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Dear Reader,

We take great pleasure in welcoming you to the new issue of our ELT Research Journal with seven high quality research papers. We hope this journal make it possible for us all to be directly involved in ongoing knowledge construction in our field. ELT Research journal is independent of corporate demands and the overlay of profit-making and profit-taking and we can therefore invite you to be full participants in the creative process that we are undertaking together. Our vision is to create a high-quality publication that will be relevant, challenging and inclusive of a diverse range of voices and perspectives, including academic researchers, graduate students, scholars and teachers in ELT world.

We are extremely pleased that the editors of our journal - Prof. Dr. Gonca Yangın Ekşi, Gazi University's Department of English Language Education and Prof. Dr. Meltem Huri Baturay, Atılım University's School of Foreign Languages - have spent great effort and energy in the preparation of the journal for publication Here I also would like to express my special thanks to the team members of the journal - co-editors, Dr. Kadriye Aksoy and Orçin Karadağ, who follow the review process, Ahmet Özdemir who designs website and electronic publication of our journal, Language Editor Sezen Balaban, (APA) editor, Ömer Gökhan Ulum, the editorial board members, reviewers, and finally we would like to express our gratitude to all the contributors who create the essence of this journal with their precious work.

We are also very grateful to you for your joining us as readers in this issue and hope you will also be one of the contributors in the next issues.

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Error Analysis of Turkish Learners' English Paragraphs from Lexical and Grammatical Aspects[1]

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Abstract

This research aims at exploring grammatical and lexical errors of seven adult Turkish EFL learners who took a one-month intensive English course at a research and application centre of a state university in Ankara. In this study, the target group at A1 proficiency level was selected with convenience sampling to reveal the most common error type(s). To that end, take-home papers collected in the third week of the course program were investigated at five consequent stages abiding by a model developed by Ellis (1997) to identify written errors. During the scrutiny, grammatical errors were categorized into verb-related errors, prepositions, articles, spelling/punctuation/capitalization, word order, possessives, use of language domain and subject-verb agreement respecting Alasfour's (2018), Diaz-Negrillo and Fernandez-Dominguez's (2006) ICLE/ Louvain and Dulay, Burt and Krashan's (1982) errors taxonomies, whereas lexical errors were grouped traditionally as interlingual and intralingual errors. The results indicate that the most frequent errors of the participants were verb-related errors, whereas subject-verb agreement was listed as the least-conducted error after contracted forms. With regard to lexical errors, which were the only items examined in terms of transfer issue, interlingual errors outnumbered intralingual errors. Accordingly, some implications and suggestions have been provided for further studies at the end of the study.

Key Words: Error analysis; grammatical error; lexical error; EFL learners

[1] This paper was presented at the 2nd International Language Teacher Education Research Group (ILTERG) Conference on 16th October 2020.

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Introduction

Although a majority of teachers propound tenacious efforts to combat mistakes and eradicate errors from learner output in different phases of learning adhering to a wide range of strategies, it might transfer its stance into a daunting process with their reappearance in the end. It is hence quite fundamental to identify sources of errors, types and let learners discover their own mistakes rather than spoon-feeding or directly leading them to any coping techniques which vividly elucidate what correct steps to take. In that case, specific errors of grammar and lexis with some parameter values which cripple learners' writing ought to be briefly defined at the beginning in accordance with the scope of this examination.

To begin, grammatical errors largely embody distinct forms of the misuse of language domains, articles, tenses, possessive pronouns, countable-uncountable nouns, word order and punctuation. Referring to lexical errors, singular-plural words, translations, collocations, meaning types, and relevancy of words with congruent contexts would come to minds (Nattama, 2002). On the basis of the dichotomy of intralingual versus interlingual translation originated by Richards (1971, 1974), Keshavarz (2004) and Touchie (1986) cite intralingual errors as overgeneralizations, ignorance of rule restrictions, false analogies, hyper-extension, hyper-correction and faulty categorizations. On the other hand, Chelli (2003) lists interlingual errors as language transfer, and cross-linguistic interferences. Taken together, every one of these error types might stand in the way of transmission of meaning or the message between interlocutors during the communication. Hence, these two errors are worth being analysed in EFL context to inform teachers about their frequency, and then incite them to strategize about error control as has already been underscored by Demirel (2017), Jurianto (2015), Lim (2010), and Owu-Ewie and Williams (2017) to name but a few.

