair/reparation	I will replace this with a new one
Promise of forbearance	It will never happen again
Statement of fact	The bus was late
Minimize offense/brushing off incident as unimportant	It doesn't look too bad
Cost minimizer	It is important for him to have this treatment
Expressing gratitude / Thanking	Thanks for waiting
Distract from offense	Let's look at those pictures
Upgrading of offense	Those papers look important
Requests	Please, how do you pronounce your name?
Accepting blame	I have nothing to excuse my behavior.
Expressing self-deficiency	I did not realize what I was doing
Self-castigation / self-blame	Oh, it is very dumb of me.
Expression of embarrassment	Gosh, I am so embarrassed
Recognizing B as deserving apology	You deserve an apology
Expressing lack of intent	I did not mean it
Statement / question of dismay	What should I do?
Avoidance of discussion	Let's not talk about it
Concern for hearer	Are you all right?
Blaming victim	You should not have stood in the middle
Offending victim	You are so dumb.
Asking victim not to be angry	Please, don't get mad at me
Denial	I don't think there is something wrong
Laughing it off /distract with humor	I'm all thumbs
ALERTERS	
Surname	Mr. Brown
Title/role	John
Undetermined name	X
First name	Professor
MODIFICATIONS	
DOWNGRADERS	
Politeness markers	Please
Subjectivizer	I suppose…
Hedge	Somehow
Appealer	Okay?

Pause filler	Well
Understater	A bit
Cajoler	You know / you see
UPGRADERS	
Intensifier	Very / terribly
Emotional expression	Oh, God
Lexical Uptoner	(Written underlining, exclamation, etc)
Expletive	Damn
Emphasis	As soon as

(Kanık, 2010; 59-60)

NATIVE SPEAKER DEBATE

1. Non-Native Foreign Language Teachers

All through the recent years, the debate has been going on about the strengths and weaknesses of non-native foreign language teachers in language classrooms (Lazaraton, 2004), which is caused by the fact that there are more and more non-native language teachers taking part in the language teaching process (Maum, 2002). Lazaraton (2004) clarifies why non-native language teachers are questioned in terms of their qualifications in that they may not be equipped enough to facilitate their students' language development with respect to language improvement, cultural awareness, and pedagogical expertise (p. g. 49). Moreover, communicative competence is another concern of the query of non-native language teachers as they are believed not to be communicatively competent enough to meet learners' needs (p. g. 51).

Within this sense, language teachers' cultural awareness and linguistic knowledge are evidently the main interest in the language teaching field and a number of scholars have centered upon this concern. As an example, Berns (1992) states that being aware of the social and cultural context in which language develops is an important prerequisite for language teachers to accomplish in teaching. However, non-native language teachers are not qualified enough so as to present specific knowledge about target culture, which is closely related to pragmatic appropriateness. In such cases, learners are not exposed to *'a full range of styles, structures, and speech acts that supposedly is necessary to acquire native-like proficiency'*, which is because non-native teachers are not able to provide these learners with sufficient communication opportunities to facilitate their pragmatic competence (McKay, 2003: 6-10).

When compared to native language teachers, non-native teachers do not have native speaking intuitions of language use, that is the pragmatics of the target language and it is difficult for them to find an opportunity to use the language in related contexts (Kaplan, 1999). Another point of view is that non-native teachers are good at teaching beginner-level learners whereas native teachers are more competent with advanced-level students. This is because beginner-level learners are not proficient enough to acquire the pragmatics of the target language, thus non-native teachers do not need to focus on language use in a context. On the other hand, it is an urge for teachers to foster pragmatic knowledge of advanced-level learners, which can be easily accomplished by native language teachers (Walker, 2006).

Overall, the common agreement among a number of scholars is that there is a gap between non-native and native language teachers with respect to language use. However, as these are personal assumptions and assertions, there seems to be a need for in-depth analysis of non-native teachers in terms of their pragmatic competence. To this end, assessment of pragmatic

competence based on native-speaker norms brings about the query of validity of those norms when English as both a foreign language and a lingua franca is concerned.

5. Native Speaker Norms and the Language of English

In recent years, the language of English has started to be used by more and more people because of immigration, colonization, and globalization (Kuo, 2006). Among these people speaking English, there are native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English in addition to the ones utilizing English as a second language. Comparing these groups in terms of their populations, it is evident that the number of non-native speakers of English is much higher than the others as English has recently been accepted as a lingua franca (Crystal, 2000; 2003; Erling, 2005; Jenkins, 2009).

As the functions of English language have changed with the term lingua franca, according to Seidlhofer (2005), it is claimed that English has started to be influenced by non-native speakers, as well. To this end, a contradiction shows up about the fact that the main goal of language teaching is to reach native-speaker standards; however, what those native-speaker norms are is not clear anymore.

Concerning this hot topic, arguments continue to be carried out and a number of scholars accept that the native standards are clearly stated (Kuo, 2006; Mollin, 2006) whereas some others question the validity of such norms in language teaching (Jenkins, 1998; 2006; McArthur, 2001; Seidlhofer, 2000). Regarding the opponents of native-speaker norms, Barbara Seidlhofer and Jennifer Jenkins criticize that English language is composed of some standards that are precisely determined and the main goal of teaching English turns out to be forcing these language norms upon non-native speakers to reach native-like common grounds, which does not lead to native competence; on the contrary, a great deal of variety among Englishes used by various speakers regardless of native or non-native dilemma comes into existence resulting in a query of validity of native-speaker norms. On the other hand, the proponents of these norms argue that ungrammatical but acceptable language features occurring frequently during conversations in English should be questioned (Kuo, 2006). With this in mind, a number of researchers have investigated whether common linguistic features do exist among Englishes all over the world (Kayman, 2004; Kuo, 2006; Mollin, 2006). The findings of these studies have revealed that learners of English have a strong tendency to set native-speaker competence as their main goal and hence continue to follow native-speaker norms but not develop their own standards as non-native speakers of English.

Overall, Kanık (2010) concludes this discussion by stating that native-speaker norms should continue to be used as a language teaching model since learners of English have proved to be prone to reach native-like competence with the help of those pre-determined norms rather than forming their own non-native standards.

Keeping all these in mind, the primary aim of the present study is to identify whether native and non-native English instructors' production of the speech act set of apologies differs. In order to vary out proper analysis the following research questions are posed;

1. Are there differences between the native and non-native English teachers in the use of individual/overall apology strategies?

2. Are there differences between the native and non-native English teachers in the length of their apology speech acts?

3. Are there differences between the native and non-native English teachers in the number of strategies they use for each situation?

METHODOLOGY

1. Participants

Two groups of participants took part in the present study. The first group is composed of 20 non-native English teachers working in a state university in Turkey, whose mean age is 31,5 ranging from 25 to 59, whereas the second group includes 11 native American English teachers from differing countries, whose mean age is 37,7 ranging from 22 to 60.

2. Instruments

The instrument (Appendix) utilized for data collection is a Discourse Completion Test composed of 2 sections. The first section asks for biographic data about participants in order to ensure they match a specific target profile for the main purpose of the study. The second section consists of eight prompts requiring responses by offering an apology. These situations have been developed by Kanık (2010) based on the distribution of three sociopragmatic elements by Hudson et. al. (1995); namely power of the speaker, social distance between interlocutors, and the degree of imposition. The distribution of sociopragmatic variables among eight situations are demonstrated in Table 2:

Table 2.

The distribution of sociopragmatic variables

	Sit. 1	Sit. 2	Sit. 3	Sit. 4	Sit. 5	Sit. 6	Sit. 7	Sit. 8
Power	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-
Distance	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Imposition	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-

3. Data Analysis and Coding

After the data was collected, the responses of subjects were thoroughly analyzed by coding the strategies encountered in responses. The coding is carried out with another English instructor, who is also a native speaker of American English.

During the coding process, the coding guide developed by Kanık (2010) based on the major categorization of Hudson et. al (1995) is utilized. In this guide, alerters, strategies in head act, downgraders, and upgraders have been determined as the major categories; hence the same categorization is used for the analysis of gathered data. It is important to note that while developing this guide, Kanık (2010) has brought some strategies together as they appear to be similar. As a result, the category of alerters is composed of 6 strategies while head act category contains 27 strategies. Apart from that, 8 strategies in downgraders and 6 strategies in upgraders are present in this categorization. Overall, 47 strategies have been used for each situation, resulting in 376 strategies analyzed.

After the coding process, all data were entered into SPSS 20 in order to make comparisons between native and non-native groups. As most of the data is about the strategy use of participants; which is categorical, the chi-square test for independence has been administered. Furthermore, for the comparison of parametric data like the length of speech in number of words and the number of strategies used by the subjects, independent samples t-test analysis has been carried out.

FINDINGS

Situation 1: Damaged Documents

The sociopragmatic design of Situation 1 is; power:+, distance:+, imposition:+.

The strategies in head act are demonstrated in Table 3 as follows:

Table 3.

Situation 1 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	1	1	,189	1	,664
	1	10	19			
Afraid	0	11	20			
Apologize	0	9	19	1,340	1	,247
	1	2	1			
Forgive	0	11	20			
Excuse	0	11	20			
Account	0	8	16	,211	1	,646
	1	3	4			
Admission of facts	0	7	18	3,038	1	,81
	1	4	2			
Statement of facts	0	11	18	1,828	1	,176
	1	0	2			
Offer of repair	0	0	7	7,220	1	,007*
	1	11	13			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	20			
Minimizing Offense	0	11	19	,895	1	,344
	1	0	1			
Gratitude	0	9	20	4,400	1	,036*
	1	2	0			
Upgrading Offense	0	11	20			
Requests	0	8	19	3,010	1	,083
	1	3	1			
Accepting blame	0	11	18	1,828	1	,176
	1	0	2			
Embarrassment	0	10	19	,189	1	,664
	1	1	1			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	11	20			
Statement of Dismay	0	11	19	,895	1	,344
	1	0	1			
Regret	0	11	20			
Concern for Hearer	0	11	20			
Blaming victim	0	11	20			
Denial	0	11	20			
Distract with Humor	0	11	20			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			

Pardon	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

As Table 3 indicates, none of the participants used 13 strategies which are *Afraid, Forgive, Excuse, Promise of forbearance, Upgrading Offense, Justify Hearer, Lack of Intent, Regret, Concern for Hearer, Blaming victim, Denial, Distract with Humor, Atypical Action,* and *Pardon.* Among the others, only 2 of the strategies prove a statistically significant difference at 0, 05 significance level. The first strategy was *Offer of Repair*; all of the native speakers resort to this strategy whereas on 13 out of 20 non-native teachers used it for apologizing in Situation 1, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 7,220, p < .05$. The second statistically significant strategy was *Expressing Gratitude*. This strategy was used by none of the non-native teachers; however, out of 11 native teachers 2 of them proved to resort to this strategy $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 4,400, p < .05$. On the other hand, most of the other strategies were minimally used by both groups of participants, resulting in non-significant differences.

When the overall head act strategies are concerned, a statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was found, $\chi2(4, N = 31) = 15,371, p < .005$:

Table 4.

Situation 1 chi-square table for the overall distribution of head act strategies

Likelihood Ratio	15,371	4	,004

*significance level is .005

Apart from that, the analysis of <u>alerters</u> in Situation 1 is shown in Table 5 as follows:

Table 5.

Situation 1 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Surname	0	10	20	2,133	1	,144
	1	1	0			
Attention Getters	0	11	20			
First Name	0	11	19	,895	1	,344
	1	0	1			
Underdetermined Name	0	11	19	,895	1	,344
	1	0	1			
Title/Role	0	11	20			
Preparator	0	11	20			

Table 4 indicates that 3 out of six alerters were not employed at all by both groups of the participants. The ones that were utilized while apologizing were so minimally employed that no statistically significant difference was observed between responses native and non-native teachers of English. The next category is the <u>downgraders</u>, the analysis of which is shown in Table 6.

Table 6 indicates that only 3 strategies from downgraders were employed by both groups of participants; however, as the ratings are not so high, no statistically significant difference was observed with these strategies between native and non-native English teachers.

Table 6.

Situation 1 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	9	17	,052	1	,819
	1	2	3			
Subjectivizer	0	9	18	,407	1	,523
	1	2	2			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Appealer	0	11	20			
Pause Filler	0	11	20			
Understater	0	11	20			
Cajoler	0	11	20			
Surprise	0	10	20	2,133	1	,144
	1	1	0			

The last category analyzed is <u>upgraders</u> and the results are presented in Table 7: For Situation 1, upgraders were employed much more frequently than the other supportive moves. The most commonly used strategy was *intensifier*; out of 11 native teachers 10 and out of 20 non-native teachers 18 subjects utilized this strategy while apologizing. However, statistical analysis showed that these groups did not differ from each other in using this strategy. The rest of the strategies in this category were not resorted to as much frequently as the strategy of *intensifier*. Apart from that, only one of the strategies proved statistically significant differences between native and non-native groups, which is *expletive*. None of the native participants employed this strategy in Situation 1 whereas out of 20 subjects 5 non-native teachers used it while apologizing, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 4,989$, p < .05.

Table 7.

Situation 1 chi-square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	1	2	,007	1	,934
	1	10	18			
Emotional Expression	0	3	12	3,131	1	,077
	1	8	8			
Emphasis	0	5	12	,606	1	,436
	1	6	8			
Expletive	0	11	15	4,898	1	,027*
	1	0	5			
Lexical Uptoner	0	8	19	3,010	1	,083
	1	3	1			
Repetition	0	8	18	1,498	1	,221
	1	3	2			

*significance level is .05

When the overall distribution of strategies is concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was found, $\chi2(9, N = 31) = 13,448$, p > .05.

Finally, in order to investigate the length of apologies and the number of strategies utilized, independent samples t-test analysis was run and Table 8 demonstrates the findings of t-test analysis:

Table 8.

T-test Analyses for Situation 1

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	3,91	,701	29	4,373	,000*
	Non-Na	20	2,65	,875			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	,09	,302	29	-,067	,947
	Non-Na	20	,10	,447			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,45	,688	29	1,008	,047*
	Non-Na	20	,25	,444			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	2,73	1,555	29	1,084	,291
	Non-Na	20	2,10	1,518			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	3,27	2,149	29	1,066	,300
	Non-Na	20	2,45	1,877			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	7,18	2,562	29	2,253	,036*
	Non-Na	20	5,10	2,269			
Length	Ntiv	11	28,64	15,154	29	2,281	,037*
	Non-Na	20	16,70	11,411			

*significance level is .05

According to the t-test analysis, the mean values of the length of the responses by subjects are proved to be statistically significant. That is to say, the length of apologies presented by native American participants (M=28,64, SD=15,154) is significantly longer than those of non-native Turkish teachers (M=16,70, SD=11,411), $t(29) = 2,281, p = .037, p < .05$.

As for the mean values of the number of strategies used by the groups, significant differences occur in three values; *head acts, downgraders, and total number of strategies*. It is evident that native teachers (M=3,91, SD=,701) used more strategies of head acts than non-native teachers (M=2,65, SD=,875), resulting in a statistically significant difference between these two groups; $t(29) = 4,373, p = .000, p < .05$. In a similar vein, for the use of downgraders, a statistically significant difference was observed between native (M=,45, SD=0,688) and non-native teachers (M=,25, SD=,444), ; $t(29) = 1,008, p = .047, p < .05$. The final significant value is the total number of strategies. American teachers (M=7,18, SD=2,562), proved to employ significantly more strategies than Turkish teachers (M=5,10, SD=2,269), $t(29) = 2,281, p = .037, p < .05$. When it comes to the number of alerters and upgraders, these two groups did not differ.

To conclude, the analysis revealed that the most common strategies for Situation 1 are *sorry, offer of repair, intensifier, emotional expression,* and *emphasis* in both native and non-native groups. However, non-native subjects differ from native teachers in that they also employ the strategy of *expletive* while apologizing.

Situation 2: Car Accident

Sociopragmatic design of Situation 2 is; power:+, distance:-, imposition:+.

For situation 2, the strategies in head act are illustrated in Table 9 as follows:

Table 9.