Literature Review

Under the influence of schools of thought in psychology in the middle of 20th century, adopting the policy of tolerance and leaving room for linguistic errors in language studies would be regarded infeasible in learning process, thus they were to be eliminated from learner output. This view would be correlated with Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) coined by Lado (1957) hinging upon behaviourism and structuralism (Han, 2004). CAH posited that similarities between target language and L1 would ease learning. However, on the contrary, it resulted in interferences and transfers of structures or rules (Gass, Behney & Plonsky, 2013). That is, despite the fact that CAH seemed to introduce a 'disclosure' to learner errors at first, it did neither predict, prevent and even detect potential language problems nor arrive at a

favourable outcome in the long run. Correspondingly, Chomsky (1965) alleged the creativity of learners in language learning process which was again contrary to behaviourism. Finally, these elements yielded to an impaired credit of behaviourism in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Mede, Tutal, Ayaz, Çalışır, & Akın, 2014). Then, Error Analysis (EA) developed by Corder (1967, 1973) offered a fresh perspective to researchers and teachers in that errors were significant items on the way to understand problem(s) in learner's failure and specify inaccurate knowledge (Choroleeva, 2009). Furthermore, Corder (1973) distinguished errors from mistakes accounting for the fact that errors were serious learning deficiencies that would intervene acquisition process; on the other hand, mistakes referred to simple failures, such as slip of the tongue or a dichotomy in using (in) definite articles which did not interfere or hinder learning. Therefore, errors were appointed to be the focal point in language education and required to be well-resolved to boost success. Concerning this issue, further investigations about how EFL learners internalize linguistic knowledge gained importance to help teachers foresee error hints.

In terms of the studies in the literature, Alhaysony (2012) operated an error analysis gathering data from 100 female EFL learners in a local university. Depending on their descriptive essays on six discrete topics related to life and the culture in Saudi Arabia, written samples adduced that article errors were the most frequent ones in the study. Additionally, Mahmoodzadeh (2012) administered a contrastive analysis on 53 Iranian EFL learners at intermediate level to enlighten us about cross-linguistic influences between Persian and English. Through a translation task, it was discovered that participants could not succeed in producing English prepositions (N=63, 23.33%) due to their scarcity in L1 use. As to Mungungu (2010), he implemented a comparative study and investigated linguistic errors in 360 English essay writings of 180 African EFL learners. In the end, tenses, prepositions, articles and spelling errors were respectively detected to be the most encountered types. Owu-Ewie and Williams (2017) discovered in like manner that tense (32.0%) and agreement errors (29.8%) were much higher than any other grammatical errors in 300 essays of 150 students. Likewise, Demirel (2017) aimed to scrutinize Turkish EFL learners' 150 academic essays in a corpus study. According to classification of error types adopted from discrete publications of scholars, the most frequent errors were distinguished as verb related errors.

Abushihab (2014) examined the errors of Turkish EFL learners studying in ELT department of a state university. The results demonstrated that while articles were ranked the first (29%), prepositions (28%) and tenses (15%) were also detected to be the major sources of errors. Jurianto (2015) also planned to explore 39 EFL learners' lexical errors in their own

English narrative writings conforming to lexical error taxonomy developed by James (1988). Subsequently, he reported that the number of formal errors (with 11 sub-types) and semantic errors (with 3 sub-types) exceeded the others considering their frequency in each paper. Besides, Koban (2011) searched lexical errors as well as grammatical ones of Turkish ESL learners via 17 compositions. She resolved that prepositional, tense and verb related errors largely appeared due to intralingual transfer, while lexical errors and failures in word order emerged due to L1 interference. Finally, Erkaya (2012) reported mother tongue influence on target language acquisition within the frame of cross-linguistic analysis, too. As a result, word choice was noted to be the most frequently-committed error type leading learners to misunderstandings in L2. In the same vein, this research was delineated to contribute to the literature and unearth learner errors with the aim of enhancing success in foreign language classes by revealing the answers of these two research questions:

1. What are the most common grammatical errors of Turkish EFL learners?
2. Do lexical errors of Turkish EFL learners result from L1 interference or intralingual transfer?

Methodology

This research was generated to indicate grammatical and lexical errors of EFL learners participating in one-month intensive English course. They were incorporated in the design employing convenience sampling and the study was implemented abiding by Ellis's (1997) five-step model. In turn, data were analysed employing the classifications of grammatical errors designed by Alasfour (2018), Diaz-Negrillo and Fernandez-Dominguez (2006) and Dulay, Burt and Krashan (1982). With reference to lexical error types, they were traditionally dichotomized as interlingual and intralingual errors. In doing so, basic descriptive statistics were utilized to display each error, its group, number and frequency.

Participants and Setting

Data were gathered from adult Turkish EFL learners at A1 (elementary) level in a research and application centre of a state university in Ankara, Turkey. The researcher intentionally selected this group regarding them convenience samples from a whole population adopting one of the non-probability sampling methods. Their levels were determined via a proficiency exam assessing their productive skills. The participants, who had to take ten hours of English lessons per week to complete one-month intensive course, were in their third week when the experiment was generated by the researcher. Seven Turkish EFL learners out of 13 submitted their take home papers (writing assignments) to the researcher and provided the

opportunity of operationalizing this descriptive, small-scale study so that grammatical and lexical errors with some of the parameters could be identified and investigated in the end.