Situation 2 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	3	6	,026	1	,606
	1	8	14			
Afraid	0	10	19	,189	1	,591
	1	1	1			
Apologize	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Forgive	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Excuse	0	11	20			
Account	0	5	16	3,811	1	,050*
	1	6	4			
Admission of facts	0	6	11	,001	1	,636
	1	5	9			
Statement of facts	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Offer of repair	0	2	2	,407	1	,447
	1	9	18			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Minimizing Offense	0	6	15	1,334	1	,423
	1	5	5			
Gratitude	0	11	20			
Distract	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Upgrading Offense	0	11	20			
Requests	0	11	20			
Accepting blame	0	8	18	1,498	1	,317
	1	3	2			
Embarrassment	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	7	19	5,031	1	,025*
	1	4	1			
Statement of Dismay	0	9	17	,052	1	,595
	1	2	3			
Regret	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Concern for Hearer	0	10	11	4,758	1	,029*
	1	1	9			
Blaming victim	0	11	20			
Denial	0	11	20			
Distract with Humor	0	10	19	,189	1	,591

	1	1	1			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			
Pardon	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

As Table 9 demonstrates, none of the subjects used 9 strategies which are E*xcuse, Gratitude, Upgrading Offense, Requests, Justify Hearer, Blaming victim, Denial, Atypical Action,* and *Pardon.* Among the others, only three of the strategies prove a statistically significant difference at 0,05 significance level. The first strategy was *Account of situation*; 6 out of 11 native speakers resort to this strategy whereas only 4 out of 20 non-native teachers used it for apologizing in Situation 2, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 3,811, p = .05$. The second statistically significant strategy was *Lack of Intent*. This strategy was employed by 4 out of 11 native teachers; however, out of 20 native teachers only one of them proved to resort to this strategy $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 5,031, p < .05$. The final statistically significant strategy was *Concern for Hearer*. 9 out of 20 non-native teachers employed that strategy in their responses while only 1 native teacher used it for apologizing. On the other hand, most of the other strategies were minimally used by both groups of subjects, resulting in non-significant differences.

When the overall head act strategies are concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was found, $\chi2(5, N = 31) = 5,582, p > .05$.

Apart from that, the analysis of alerters in Situation 2 is shown in Table 10. This table indicates that 3 out of six alerters were not utilized at all by both groups of participants. The ones that were employed while apologizing were so minimally employed that no statistically significant difference was observed between responses of native and non-native teachers of English. Only, first name strategy proved statistically significant differences between native and non-native teachers, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 5,031, p < .05$.

Table 10.

Situation 2 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Attention Getters	0	8	18	1,498	1	,317
	1	3	2			
Surname	0	11	20			
First Name	0	7	19	5,031	1	,025*
	1	4	1			
Preparator	0	6	12	,086	1	,532
	1	5	8			
Title/Role	0	11	20			
Underdetermined Name	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

When the overall distribution of alerters between groups was investigated, no statistically significant difference was revealed.

The next category is the downgraders, the analysis of which is shown in Table 11. This table illustrates that all of the strategies except *Hedge* and *Pause Fillers* were employed by both groups of participants; however, as the ratings were not so high, no statistically significant difference was observed with these strategies between native and non-native English teachers. Only with *Politeness Markers*, there is a statistically significant difference between native and

non-native teachers, $\chi^2(1, N = 31) = 4,898, p < .05$. Concerning the overall distribution of downgraders, no statistically significant difference proved to occur.

Table 11.

Situation 2 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	11	15	4,898	1	,027*
	1	0	5			
Subjectivizer	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Appealer	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Pause Filler	0	11	20			
Understater	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Cajoler	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Surprise	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			

*significance level is .05

The last category analyzed is <u>upgraders</u> and the results are presented in Table 12. For Situation 2, the most commonly used upgrader was *intensifier* in both groups; however, no statistically significant difference was observed with this strategy. For the other strategies, statistical analysis showed that these two groups did not differ from each other while apologizing as they did not employ these strategies frequently.

When the overall distribution of strategies is concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was found, $\chi^2(10, N = 31) = 15,487, p > .05$.

Table 12.

Situation 2 chi-square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	3	10	1,548	1	,275
	1	8	10			
Emotional Expression	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			
Emphasis	0	10	18	,007	1	,719
	1	1	2			
Expletive	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Lexical Uptoner	0	8	18	1,498	1	,317
	1	3	2			
Repetition	0	9	17	,052	1	,595
	1	2	3			

*significance level is .05

Finally, so as to examine the length of apologies and the number of strategies utilized, independent samples t-test analysis was conducted and Table 13 shows the findings of t-test analysis:

Table 13.

T-test Analyses for Situation 2

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	4,18	1,328	29	1,121	,277
	Non-Na	20	3,65	1,137			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	1,09	,701	29	1,886	,074
	Non-Na	20	,60	,681			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,27	,467	29	-,134	,894
	Non-Na	20	,30	,657			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	1,27	1,191	29	,614	,546
	Non-Na	20	1,00	1,170			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	2,55	1,916	29	,893	,382
	Non-Na	20	1,90	1,944			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	6,82	2,822	29	1,218	,238
	Non-Na	20	5,55	2,685			
Length	Ntiv	11	36,55	20,603	29	2,197	,035*
	Non-Na	20	23,765	12,240			

*significance level is .05

T-test analysis revealed that the mean values of the length of the responses by subjects are proved to be statistically significant. That is to say, the length of apologies presented by native American teachers (*M*=36,55, *SD*=20,603) is significantly longer than those of non-native Turkish teachers (*M*=23,765, *SD*=12,240), *t(29) = 2,197, p = .035, p < .05.*

Regarding the mean values of the number of strategies used by both of the groups, no significant differences occurred in any of the values. That is to say, native and non-native teachers did not differ from each other in strategies of *head acts, alerters, downgraders, upgraders, total number of supporters,* and *total number of strategies*.

To sum up, the overall investigation indicated that the most common strategies for Situation 2 are *sorry, account of situation, admission of fact, offer of repair, minimizing offence, and preparator* in both native and non-native groups. However, native participants differ from non-native teachers in that they also employ strategies of *lack of intent* and *first name* more frequently while apologizing in Situation 2.

Situation 3:Burning Customer's Hand

Sociopragmatic design of Situation 3 is; power:-, distance:+, imposition:+.

For Situation 3, the strategies in head act are illustrated in Table 14 as follows:

Table 14.

Situation 3 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	0	4	3,826	1	,050*
	1	11	16			
Afraid	0	11	20			
Apologize	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Forgive	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			
Excuse	0	11	20			
Account	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Admission of facts	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Statement of facts	0	10	10	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Offer of repair	0	2	5	,193	1	,516
	1	9	15			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	20			
Minimizing Offense	0	11	20			
Gratitude	0	11	20			
Distract	0	3	16	8,474	1	,004*
	1	8	4			
Upgrading Offense	0	10	19	,189	1	,591
	1	1	1			
Requests	0	11	20			
Accepting blame	0	11	14	6,028	1	,014*
	1	0	6			
Embarrassment	0	11	20			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Statement of Dismay	0	11	20			
Regret	0	11	20			
Concern for Hearer	0	2	13	6,614	1	,010*
	1	9	7			
Blaming victim	0	11	20			
Denial	0	11	20			
Distract with Humor	0	10	20			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			
Pardon	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

Table 14 shows that none of the subjects used 14 strategies which are *Afraid*, E*xcuse, Promise of Forbearance, Minimizing Offense, Gratitude, Requests, Embarrassment, Justify Hearer, Statement of Dismay, Blaming victim, Denial, Distract with Humor, Atypical Action,* and *Pardon.* Among the rest, only four of the strategies revealed a statistically significant difference at 0,05 significance level. The first strategy was *Sorry*; none of the native speakers resort to this strategy whereas only 4 out of 20 non-native teachers used it for apologizing in Situation 3, χ2(1, *N* = 31) = 3,826, *p* = .05. The second statistically significant strategy was *Distract with Humor*. This strategy was employed by 3 out of 11 native teachers; conversely, 16 out of 20 native teachers did not use this strategy in order to apologize for Situation 3, χ2(1, *N* = 31) = 8,474, *p* < .05. The next statistically significant strategy was *Accepting Blame*. All of the native teachers and 14 out of 20 non-native teachers employed this strategy for Situation 3, χ2(1, *N* = 31) = 6,028, *p* < .05. The final strategy which was statistically significant was *Concern for Hearer*. 7 out of 20 non-native teachers employed that strategy in their responses while 11 native teachers resorted to it for apologizing. On the other hand, most of the other strategies were minimally used by both groups of participants; therefore, non-significant differences were observed with those strategies.

Regarding the overall head act strategies, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was revealed, χ2(4, *N* = 31) = 8,976, *p* > .05.

In addition, the analysis of <u>alerters</u> in Situation 3 is illustrated in Table 15 as follows:

Table 15.

Situation 3 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Attention Getters	0	11	20			
Surname	0	11	20			
First Name	0	11	20			
Title/Role	0	9	14	,538	1	,676
	1	2	6			
Preparator	0	11	20			
Underdetermined Name	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

Table 15 demonstrates that only Title/Role strategy was employed by both groups of subjects; however, it was not proved to be statistically significant when these groups were compared. Also, as for the overall distribution of alerters between groups, no statistically significant difference was revealed.

The next strategy class is the <u>downgraders</u>, the analysis of which is demonstrated in Table 16. As Table 16 illustrates, only *Politeness Markers* and *Subjectivizer* were employed by both groups of participants. However, one of these strategies revealed statistically significant differences between the groups, which is *Politeness Markers,* χ2(1, *N* = 31) = 4,898, *p* < .05.

Concerning the overall distribution of downgraders, it became evident that native teachers' strategy use in terms of downgraders differs significantly from non-native teachers', χ2(1, *N* = 31) = 6,028, *p* = .014, p< ,05.

Table 16.

Situation 3 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	11	15	4,898	1	,027*
	1	0	5			
Subjectivizer	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Appealer	0	11	20			
Pause Filler	0	11	20			
Understater	0	10	20			
Cajoler	0	11	20			
Surprise	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

The last category analyzed is <u>upgraders</u> and the analysis is demonstrated in Table 17 as follows:

Table 17.

Situation 3 chi square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	1	6	1,981	1	,372
	1	10	14			
Emotional Expression	0	4	9	,219	1	,718
	1	7	11			
Emphasis	0	7	12	,040	1	,577
	1	4	8			
Expletive	0	5	15	2,673	1	,106
	1	6	5			
Lexical Uptoner	0	11	15	4,898	1	,027*
	1	0	5			
Repetition	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			

*significance level is .05

Similar to the other situations, upgraders were frequently used by both groups for Situation 3, as well. However, only *Lexical Uptoner* indicated statistically significant differences between native and non-native teachers, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 4,898$, $p = .027$, p< ,05. These groups did not show any significant difference for the rest of the strategies under upgrader category. Additionally, the overall distribution of all strategies under upgrader class did not present any statistically significant difference between native and non-native teachers, as well.

When the overall distribution of strategies is concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was proved, $\chi2(9, N = 31) = 6,319$, p > .05.

In conclusion, to be able to scrutinize the length of apologies and the number of strategies employed, independent samples t-test analysis was carried out and Table 18 shows the findings of t-test analysis:

Table 18.

T-test Analyses for Situation 3

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	3,55	,934	29	2,138	,039*
	Non-Na	20	2,75	1,020			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	,18	,405	29	-,702	,470
	Non-Na	20	,30	,470			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,00	,000	29	-2,100	,000*
	Non-Na	20	,30	,470			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	2,55	1,440	29	,654	,499
	Non-Na	20	2,15	1,694			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	2,73	1,489	29	-,034	,971
	Non-Na	20	2,75	1,943			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	6,27	2,240	29	,868	,383
	Non-Na	20	5,50	2,439			
Length	Ntiv	11	29,45	12,291	29	2,260	,035*
	Non-Na	20	19,05	12,249			

*significance level is .05

Independent samples t-test analysis demonstrated that the mean values of the length of the responses by subjects are proved to be statistically significant. That is to say, the length of apologies of native American participants (*M*=29,45, *SD*=12,291) is significantly longer than those of non-native Turkish subjects (*M*=19,05, *SD*=12,249), *t(29)* = 2,260, *p* = .035, *p* < .05.

Regarding the mean values of number of strategies used by both of the groups, head acts and downgraders were found to be statistically significant. Native teacher (*M*=3,55, *SD*=,934) differed significantly from non-native teachers (*M*=2,75, *SD*=1,020) in terms of strategy use of head acts, *t(29)* = 2,138, *p* = .039, *p* < .05. In a similar vein, mean values of native (*M*=,000, *SD*=,000) and non-native (*M*=,30, *SD*=,470) subjects indicated statistically significant differences with respect to use of downgraders, *t(29)* = -2,210, *p* = .000, *p* < .05.

All in all, the examination of strategies presented that the most common strategies for Situation 3 are *sorry, offer of repair, distract, concern for hearer, emotional expression, intensifier and expletive* in both native and non-native groups. However, non- native participants differ from native teachers in that they also employ the strategy of *title/role* and *lexical uptoner* more frequently while apologizing in Situation 3.

Situation 4: The Wrong Signature

Sociopragmatic design of Situation 4 is; power:-, distance:-, imposition:+.

For Situation 4; the strategies in head act are illustrated in Table 19 as follows:

Table 19.

Situation 4 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	9	11	2,368	1	,241
	1	2	9			
Afraid	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			
Apologize	0	9	18	,407	1	,601
	1	2	2			
Forgive	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Excuse	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Account	0	6	8	,606	1	,477
	1	5	12			
Admission of facts	0	6	16	2,177	1	,217
	1	5	4			
Statement of facts	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Offer of repair	0	6	16	2,177	1	,217
	1	5	4			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Minimizing Offense	0	11	20			
Gratitude	0	11	20			
Distract	0	11	17	2,804	1	,535
	1	0	3			
Upgrading Offense	0	11	20			
Requests	0	11	20			
Accepting blame	0	11	17	2,804	1	,535
	1	0	3			
Embarrassment	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	8	18	1,498	1	,317
	1	3	2			
Statement of Dismay	0	7	11	,219	1	,718
	1	4	9			
Regret	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			
Concern for Hearer	0	11	20			
Blaming victim	0	11	20			
Denial	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Distract with Humor	0	10	20			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			
Pardon	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

Table 19 shows that none of the subjects used 10 strategies which are *Minimizing Offence, Upgrading Offense, Requests, Justify Hearer, Concern for Hearer, Blaming victim, Distract with humor, Atypical Action* and *Pardon.* Among the others, none of the strategies proves a statistically significant difference at 0,05 significance level, which is because these strategies were minimally used by both native and non-native subjects.

When the overall head act strategies are concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was found, $\chi 2(4, N = 31) = 6,071, p > .05$.

Furthermore, the analysis of alerters in Situation 4 is demonstrated in Table 20. This table reveals that *First Name* and *Underdetermined Name* are the strategies that were not employed by any of the participants in both groups. Among the others, the only strategy *Preparator* presented statistically significant differences between native and non-native teachers, $\chi 2(1, N = 31) = 10,525$, $p= ,001$. The rest of the strategies were so minimally employed by the participants that no statistically significant difference was found.

When the overall distribution of alerters between groups was examined, the analysis revealed a statistically significant difference between native and non-native teachers, $\chi 2(3, N = 31) = 12,267$, $p< ,01$.

Table 20.
Situation 4 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Attention Getters	0	7	18	3,038	1	,151
	1	4	2			
Surname	0	10	18	,007	1	,719
	1	1	2			
First Name	0	11	20			
Preparator	0	3	17	10,525	1	,001*
	1	8	3			
Title/Role	0	7	17	1,789	1	,210
	1	4	3			
Underdetermined Name	0	11	20			

*significance level is .001

The next category is the downgraders, analysis of which is shown in Table 21 as follows:

Table 21.
Situation 4 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	10	13	,231	1	,553
	1	1	7			
Subjectivizer	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Appealer	0	11	20			
Pause Filler	0	11	20			
Understater	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Cajoler	0	11	20			
Surprise	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			

*significance level is .05

Table 21 illustrates that strategies of *Hedge, Appealer, Cajoler,* and *Pause Fillers* were not employed by any of the participants. Regarding the other strategies utilized, as the ratings are not so high, no statistically significant difference was observed with these strategies between native and non-native English teachers.

As for the overall distribution of downgraders, no statistically significant difference between the two groups was found out.

The final category examined is underlined upgraders and the findings are demonstrated in Table 22 as follows:

Table 22.