Data Collection

As the fourth edition of New Headway was utilized as the main course book by instructors in the courses to teach four basic language skills and sub-skills as a whole, the objectives embraced in the content were adapted much the same during the experiment. The first lessons aimed at teaching copula verb 'to be' along with some other basic verbs, such as 'have, go, like, live' to explain how to build a sentence in English. Afterwards, possessive adjectives and genitive *'s* were presented by practicing some opposite adjectives after negative and contracted forms of copula verb within the context of family life. At the end of the lesson, they were expected to create their own blogs as homework with a guided writing exercise in a clear outline. The following week, a new unit about work routines and jobs with the practice of present simple tense (negative and question forms) was introduced to the class. In addition to learning essential structures to make sentences, they were to improve (their writing style by employing object pronouns and possessive adjectives. By means of regular writing exercises in the syllabus, participants got used to composing second drafts of each task. Otherwise, this implementation could have unmotivated learners to take part in the research or attend the course eagerly.

Concerning the third week, the researcher prompted learners to practice present simple tense with low preparation games to make them personalize the language as well as stating adverbs of frequency. They would additionally enrich expressions in writing skill using basic collocations as in the contents of that week. Having learned how to organize a composition, the learners were assigned to write an 80-word paragraph as a project about their hometown, the capital city or one of their favourite cities in Turkey to be handed next week. In accordance with the given instruction in books, they were reflected the questions below:

- How big is it? Where is it?
- What is it famous for?
- Does it have any problems?
- What do you like best about it?

In the fourth and last week of the program, the teacher provided direct written corrective feedback to learners highlighting interferences and other probable reasons behind the errors.

Data Analysis

The researcher planned to design the current study regarding the five-step examination model developed by Ellis (1997): collecting data, identifying errors, classifying errors, analysing errors, and explaining errors. The reason behind embracing this model as a guidance was the explanation made by Ellis himself: "classifying errors in these ways can help us to diagnose learners' learning problems at any stage of their development and to plot how changes in error patterns occur over time" (ibid, p.23). To this end, subsequent to a comprehensive literature review, she analysed all errors and arranged them from high-frequent to the least. Though grammatical and lexical errors were parsed and figured as interlingual and intralingual at the outset of the study, on account of limited sample size and inadequate examples of the errors for each type from the data, she had to narrow down dissection of transfer errors and thus assessed them only from the lexical aspect. In other words, though error analysis was conducted on both of the foregoing parameters, errors of grammar encompassed just the failures in verb uses, word orders, agreement (subject-verb and noun-pronouns), prepositions, articles, possessives, spelling/punctuation/capitalization, contracted forms, and use of language domains without incorporating structural interferences between two languages precisely, whereas the latter was only related to the misuse of words and translations. During the analysis, and classification of grammatical errors, the aforementioned models were also taken into account. Furthermore, considering inter-rater reliability, one of the colleagues with master's degree in ELT worked on the data and classified errors as the second coder. Finally, they reached a consensus about error groups and percentages of each category were ranked to be interpreted by the researcher.

Findings and Discussion

Having examined the data in light of the first research question, verb related errors (tenses, missing verb part-s-) (N=11, 28.9 %) appeared as the most common type among word order, agreement, prepositions, articles, genitives, punctuation and spelling, and parts of speech as is seen in table 1. It follows that the participants must have missed utilizing copular verb 'to be' or assumed that its use would be restricted in a dependent clause or act as a complement, subjects and objects in sentences as was already reported in implications of studies executed by Demirel (2017), Mahmoodzadeh (2012), Mungungu (2010) and Owu-Ewie and Williams (2017).

Table 1

Errors types and their frequency in the study

Error categories in the study	**f**	**%**
A. Verb related errors	11	28.9
B. Erroneous complementation of prepositions	6	15.7
C. Articles	6	15.7
D. Spelling/ Punctuation/ Capitalization	5	13.1
E. Word order	5	13.1
F. Possessives	2	5.2
G. Parts of speech	2	5.2
H. Agreement errors (subject-verb & noun-pronoun agreement)	1	2.6
I. Contracted forms	0	0
	38	100

Note: Some of the errors were stated in two different categories

According to this finding, it ought to be emphasized that learners did not get used to the rule-governed typology in English which hardly ever modifies itself. Another trouble from the lens of learners must be how to determine the predicate in a sentence referring to A (28.9 %) and E (13.1 %) in the table and form or reform it depending on time expressions. In addition to the errors in identifying words as predicates, learners did not even point out predicates accurately within their statements, thus 'verb missing' errors (as a sub-type of A) turned out to be the foregone conclusion in their writings. Besides, another substantial matter in the study was articles which attach pivotal significance to maintain eloquent and effective communication. However, Turkish learners could not prove that they had an impeccable understanding of using definite and indefinite articles (15.7 %) as is seen below in table 2.