Situation 4 chi-square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	8	12	,513	1	,698
	1	3	8			
Emotional Expression	0	11	20			
Emphasis	0	11	17	2,804	1	,094
	1	0	3			
Expletive	0	11	20			
Lexical Uptoner	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Repetition	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

For Situation 4, the most commonly used upgrader was *intensifier* in both groups; however, the ratings were not as high as the previous situations, which results in the fact that no statistically significant difference was observed with this strategy. As for the other strategies, *Emotional Expression, Expletive* and *Repetition* were not employed at all. The rest did not prove any statistically significant difference between native and non-native teachers as the number of strategies used was not high. Moreover, the overall analysis of upgraders did not reveal any statistically significant difference, as well.

When the overall distribution of strategies with respect to Situation 4 is concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was indicated, $\chi 2(6, N = 31) = 2,313$, $p > .05$.

Finally, in order to investigate the length of apologies and the number of strategies utilized, independent samples t-test analysis was conducted and Table 23 shows the findings of t-test analysis:

Table 23.

T-test Analyses for Situation 4

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	2,45	1,293	29	-1,014	,379
	Non-Na	20	2,85	,875			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	1,55	,820	29	3,218	,003*
	Non-Na	20	,50	,889			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,18	,405	29	-,360	,697
	Non-Na	20	,25	,550			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	,36	,674	29	-,789	,455
	Non-Na	20	,55	,605			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	2,09	1,300	29	1,770	,107
	Non-Na	20	1,30	1,129			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	4,55	1,368	29	,737	,460
	Non-Na	20	4,15	1,461			
Length	Ntiv	11	35,82	13,288	29	2,764	,013*
	Non-Na	20	22,35	12,820			

*significance level is .05

According to the independent samples t-test analysis, the mean values of the length of the responses by participants are proved to be statistically significant. That is to say, the length of apologies presented by native American teachers (*M=35,82, SD=13,288*) is significantly longer than those of non-native Turkish teachers (*M=22,35, SD=12,820*), *t(29) = 2,764, p = .013, p < .05.*

Concerning the mean values of the number of strategies used by both of the groups, no significant differences occurred in any of the values, except *alerters*. This means that native and non-native teachers did not differ from each other in strategies of *head acts, downgraders, upgraders, total number of supporters,* and *total number of strategies.* However, regarding *alerter*, mean values of non-native teachers (*M=,50, SD=,889*) significantly differed from mean values of native teachers (*M=1,55, SD=,820*), *t(29) = 3,218, p = .003, p < .05.*

In conclusion, the overall investigation presented that the most common strategies used by non-native teachers are *sorry, account of situation, politeness markers,* and *intensifier* whereas native participants most commonly employed *account of situation* and *preparator* while apologizing in Situation 4.

Situation: 5: Running Late

Sociopragmatic design of Situation 2 is; power:+, distance:+, imposition:-.

For situation 5, the strategies in head act are shown in Table 24 as follows:

Table 24.

Situation 5 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	4	3	1,789	1	,210
	1	7	17			
Afraid	0	11	20			
Apologize	0	7	20	9,421	1	,002*
	1	4	0			
Forgive	0	9	18	,407	1	,601
	1	2	2			
Excuse	0	11	20			
Account	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Admission of facts	0	11	20			
Statement of facts	0	4	3	1,789	1	,210
	1	7	17			
Offer of repair	0	11	20			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	20			
Minimizing Offense	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Gratitude	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Distract	0	6	13	,325	1	,705
	1	5	7			
Upgrading Offense	0	11	20			
Requests	0	11	20			
Accepting blame	0	11	20			
Embarrassment	0	10	20			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Statement of Dismay	0	11	20			
Regret	0	11	20			
Concern for Hearer	0	8	14	0,26	1	,606
	1	3	6			
Blaming victim	0	11	20			
Denial	0	11	20			
Distract with Humor	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			
Pardon	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

According to Table 24 none of the subjects employed 15 strategies which are *Afraid, Excuse, Admission of Facts, Offer of Repair, Promise of Forbearance, Upgrading Offense, Requests, Accepting blame, Embarrassment, Justify Hearer, Statement of Dismay, Regret, Blaming victim, Denial, Atypical Action,* and *Pardon.* Among the rest, only one of the strategies proves statistically significant difference at 0,05 significance level, which is *Apologize.* 4 out of 11 participants from the native group employed this strategy whereas none of the non-native teachers resorted to *Apologize* in Situation 5, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 9,421, p = .002$. All the other strategies were minimally used by both groups of subjects, which indicates non-significant differences.

When the overall head act strategies are concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was found, $\chi2(5, N = 31) = 8,019, p > .05$.

In addition, the analysis of <u>alerters</u> in Situation 5 is presented Table 25. This table indicates that 2 out of six alerters were not employed at all by both groups of the participants. The strategies that were employed while apologizing were so minimally employed that no statistically significant difference was observed between responses native and non-native teachers of English. However, strategies of *Attention Getters* and *Underdetermined Name* indicated statistically significant difference between the target groups, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 10,019, p < .05; \chi2(1, N = 31) = 4,400, p < .05$ respectively.

What is more, when the overall distribution of alerters between groups was investigated, they proved to significantly differ from each other. $\chi2(2, N = 31) = 6,181, p < .05$.

Table 25.

Situation 5 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Attention Getters	0	5	19	10,019	1	,002*
	1	6	1			
First Name	0	11	20			
Surname	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			
Preparator	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Title/Role	0	11	20			
Underdetermined Name	0	9	20	4,400	1	,036*
	1	2	0			

*significance level is .05

<u>Downgrader</u> is the next category, analysis of which is shown in Table 26 as follows:

Table 26.

Situation 5 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	8	18	1,498	1	,317
	1	3	2			
Subjectivizer	0	9	17	,052	1	,595
	1	2	3			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Pause Filler	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Appealer	0	11	20			
Understater	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Cajoler	0	11	15	4,898	1	,027*
	1	0	5			
Surprise	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

Table 26 demonstrates that all of the strategies except *Hedge* and *Pause Surprise* were employed by both groups of participants; however, as the ratings are not so high, no statistically significant difference was observed with these strategies between native and non-native English teachers. Only with *Cajoler*, there is a statistically significant difference between native and non-native teachers, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 4,898, p < .05$.

Concerning the overall distribution of downgraders, no statistically significant difference proved to occur.

The last category analyzed is <u>upgraders</u> and the results are presented in Table 27 as follows:

Table 27.

Situation 5 chi-square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	3	15	6,781	1	,009*
	1	8	5			
Emotional Expression	0	11	18			
Emphasis	0	10	18			
Expletive	0	11	19			
Lexical Uptoner	0	8	18			
Repetition	0	8	19	3,010	1	,083
	1	3	1			

*significance level is .01

For Situation 5, *intensifier* was the most commonly employed strategy in both groups. 8 out of 11 native teachers and 5 out of 20 non-native teachers responded by using this strategy, which indicated statistically significant differences between the target groups, $\chi2(1, N = 31)$

= 6,781, p > .01. Regarding the rest of the strategies, only repetition was used by 3 native and just 1 non-native teachers. The others were not employed at all.

When the distribution of all upgraders is concerned, native teachers significantly differed from non-native teachers in their use of upgraders, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 9,322, p = .009$.

As for the overall analysis of all 4 categories of strategies, a statistically significant difference between American and Turkish teachers was observed, $\chi2(7, N = 31) = 16,614, p = .020$. That is to say, native teachers employ more different strategies than non-native teachers in situations like Situation 5 while providing apologies.