Table 2

Error types and examples from writing assignments

Examples of errors	**Error categories**
The best education in Ankara. Its administrative limits largely unchanged since 1960 …is very nice which known 'bridge with ten drawer'	**A**

Ankara is the second city about… Ankara is capital city in Turkey The transportation is provided among highway, …	**B**
Ankara is coldest city … Sao Paulo is capital city of… It is the cheapest city in the Turkey	**C**
…….. highway, freeeway, subway Newyork is the most crowded city in …	**D**
42 million tourists annually in the city and its suburbs visit ...since 1860. has an estimated... Ankara has some problems because a city crowded Because İstanbul city is old very.	**E**
He name is Eric Garcetti It's city wall is very…	**F**
İstanbul is the most population city The Hollywood film endustry production film in the world.	**G**
There are Atakule.	**H**
-	**I**

Considering the fact that even advanced Turkish EFL learners may experience the crisis of understanding and using prepositions in active skills, its position as a second ranked error (15.7 %) in the list of table 1 cannot be regarded weird. Moreover, as prepositions were introduced simultaneously with a fairly crucial grammar issue in the class, they might have been misconstrued and assumed as negligible elements in target language. The other motive instigating learners to skip prepositions in paragraph writing can stem from teacher's overstatement of the significance of vocabulary or not laying a lot weight on particles or adverbs at this proficiency level during the lectures. As a consequence, the results did not exactly chime in with Abushihab (2014) and Alhaysony (2012) who stressed prepositional errors strikingly due to their highest number of all the types in writings. Nonetheless, the findings were in parallel with Demirel (2017), Mungungu (2010), Owu-Ewie and Williams (2017) who noted verb related errors as the most common ones among learners.

After discussing the first research question, lexical errors were to be investigated as well to clarify the second question and report the prevailing hegemony of either interlingual

errors or intralingual errors in Turkish EFL context similar to Erkaya (2012), and Koban (2011).

Table 3

Analysis of lexical errors

Lexical errors	Interlingual	Intralingual
1. If you don't like ***wetting yourself*** in the rain,…	√	
2. It's home to ***tall*** rivers	√	
3. Diyarbakır is the most ***candid*** city	√	
4. It is also ***home*** to sunny weather, …	√	
5. People go to the city wall should take a ***photograph macine***	√	
6. The Hollywood film ***endustry*** …	√	
7. There are ***Anıtkabir, TBMM***,..	√	
8. Newyork is the most crowded city in ***ABD***	√	
9. The Tac Mahal is here where ***Şah*** Cihan ….	√	

The items in bold in table 3 illuminated some statements in which Turkish EFL learners were mistaken about how to practice words. It can be straightforwardly realized that despite feeling confident at vocabulary, as a matter of fact they were not competent enough to determine appropriate contexts to employ them in general sense. Therefore, the first lexical error will be directly correlated with collocations, since 'getting wet' or 'getting soaking/soaked' would be the best alternatives herein. The following expressions (number 2, 3, and 4) display incorrect word choices of learners by ascribing meanings of humanistic traits to unanimated objects. Respecting the rest of the elements in the list, they must have originated from word-for-word (literal) translations as Nattama (2002) emphasized. For instance, 'photograph macine' and 'endustry' rather than 'camera' and 'industry' must have evolved out of 'makine' and 'endüstri' in Turkish by giving due consideration to so-called unalterable language concepts. Additionally, cultural background of learners, socio-communicative components and learning process might have had impacts as well (Carriò-Pastor & Mestre-Mestre, 2014). These results imply that learners were by a majority disposed to transfer words due to their low proficiency level. Furthermore, owing to unfamiliarity with lexical items and fails in critical analysis, learners must have instantly uttered the first words coming to minds.

In short, interlingual errors outnumbered the other type as in the studies of Erkaya (2012), Koban (2011) and was underscored by Brown (1980).

Conclusion

This exploration was to disclose the most committed errors of Turkish EFL learners not only from lexical aspect emphasizing interlingual or intralingual interferences but additionally in grammatical structures through the written assignments. The results reflected that verb-related errors in grammar, and replicated words causing negative transfer and interlingual errors in lexis were categorized as the most frequent ones. However, overall, the primary attention of teachers cannot be totally eradicating the errors directly adopting product-oriented approach, but regarding them as opportunities to realize the missing points of learners during the learning process. Therefore, the coordination between teachers and learners must be hand holding in revealing and fighting against errors to increase the level of achievement.

Considering these findings and widely acclaimed notion that lexical distortion and incompatible words may entail fossilized errors, teachers can be suggested to consider transfer issue and plan the lesson accordingly besides identifying learners and supplying immediate needs to increase achievement through language teaching strategies in EFL context. Another implication for language teachers will be to familiarize learners with word formation process and highlight the fact that L1 and L2 cannot be inextricably entwined in structure.

The other point to be declared is that merely seven students volunteered to take part in the experiment, and identification and interpretation of errors were conducted by the researcher and one of her colleagues. The sample size ought to be increased in further studies to portray different cases in broader contexts. As another suggestion for further research, the same design could be implemented on learners at pre-intermediate and intermediate levels to compare the differences between two proficiency levels. Moreover, transferred errors were only scrutinized and tabulated in lexis due to the scope of the study; yet transfer issue could be extended to check grammatical accuracy, and cover phonological, semantic, orthographic errors in the next analyses. Likewise, a qualitative instrument, such as an interview will also enrich the data to supply triangulation in research.

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The Investigation of Co-teaching Model in Second Language Teaching in Early Years Education[1]

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Abstract

This study examines the effects of co-teaching model on teachers in a private nursery in Turkey. Data were collected in a private nursery in the city of Siirt, Turkey. Participants were English language teachers and preschool teachers in the nursery in which a bilingual language model is implemented. The study is qualitative and semi- structured interviews and participant observation were employed as data collection means of data collection. Different teaching models are used in bilingual nurseries. Co-teaching is one of them and recently utilised in different contexts. But it seems that there is a limited research into it. Findings show that co-teaching enhance teachers' professional development and teaming skills. The findings also indicate that co-teaching enables teachers to improve their teaching skills and creates advantages for teachers. The study suggests that pre-service English language teachers need to have training in teaching young children.

Key Words: Co-teaching model, Advantages, English language and preschool teachers, Bilingual model

[1] An earlier version of this paper was presented at 2nd ILTERG Conference, 2020

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Introduction

In a context where young children learn English as a second or third language, teachers use different models and methods. In Turkey, bilingual education in early years has gained ground in recent years (Çetintaş & Yazici, 2016). This opportunity is mainly provided by private nurseries in which children learn both Turkish and English together. In the literature on learning English as a second language in non-English contexts, studies highlighted that bilingual language teaching models such as dual language were effective in developing children's second language learning and their bilingualism (Genesee & Lindholm-Lary, 2013). These models aimed to develop children's language skills in both languages (e.g., Turkish and English). In such models, teachers are expected to collaborate with each other. In other words, teachers become a team: one teacher is responsible for children's first language, and the other teacher is in charge of English. Scholars have defined this collaboration as 'co-teaching' (Schwartz & Gorgatt, 2018), 'team-teaching' (Dillion, 2015) and 'team entitativity' (Vangrieken, Dochy, Raes, & Kyndt, 2015). In this paper, the definition of co-teaching will be comprised. Co-teaching has been defined as 'teaching delivered to by the collaboration of two teachers' (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Schwartz & Gorgatt, 2018). In co-teaching, the goal is to enhance children's learning (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010).

The definition of co-teaching model goes beyond traditional definitions of teaching, which is mainly provided by solely one teacher. Despite having complexities, co-teaching may create advantages for teachers. But there is limited research into co-teaching model in early years education (Dillion, 2015; Schwartz & Gorgatt, 2018). In accordance with this, this study aims to examine the effects of co-teaching on teachers' professional development and teaming skills.

Theoretical framework

Sielo (2011) defined 6 types of co-teaching model. These were one teach- one observe, parallel teaching, situation teaching, alternative teaching, one teach- one assist and team teaching (p.35). In one teach- one observes structure, one teacher is responsible for teaching while the other teacher observes her teammate or prepare herself to her turn. In parallel teaching, teachers divide children into two equal groups in order to teach them simultaneously. In situation teaching structure, similar to parallel teaching, teachers divide children into three equal groups, and they guide children to rotate activities. In alternative teaching structure, one teacher is responsible of the majority of children, whereas the other teacher teaches a small group of children. This structure is arranged according to children's learning needs. One teach-

one assist structure, which is slightly different from the alternative teaching, one teacher teaches the whole classroom and the other teacher helps children individually. Team teaching structure enables both teachers to teach simultaneously large groups of children (Sielo, 2011, p.35). Each structure has its own advantage. What is common among these types of co-teaching is that teaching is directly and indirectly provided by two teachers, and that they create discrete learning opportunities for children. Similarly, Dove and Honigsfeld (2010) discussed seven distinct types of co-teaching model in teaching English as a second language. What the similarities among Dove and Honigsfeld's (2010) co-teaching model and that of Sielo (2011) are that (1) one teacher teaches children, and the other teacher assists. Another similarity is that (2) both teachers teach the same content at the same time. Additionally, it is common among Sileo (2011) and, Dove and Honigsfeld's (2010) types of co-teaching that children are categorized into small groups according to their learning needs. But there are distinctions that in one of Dove and Honigsfeld's (2010) types of co-teaching one teacher leads activities, and the other teacher assesses children via observations and checklist.

In addition, in co-teaching there exist roles and responsibilities to be shared and discussed as teachers are in an ongoing decision- making process which includes the contents of and structures of activities, and the evaluation of children's progress (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Villa, Thousand, & Nevin, 2008). Based on the interviews with teachers, Careless (2006) demonstrated that that factors such as pedagogic and interpersonal aspects affected co-teaching practices. Pedagogic aspects encapsulated training and relevant experiences for co-teaching. Interpersonal ones were the ability of cooperation with her/his partner and their sensitiveness towards each other's views. Similar to Careless (2006), Vangrieken et al. (2015) underscored that attitudes towards collaboration (e.g., willingness and commitment, awareness of benefits) affect teaming in co-teaching. The ability and understanding of combination of skills and knowledge also influence co-teaching (Vangrieken et al., 2015).