Finally, to be able to scrutinize the length of apologies and the number of strategies utilized, independent samples t-test analysis was run and Table 28 reveals the findings of t-test analysis:

Table 28.
T-test Analyses for Situation 5

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	2,91	1,300	29	1,200	,343
	Non-Na	20	2,50	,607			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	,73	,786	29	2,470	,005*
	Non-Na	20	,20	,410			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,55	,688	29	-,016	,987
	Non-Na	20	,55	,759			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	1,00	,775	29	3,144	,016*
	Non-Na	20	,30	,470			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	2,27	1,618	29	2,671	,038*
	Non-Na	20	1,05	,945			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	5,18	1,991	29	2,827	,027*
	Non-Na	20	3,55	1,234			
Length	Ntiv	11	22,00	8,591	29	1,926	,072
	Non-Na	20	15,95	8,249			

*significance level is .05

T-test analysis revealed that the mean values of the apologies by participants were found not to be statistically significant, which is totally different from the previous four situations. As for the number of individual strategies, *alerters, upgrader, total number of supportive* and *total number of strategies* presented statistically significant differences between native and non-native teachers. More specifically, the mean values of number of alerters by American teachers (*M=,73, SD=,786*) significantly differed from the alerters by Turkish teachers (*M=,20, SD=,410*), *t(29) = 2,470, p = .005, p < .05*. Likewise, the mean values of upgraders employed by native teachers (*M=1,00, SD=,775*) significantly differed from the ones by non-native teachers (*M=,30, SD=,470*), *t(29) = 3,144, p = .016, p < .05*. When the overall supportives were analyzed, again statistically significant differences were found out between mean scores of American (*M=2,27, SD=1,618*) and Turkish teachers (*M=1,05, SD=,945*), *t(29) = 2,671, p = .038, p < .05*. Finally, the total number of strategies also revealed significant results between native (*M=5,18, SD=1,991*) and non-native participants (*M=3,55, SD=1,234*), *t(29) = 2,287, p = .027, p < .05*. That is to say, American teachers significantly employ much more strategies for Situation 5-like cases than Turkish teachers while presenting their apologies.

In conclusion, the overall investigation indicated that the most common strategies employed by both of the target groups are *sorry, statement of facts,* and *distract*. In addition to these,

American teachers resort to strategies of intensifiers and *attention getters* whereas Turkish teachers use *concern for hearer* strategy for Situation 5.

Situation: 6: Knocking over a Vase and a Picture

Sociopragmatic design of Situation 2 is; power:+, distance:-, imposition:-.

For situation 6, the strategies in head act are illustrated in Table 29 as follows:

Table 29.
Situation 6 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	0	8	8,483	1	,004*
	1	11	12			
Afraid	0	10	20			
Apologize	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Forgive	0	11	20			
Excuse	0	11	20			
Account	0	11	20			
Admission of facts	0	11	20			
Statement of facts	0	11	20			
Offer of repair	0	8	18	1,498	1	,317
	1	3	2			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Gratitude	0	8	19	3,010	1	,083
	1	3	1			
Minimizing Offense	0	11	20			
Distract	0	9	8	5,333	1	,021*
	1	2	12			
Upgrading Offense	0	11	20			
Requests	0	11	20			
Accepting blame	0	7	15	,437	1	,683
	1	4	5			
Embarrassment	0	11	20			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	11	20			
Statement of Dismay	0	11	20			
Regret	0	11	20			
Concern for Hearer	0	11	20			
Blaming victim	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Denial	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Distract with Humor	0	10	16	,674	1	,631
	1	1	4			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			
Pardon	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			

*significance level is .05

As Table 29 demonstrates, none of the subjects used 16 strategies which are *Afraid, Forgive, Excuse, Account of Situation, Admission of Facts, Statements of Facts, Minimizing Offense, Upgrading Offense, Requests, Embarrassment, Justify Hearer, Lack of Intent, Statement of Dismay, Concern for Hearer, Regret and Atypical Action.* Among the others, only two of the strategies prove a statistically significant difference at 0,05 significance level. The first strategy was *Sorry*; all of the native speakers resort to this strategy whereas 12 out of 20 non-native teachers used it for apologizing in Situation 6, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 8,483, p = .004$. The second statistically significant strategy was *Distract*. This strategy was employed by only 2 out of 11 native teachers; however, out of 20 native teachers 12 of them employed this strategy $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 5,333, p < .05$. On the other hand, the rest of the strategies were minimally used by both groups of subjects; therefore, no statistically significant difference was found out between native and non-native teachers with respect to these strategies.

When the overall head act strategies are concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was found.

Furthermore, the analysis of <u>alerters</u> in Situation 6 is illustrated in Table 30. This table indicates that only 2 out of six strategies were employed by the groups and only one of them indicated statistically significant differences between native and non-native teachers, which is *Underdetermined Name.* Turkish teachers differed significantly from American teachers in their use of this strategy, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 6,821, p < .05$.

When the overall distribution of alerters between groups was investigated, no statistically significant difference was observed.

Table 30.

Situation 6 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Attention Getters	0	8	18			
Surname	0	11	20			
First Name	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Preparator	0	6	12			
Title/Role	0	11	20			
Underdetermined Name	0	8	20	6,821	1	,009*
	1	3	0			

*significance level is .05

The next category is the <u>downgraders</u>, the analysis of which is shown in Table 31. This table illustrates that *subjectivizer, appealer,* and *understater* are the strategies employed by both groups of participants in Situation 6. However, as they are minimally used by the participants, no statistically significant difference between groups was observed.

Concerning the overall distribution of downgraders, no statistically significant difference was found to occur.

Table 31.

Situation 6 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	11	20			
Subjectivizer	0	9	18	,407	1	,601
	1	2	2			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Appealer	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Pause Filler	0	11	20			
Understater	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Cajoler	0	11	20			
Surprise	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

The last category analyzed is <u>upgraders</u> and the results are presented in Table 32. For Situation 6, the most commonly used upgrader was *intensifier* in both groups; however, no statistically significant difference was observed with this strategy. For the other strategies, statistical analysis showed that these two groups did not differ from each other while apologizing as they did not employ these strategies frequently. However, strangely the distribution of strategies under upgraders category was found out to be statistically significant, , $\chi^2(5, N = 31) = 11,706, p > .05$.

Table 32.

Situation 6 chi-square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	5	15	2,673	1	,132
	1	6	5			
Emotional Expression	0	4	8	,040	1	,577
	1	7	12			
Emphasis	0	9	14	,538	1	,676
	1	2	6			
Expletive	0	6	12	,086	1	,532
	1	5	8			
Lexical Uptoner	0	11	20			
Repetition	0	10	19	,189	1	,591
	1	1	1			

*significance level is .05

When the overall distribution of strategies is concerned, a statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was revealed, $\chi^2(6, N = 31) = 14,718, p=.023, p<,05$.

Finally, in order to investigate the length of apologies and the number of strategies utilized, independent samples t-test analysis was conducted and Table 33 shows the findings of t-test analysis.

T-test analysis revealed that the mean values of the length of the responses by subjects are proved not to be statistically significant. Regarding the mean values of number of strategies used by both of the groups, only with *alerters* and *downgraders* a statistically significant difference was observed. More specifically, American teachers (*M*=,27, *SD*=,467) significantly differed from Turkish teachers (*M*=,05, *SD*=,224) in their use of *alerters* for Situation 6, *t(29) = 1,806, p = .000, p < .05*. In a similar vein, there is a statistically significant difference between native (*M*=,27, *SD*=,467) and non-native participants (*M*=,10, *SD*=,308) in their use of strategy of downgraders while apologizing in Situation 6, *t(29) = 1,242, p = .020, p < .05*.

Table 33.

T-test Analyses for Situation 6

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	2,18	,874	29	,216	,820
	Non-Na	20	2,10	1,071			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	,27	,467	29	1,806	,000*
	Non-Na	20	,05	,224			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,27	,467	29	1,242	,020*
	Non-Na	20	,10	,308			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	1,91	1,136	29	,671	,459
	Non-Na	20	1,60	1,273			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	2,45	1,293	29	1,483	,158
	Non-Na	20	1,75	1,251			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	4,64	1,567	29	1,182	,225
	Non-Na	20	3,85	1,872			
Length	Ntiv	11	14,55	7,738	29	,990	,349
	Non-Na	20	11,85	6,983			

*significance level is .05

To sum up, the overall investigation indicated that the most common strategies used by both native and non-native teachers for Situation 6 are *sorry, accepting blame,* and *intensifier*. Native participants also employed *underdetermined name* whereas non-native subjects utilized *emphasis* and *expletives* as well as the previously mentioned strategies.

Situation: 7: Dropping Books

Sociopragmatic design of Situation 7 is; power:-, distance:+, imposition:-.

For situation 7, the strategies in head act are illustrated in Table 34 as follows:

Table 34.