Friend (2008) also identified the following challenges: arranging time for planning, positive working relationships between co-teachers, clarification of roles and responsibilities, and institutional support. These challenges point to the importance of time arrangement, understanding of each other, taking on their own roles and professional support in service in co-teaching. Researchers such as Main (2007) reflected that lack of skills and training can negatively affect the implementation of co- teaching. However, teachers can overcome such complexities through the engagement of ongoing collaboration and discussion about planning (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010). They might also overcome complexities through support (e.g., in-service training) from nursery managements and experts in the field (Dove & Honigsfeld,

2010). The support that co-teachers can be provided embraces in-service training in co-teaching methods and procedures (Dove &Honigsfeld, 2010). This notion implies that co-teaching needs to have a programme that identifies roles, responsibilities and time-management.

The advantages of co-teaching

Schwartz and Gorgatt (2018) examined co-teaching model in a bilingual language nursery in Israel. The purpose of the nursery was to develop Hebrew (first language) and Arabic (second language). In their study, one teacher transferred instructions to children in Hebrew (L1), and the other teacher was responsible for teaching Arabic (L2). They found that co-teaching improved teachers' teaching performance and teaming skills. The authors highlighted that as time progressed, teachers overcame challenges that were encountered (Schwartz & Gorgatt, 2018). Dillion's (2015) study, which examined the impacts of co-teaching on teachers, discovered that co-teaching provided teachers with support in all areas of teaching. Teachers can support each other with biliteracy in activities (Dillion, 2015). Co-teaching also enables emergent bilingual children to learn an activity in both languages (e.g., Arabic and English) (Dillion, 2015).

Reviewing studies on co-teaching model, Vangrieken et al. (2015) suggested that co-teaching not only enables teachers to develop their professional knowledge, but also they can benefit socially and emotionally from collaboration. For example, newcomers benefit from experienced teachers (Carrol & Foster, 2008), and they can feel more motivated and less isolated (Vangrieken et al., 2015). Shipley (2009) found that co-teaching enabled teachers to evolve their teaching (e.g., sharing ideas for activities) and to expand their repertoire of activities and teaching tools. Similarly, Hartigan (2014) discovered that the majority of teachers (n:58) valued co-teaching model as it helped them to enjoy their jobs. It is more likely that in co-teaching model activities can be student-centred (e.g., children's learning progress and their performance increased) (Vangrieken et al., 2015). Findings of a recent study by Sanders-Smith, Lyons, Yang and McCarthy (2020) indicated that in co-teaching model teachers can follow children's discrete interests simultaneously. The authors also highlighted that co-teaching enables children to experience distinct styles of teaching in the classroom, and they encourage children's participation in classroom activities by employing different languages. For example, the preschool teacher may exert English lexical items or sentence in English to draw children's attention to activities.

M**ethodology**

This study was implemented qualitatively and conducted between October 2019 and January 2020 in a bilingual private nursery in Siirt, Turkey. The data collection methods were semi-structured interview and participants' observations. Co-teachers' practices were observed in one classroom by the researcher. Interviews with the other teachers in the nursery were additionally conducted. There were 4 preschool teachers and 3 Turkish native English teachers. In each classroom, there were one preschool teacher and one English language teacher. In this study, the data were mainly drawn from the interviews with the teachers. The data were also supplemented with participant observations of co-teachers' practices and children's learning. The purpose of harnessing these two methods was also to understand how co-teachers planned, helped each other, structured activities and cultivated children's learning. I did my participant observations in one classroom in order to understand how the preschool teacher and English language teacher structured and planned classroom activities, and how they developed (children's skills such as literacy and math in both languages.

Data collection instruments and process

Necessary permission was taken from the nursery management and the ethic committee. Participation in this study was voluntary. A semi-structured interview form was composed and prepared by the researcher before the interviews were generated. But questions for the English language teachers and preschool teachers were different. In other words, in terms of questions, two interview forms were prepared by the researcher. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the teachers to elicit their views of co-teaching (Mifsud & Vella, 2018). The purpose of this application was to apprehend and examine the effects of co-teaching on the English and preschool teachers discretely. Before the interviews were conducted, interview times were arranged according to the teachers' availability during the day. During the interviews, the participants were asked for clarification, and they asked me for further explanations on the interviews' questions. In other words, the interview process was interactive. The teachers were interviewed separately when one teacher was responsible for classroom activities and the other teacher observed the classroom.

Some of questions reflected in the interviews with the teachers were:

- What contributed to your knowledge by teaching with the preschool teacher/ the English language teacher?
- Which activities do you plan with the preschool teacher/ the English language teacher?

- What did you learn in early years education? (for English language teachers)

Setting

This nursery was bilingual and implemented a bilingual language programme (Turkish and English). Children aged 4, 5 and 6 attended the nursery. The nursery was private, and taught children aged 5-6 English, not children aged 4 which the teachers viewed early for learning English. There were three classrooms in which two teachers were teaching at the same time. The teachers mainly employed the content-based approach to teaching English (Bayyurt, 2012). For example, after the preschool teacher taught the number 1 in Turkish, the English language teacher taught it in English. This was done at the beginning of the term. But as the time progressed and children were familiar with English, the English language teachers first taught the content, and then the preschool teachers taught it in Turkish.