Situation 7 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	2	5	,193	1	,516
	1	9	15			
Afraid	0	11	20			
Apologize	0	10	18	,007	1	,719
	1	1	2			
Forgive	0	9	20	4,400	1	,036*
	1	2	0			
Excuse	0	11	20			
Account	0	11	20			
Admission of facts	0	11	20			
Statement of facts	0	11	20			
Offer of repair	0	8	8	3,131	1	,077
	1	3	12			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	20			
Minimizing Offense	0	11	20			
Gratitude	0	11	20			
Distract	0	4	7	,006	1	,619
	1	7	13			
Upgrading Offense	0	11	20			
Requests	0	11	20			
Accepting blame	0	5	17	5,285	1	,022*
	1	6	3			
Embarrassment	0	11	20			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Statement of Dismay	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Regret	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Concern for Hearer	0	9	20	4,400	1	,036*
	1	2	0			
Blaming victim	0	11	20			
Denial	0	11	20			
Distract with Humor	0	8	20	6,821	1	,009*
	1	3	0			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			
Pardon	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			

*significance level is .05

As Table 34 demonstrates, none of the subjects used 15 strategies which are *Afraid, Excuse, Account of Situation, Admission of Facts, Statements of Facts, Minimizing Offense, Gratitude, Upgrading Offense, Requests, Embarrassment, Justify Hearer, Blaming Victim, Denial and Atypical Action.* Among the other strategies, only four of them, which are *Forgive, Accepting Blame, Concern for Hearer, and Distract with Humor,* indicated a statistically significant difference at 0,05 significance level. Regarding the strategy of *forgive*, none of the non-native teachers employed it but two of the native teachers out of 11 responded by using this strategy in Situation 7, resulting in statistically significant differences, $\chi 2(1, N = 31) = 4,400, p = .036$. The second statistically significant strategy was *Accepting Blame*. This strategy was employed by 6 out of 11 native teachers; however, out of 20 native teachers three of them proved to resort to this strategy, $\chi 2(1, N = 31) = 5,285, p < .05$. Another strategy proved to be statistically significant was *Concern for Hearer*. 2 out of 11 American teachers employed this strategy but no Turkish teachers used it in Situation 7, $\chi 2(1, N = 31) = 4,400, p\ 0\ .036$. The final statistically significant strategy was *Distract with Humor*. 3 out of 20 native teachers employed that strategy in their responses while no non-native teacher used it for apologizing. On the other hand, as most of the other strategies were minimally used by both groups of subjects, no statistically significant difference was observed.

When the overall head act strategies are concerned, no statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was revealed.

Table 35.

Situation 7 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Attention Getters	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
First Name	0	11	20			
Surname	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Title/Role	0	11	18	1,828	1	,527
	1	0	2			
Preparator	0	11	20			
Underdetermined Name	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

In addition, the analysis of <u>alerters</u> in Situation 7 is illustrated in Table 35. This table indicates that 3 out of six alerters were not utilized at all by both groups of participants. The ones that were employed while apologizing were so minimally employed that no statistically significant difference was observed between responses of native and non-native teachers of English.

When the overall distribution of alerters between groups was investigated, no statistically significant difference was revealed.

The next category is the <u>downgraders</u>, the analysis of which is shown in Table 36. This table illustrates that *Politeness Markers, Subjectivizer, Understater,* and *Cajoler* were the strategies used by both of the participant groups and the rest of the strategies under downgrader category were not employed in Situation 7 at all. However, as the ratings were not so high, no

statistically significant difference was observed with these strategies between native and non-native English teachers.

Table 36.

Situation 7 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	10	19	,189	1	,591
	1	1	1			
Subjectivizer	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Appealer	0	10	20			
Pause Filler	0	11	20			
Understater	0	9	15	,193	1	,516
	1	2	5			
Cajoler	0	11	17	2,804	1	,254
	1	0	3			
Surprise	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

Concerning the overall distribution of downgraders, no statistically significant difference proved to occur.

Upgrader is the last category investigated and the results are presented in Table 37. For Situation 7, the most commonly used upgrader was *emotional expression* and the second most commonly employed strategy was *intensifier* in both groups; however, no statistically significant difference was observed with this strategy. For the other strategies, statistical analysis showed that these two groups did not differ from each other while apologizing as they did not employ these strategies frequently.

Table 37.

Situation 7 chi-square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	6	14	,731	1	,452
	1	5	6			
Emotional Expression	0	5	13	1,109	1	,449
	1	6	7			
Emphasis	0	8	19	3,010	1	,115
	1	3	1			
Expletive	0	10	19	,189	1	,591
	1	1	1			
Lexical Uptoner	0	10	18	,007	1	,719
	1	1	2			
Repetition	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			

*significance level is .05

Regarding the overall distribution of upgraders, the analysis revealed non-significant differences between American and Turkish teachers.

When the overall distribution of strategies is concerned, no statistically significant difference between two groups was found, $\chi2(7, N = 31) = 12, 402, p > .05$.

Finally, to examine the length of apologies and the number of strategies utilized, independent samples t-test analysis was conducted and Table 39 shows the findings of t-test analysis:

Table 38.

T-test Analyses for Situation 7

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	2,91	1,300	29	1,039	,366
	Non-Na	20	2,50	,889			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	,09	,302	29	-,456	,633
	Non-Na	20	,15	,366			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,18	,405	29	-1,400	,010*
	Non-Na	20	,50	,688			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	1,45	1,368	29	1,316	,252
	Non-Na	20	,90	,968			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	1,73	1,421	29	,356	,734
	Non-Na	20	1,55	1,276			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	4,64	2,11	29	,827	,444
	Non-Na	20	4,05	1,76			
Length	Ntiv	11	15,18	9,11	29	,630	,569
	Non-Na	20	13,35	6,91			

*significance level is .05

Independent samples t-test analysis revealed that the mean values of the length of the responses by subjects are proved not to be statistically significant. That is to say, the length of apologies presented by native American teachers is not significantly much longer than those of non-native Turkish teachers. Concerning the mean values of number of strategies used by both of the groups, no significant differences occurred in any of the values, except downgraders. That is to say, native and non-native teachers did not differ from each other in strategies of *head acts, alerters, upgraders, total number of supporters* and *total number of strategies*. As for *downgraders*, native American teachers (M=,18, SD=,405) differ from non-native Turkish teachers (M=,50, SD=,688) in their use of this strategy in Situation 7, t(29) = -1,400, p = .010, p < .05.

To sum up, the overall investigation indicated that the most common strategies used for Situation 7 are *sorry, distract, emotional expression,* and *intensifier* in both native and non-native groups. However, non-native participants differ from native teachers in that they also employ strategies of *offer of repair* and *understater* much more frequently while apologizing in Situation 7. Instead of these strategies, native teachers use *accepting blame.*

Situation: 8: Keeping a Customer Waiting

Sociopragmatic design of Situation 2 is; power:-, distance:-, imposition:-.

For situation 8, the strategies in head act are illustrated in Table 39 as follows:

Table 39.

Situation 8 chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Sorry	0	3	6	,026	1	,606
	1	8	14			
Afraid	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			
Apologize	0	10	19	,189	1	,591
	1	1	1			
Forgive	0	11	20			
Excuse	0	11	20			
Account	0	11	20			
Admission of facts	0	11	20			
Statement of facts	0	2	4	,015	1	,646
	1	9	16			
Offer of repair	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Promise of forbearance	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Gratitude	0	6	20	12,234	1	,000*
	1	5	0			
Minimizing Offense	0	11	20			
Distract	0	4	15	4,467	1	,035*
	1	7	5			
Upgrading Offense	0	11	20			
Accepting blame	0	11	20			
Request	0	11	15	4,898	1	,027*
	1	0	5			
Embarrassment	0	11	20			
Justify Hearer	0	11	20			
Lack of Intent	0	7	20			
Statement of Dismay	0	11	20			
Regret	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Concern for Hearer	0	10	18	,007	1	,719
	1	1	2			
Blaming victim	0	11	20			
Denial	0	11	20			
Distract with Humor	0	10	20			
Atypical Action	0	11	20			
Pardon	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			

*significance level is .05

Table 39 illustrates that none of the subjects used 5 strategies which are *Forgive, Excuse, Account, Admission of Facts, Minimizing Offense, Upgrading Offense, Accepting Blame, Embarrassment, Justify Hearer, Lack of Intent, Statement of Dismay, Blaming victim, Denial, Distract with Humor* and *Atypical Action.* Among the others, only three of the strategies prove a statistically significant difference at 0,05 significance level. The first strategy was *Gratitude*; 5 out of 11 native speakers resort to this strategy whereas none of the non-native teachers used it for apologizing in Situation 8, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 312,234, p = .000$. The second statistically significant strategy was *Distract*. This strategy was employed by 7 out of 11 native teachers; however, out of 20 native teachers 5 of them proved to resort to this strategy $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 4,467, p < .05$. The final statistically significant strategy was *Request*. 5 out of 20 non-native teachers employed that strategy in their responses while only none of the native teachers used it for apologizing. On the other hand, most of the other strategies were minimally used by both groups of subjects, resulting in non-significant differences.