A typical day in the nursery was as follows: free playtime, breakfast, intelligence games (by a different teacher)/ preschool programme (by preschool teacher), music (by a different teacher), English (by English teacher), lunch, preschool programme, rest and sleep and repetition of the day. The intelligence games and music were given in two days a week.

Participants

There were 6 teachers in the nursery; 3 preschool teachers and 3 English language teachers. The English language teachers did not have either pre-service training in co-teaching or in teaching young children English. When they started their jobs, the training about co-teaching was generated by nursery management. The English language teachers were graduated from undergraduate English language courses. One of them had four years teaching experience. The other two teachers had just graduated from undergraduate English courses at the time of study.

Data analysis

In this research, inductive coding was performed on the collected data. To explain, the data were given codes, and then similar codes were subsumed under certain categories (Gibbs, 2007). Different codes and categories were identified from the interviews with the English language teachers and preschool teachers. These are presented in tables in the following section. The teachers' statements are also provided in tables (Prosic-Santovac & Radovic, 2018). The categories that were emerged from the data from the interviews with the English language teachers were *professional knowledge* and *teaming*. Those that were emerged from

the data from the interviews with the preschool teachers were *drawing children's attention, professional knowledge* and *planning.*

Findings

English language teacher is abbreviated as LT, and preschool teacher is abbreviated as PT in the Tables below.

Table 1 shows categories and code from the interviews with the English language teachers.

Categories	Codes	statements
Professional knowledge	Plays	I learned plays and seating arrangements that motivated children's learning (LT1)
	Knowledge of teaching young children	We were not taught how to teach young children English during our undergraduate course. So, I had not known how to teach and structure preschool activities. But co-teaching enabled me to adapt the activities to English (LT2). I learned how to structure language activities. For example, co-teaching helped me understand which materials and teaching methods were useful for such activities (LT3).
Teaming	Planning Activities	First, we planned activities according to children's skills and interests. Then we decided on activities in which children developed their skills. We planned language activities (LT1) We could plan some activities together, not all activities. I taught English topic by topic, I thought the preschool programme followed us (LT2).
	Responsibilities	We had consensus for planning activities. But each teacher was responsible for her own activities. After the preschool teacher had finished the activities, I taught the same content in English. I also structured other classroom activities such as art (LT3).

As demonstrated in Table 1, co-teaching contributed to English language teachers' professional knowledge. They recognised the importance of plays and seating arrangements in children's learning and motivation. It seems that co-teaching enhanced teachers' teaming skills such as planning activities and having responsibilities. According to the researcher's participant observations, the English language teacher and preschool teacher did not have conflicts about planning activities or their roles.

Table 2 indicates categories and codes from the interviews with the preschool teachers were

Categories	Codes	Statements
Drawing children's attention	Use of different language	I learned how children paid attention to a different language. Sometimes we reminded children of classroom's rules and appropriated behaviours in English. Children paid more attention to warnings in English (PT1).
	Types of activities	Activities in English could be more interesting for children than those in Turkish (PT2).
Professional knowledge		I learned how to structure an activity in English (PT3).
Planning		We decided together on our weekly activities. We started teaching basic concepts and reviewed their learning (PT1).

This table highlights that preschool children paid attention to language use in classroom activities. This means that the teachers, especially preschool teachers supported the use of the languages in the classrooms as they made warnings in English. This table and the table above designate that the teachers planned classroom activities together. It was also observed that the English language teacher (LT1) and preschool teacher (PT1) had consensus on the time and structure of activities. The nursery had a programme that identified teachers' roles and set expectations from the teachers. Co-teaching, as contributed to the knowledge of the English language teachers, developed the preschool teachers' professional knowledge. It seems that co-teaching enabled the preschool teachers to familiar themselves with English. For example, one of the preschool teachers (PT1) stated that she learned the following sentences in English: "May I drink water?", "May I go to toilet?" and "I am hungry?". She also stated that she learned children songs in English.

Discussion and Conclusion

This paper has examined the effects of co-teaching model on the English language and preschool teachers. The findings from the interviews with the English language teachers were *professional knowledge* and *teaming,* and from the interviews with the preschool teachers were *drawing children's attention, professional knowledge* and *planning*. What was common among the findings was that the co-teaching model had positive impacts on both English and preschool teachers' professional development. For example, this finding indicated that the co-teaching model contributed to the English language teachers' professional knowledge was enriched with teaching young children English and learning important themes such as play in early year education. The finding supported Schwartz and Gorgatt's (2018) study, which showed that co-teaching contributed to the teachers' professional knowledge and improved the teachers' teaming skills.