When the overall head act strategies are concerned, a statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was observed, $\chi2(3, N = 31) = 15,371, p = .002, p < .05$. That is to say, native teachers differ significantly from non-native teachers in their use of all head act strategies in Situation 8.

Apart from that, the analysis of alerters in Situation 8 is demonstrated in Table 40. This table indicates that 3 out of six alerters were not utilized at all by both groups of participants. The ones that were employed while apologizing were so minimally employed that no statistically significant difference was observed between responses of native and non-native teachers of English. Nevertheless, just the strategy of *underdetermined name* proved statistically significant differences between native and non-native teachers, $\chi2(1, N = 31) = 6,821, p = .009$.

Table 40.

Situation 8 chi-square table for alerters

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Attention Getters	0	10	19	,189	1	,591
	1	1	1			
First Name	0	11	20			
Surname	0	11	17	2,804	1	,254
	1	0	3			
Underdetermined Name	0	8	20	6,821	1	,009*
	1	3	0			
Title/Role	0	11	20			
Preparator	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

When the overall distribution of alerters between groups was investigated, no statistically significant difference was revealed.

The next category is the downgraders, th eanalysis of which is shown in Table 41. This table illustrates that only strategies of politeness markers, subjectivizer, and cajoler were employed by both groups of participants in their responses to Situation 8. The rest of the strategies were

not used at all. Among the utilized strategies, only subjectivizer indicated a statistically significant difference between American and Turkish teachers, $\chi 2(1, N = 31) = 4{,}400$, $p < .05$.

Concerning the overall distribution of downgraders, no statistically significant difference proved to occur.

Table 41.

Situation 8 chi-square table for downgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Politeness Markers	0	10	17	,231	1	,553
	1	1	3			
Subjectivizer	0	9	20	4,400	1	,036*
	1	2	0			
Hedge	0	11	20			
Appealer	0	11	20			
Pause Filler	0	11	20			
Understater	0	10	20			
Cajoler	0	11	19	,895	1	,645
	1	0	1			
Surprise	0	11	20			

*significance level is .05

The last category analyzed is <u>upgraders</u> and the results are presented in Table 42. For Situation 8, the most commonly used upgrader was *lexical uptoner* for non-native teachers and *intensifier* for native teachers; however, no statistically significant difference was observed with this strategy. Not the strategy of intensifier but lexical uptoner revealed statistically significant differences between the target groups, $\chi 2(6, N = 31) = 3{,}826$, $p = 0{,}50$. For the other strategies, statistical analysis showed that these two groups did not differ from each other while apologizing as they did not employ these strategies frequently.

As for the overall analysis of upgraders; no statistically significant difference was observed between native and non-native teachers in terms of the use of upgraders in Situation 8.

Table 42.

Situation 8 chi-square table for upgraders

		Nat.	Non-N.	Chi-Sq.	df	Sig.
Intensifier	0	8	18	1,4998	1	,317
	1	3	2			
Emotional Expression	0	11	18			
Emphasis	0	10	18			
Expletive	0	11	19			
Lexical Uptoner	0	11	16	3,826	1	,050*
	1	0	4			
Repetition	0	10	20	2,133	1	,355
	1	1	0			

*significance level is .05

When the overall distribution of strategies is concerned, a statistically significant difference between native and non-native groups was revealed, $\chi2(6, N = 31) = 15,210, p= 0,19, p < .05$.

Finally, in order to investigate the length of apologies and the number of strategies utilized, independent samples t-test analysis was run and Table 43 indicates the findings of t-test analysis. T-test analysis revealed that the mean values of the length of the responses by subjects are proved not to be statistically significant. That is to say, the length of apologies presented by native American teachers is not significantly longer than those of non-native Turkish teachers. Regarding the mean values of number of strategies used by both of the groups, no significant differences occurred in any of the values. That is to say, native and non-native teachers did not differ from each other in strategies of *head acts, alerters, downgraders, upgraders, total number of supporters,* and *total number of strategies*.

Table 43.

T-test Analyses for Situation 8

Head Acts	Ntiv	11	2,91	1,044	29	1,818	,130
	Non-Na	20	2,35	,671			
Alerters	Ntiv	11	,36	,505	29	,979	,370
	Non-Na	20	,20	,410			
Downgraders	Ntiv	11	,27	,467	29	,384	,695
	Non-Na	20	,20	,523			
Upgraders	Ntiv	11	,36	,674	29	,309	,785
	Non-Na	20	,30	,470			
Tot. Supp.	Ntiv	11	1,00	1,342	29	,736	,519
	Non-Na	20	,70	,923			
Tot. Num. S.	Ntiv	11	3,91	1,973	29	1,475	,213
	Non-Na	20	3,05	1,276			
Length	Ntiv	11	18,09	6,379	29	,204	,822
	Non-Na	20	17,45	9,231			

*significance level is .05

To sum up, the overall investigation indicated that the most common strategies for Situation 8 are *sorry* and *distract* in both native and non-native groups. However, native participants differ from non-native teachers in that they also employ the strategy of *gratitude* more frequently while apologizing in Situation 8. Instead of gratitude, Turkish teachers preferred to use *lexical uptoner* in their apologies.

DISCUSSION

The overall findings indicated fundamental differences between Turkish and American instructors in terms of their language use. What do these differences imply? It can be argued that these differences are normal and accomplishing native-like English is not so urgent as more and more non-native speakers have started to use English recently. In addition to that, the native speaker concept has become unrelated in the context of English use because of the increasing number of non-native speakers of English. However, according to Kanık (2010), this argument needs to be strengthened via scientific research and the number of research on this view is limited. Furthermore, the attitudes of teachers and language learners are also crucial in coming up with such a conclusion as these stakeholders appear to have a strong

tendency towards adopting a native-like proficiency model. Research also indicates that non-native learners do not take non-native models as their guide (Mollin, 2006; Jenkins, 2009; Kuo, 2006). Instead of that, they prefer to be exposed to a native model in order to reach native-like competence in their language use (Jenkins, 1998). To this end, it seems obvious that language learners need sufficient input as a guide and therefore, non-native English teachers should be able to provide this model to the learners. In order to do so, a non-native teacher should approximate native speaker standards as closely as possible.

However, as the present study indicates, a significant difference between native and non-native English instructors occurs in terms of their apology use, which may require an action to be dealt with. This is because cultural and pragmatic knowledge of the target language that they teach are crucial aspects for language teachers to be highly proficient as well as language proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, and teaching skill (Peyton, 1998). When the teachers' role in a class as either a facilitator/counselor or authority/controller is concerned, implementing knowledge of pragmatics to the language classroom becomes prominent.

From a general perspective, in order to narrow the gap between native and non-native teachers in terms of their pragmatic knowledge, the solution may be an approach reaching current teachers, teacher trainees, and language teaching programs (Soler, 2002; 2005; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Martinez-Flor & Fukuya, 2005; Takahasi, 2005). For current teachers, in-service training including an in-depth focus on language use in certain contexts is required. Regarding teacher training programs, there should be changes so as to include some courses with pragmatic functions of the language. Finally, the language teaching programs should be revised and pragmatic information is to be included in contextual teaching of the target language.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the current study was to identify whether native and non-native English instructors' production of the speech act set of apologies differs. Concerning the findings, it could be acknowledged that non-native English teachers differ from native teachers in their use of apology strategies. That is to say, non-native English teachers do not meet the native norms with regard to their knowledge of pragmatics. Since language learners are prone to prefer native-like competence as their top proficiency, the findings of the present study call for an urgent need for modifications on current teacher training programs.

Overall, it should be claimed that this study was just an attempt to provide insight on differences between native and non-native language teachers with respect to pragmatic knowledge. Further studies, by making some improvements and changes on the design of research might shed light on the issue of pragmatics with a comparison of native and non-native speakers.

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