This study accorded with previous studies (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Vangrieken et al., 2015) on co-teaching model by indicating that there were advantages of co-teaching for both the English and preschool teachers. The findings demonstrated that the teachers collaborated with each other to plan their activities and be a team (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010). It could be argued that the decisions of planning classroom activities reduced conflicts among the English language teachers and preschool teachers. The preschool teachers highlighted that co-teaching developed children's skills such as speaking in both languages (Dillion, 2015). The preschool teachers also underscored that the use of a different language (English) drew children's attention to activities, and it encouraged them to participate in activities (Sanders-Smith, 2020).

This study supported Vangrienken et al.'s (2015) study which indicated the importance of pre-service training in co-teaching model. During the interviews, the English language teachers highlighted that they did not have pre-service training in teaching young children English. But they learned methods and technics of teaching children English as a second language in-service.

This study suggests implementations for teachers, head teachers and policymakers. This study emphasises that English language teachers can benefit from pre-service training (e.g., courses and seminars) in teaching young children English. It suggests that head teachers can provide teachers with pedagogical assistance that helps them to implement the co-teaching model both pre-service and in-service. The study also considers that the co-teaching model can be applied to state-funded nurseries in which English is taught as a second language via kids

club (Official Gazette, 2014, article no:83). In such clubs, the English language teacher discretely teaches children English after all daily classroom activities have been done. This study suggests that policymakers can support pedagogical changes in kids club in order to enable nursery managements to integrate English club into daily activities. This study had limitations. One of the limitations was that it was conducted in one nursery and with the teachers in that nursery. Therefore, the number of participants was limited.

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Effects of Drama Activities on EFL Students' Speaking Skills

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Abstract

A considerable number of studies have been conducted to explore better ways to foster speaking skills of EFL learners. Drama has recently been considered as one of those ways to improve speaking skills. In the light of this information, this research aimed to discover the effects of drama activities on speaking skills of EFL students and to analyze their perceptions about the use of drama activities in foreign language learning. Participants in this study included 21 preparatory class students enrolled at a state university in Turkey during 2018-2019 academic year. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected by means of a pre-intermediate level speaking achievement test and an attitude questionnaire followed by semi-structured interviews regarding students' perceptions about the use of drama activities in foreign language classrooms. IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0 and pattern coding were used to analyze the data. The findings of the study revealed that the integration of drama in speaking courses had a positive effect on encouraging EFL students' speaking skills and the students had positive feelings toward the use of drama activities in foreign language courses. The results of the study are expected to contribute to curriculum developers, teachers, instructors and teacher educators.

Key Words: Drama; EFL; speaking; teaching speaking; foreign language teaching

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1. Introduction

Speaking, defined as a productive oral skill comprising the generation of systematic verbal utterances with the aim of conveying meaning (Nunan, 2003), has often been viewed as the most challenging of the four language skills (Bailey and Savage 1994). As this skill requires production, speaking gets more demanding for EFL learners who lack the opportunity of practicing English outside the class and the target language in real-life situations (Uztosum & Erten, 2014). Therefore, many studies have been conducted to explore such better ways as debates (Somjai & Jansem, 2015), storytelling (Samantaray, 2014), brainstorming (Hamden, Rostampour, & Abdorahimzadeh, 2015) etc. to improve speaking skills of EFL learners.

Drama has recently been considered as one of those related ways by contemporary trends in teaching speaking. The word "drama", referring to a wide concept, can be defined in several ways. However, from the educational perspective, Hubbard, Jones, Thornton, and Wheeler (1986) define it as 'various oral activities that include creativity'. Holden (1982) specifies that drama corresponds to pretending as it requires learners to put themselves into imaginary situations, outside the classroom context, or the skins and characters of other people. What Wessels (1987) stresses as drama could create a necessity to speak can be perceived as an effective call-to-action button for integrating drama into speaking courses. When learners are asked to act out, they associate themselves with the assigned roles by pretending to be someone else. At that stage, imagination starts taking part in each different context and it fosters information exchange, which enables learners' active engagement in communication. Therefore, drama is considered to provide a field for sufficient practice in acquiring speaking skill (Schejbal, 2006). Maley and Duff (2005) discuss how drama enables a natural integration of language skills and promotes the classroom interaction with an intensive focus on meaning. Besides, Philips (2003) designates drama as a motivator fostering speaking in an active learning environment. Fleming (2006) and Zyound (2010) also support the efficacy of using drama in classrooms by stating that drama promotes a learner-centered classroom practice which enables learners to perceive, think, act and interact during learning process instead of being passive receivers of knowledge. Additionally, Desiatova (2009) considers drama as a stimulator triggering one's imagination and effective thinking abilities, which proves that in addition to fostering communication skills, drama additionally stimulates problem solving, critical and creative thinking skills of learners.

Grounded on what the integration of drama can bring into speaking courses, this research aims to propose teaching speaking through drama. It is assumed that the integration

of drama and its techniques into classroom practice not only stimulates but also enriches discrete kinds of speaking activities such as the focus on fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, stress, intonation etc. Such a practice is also considered to promote opportunities for practicing English by utilizing target language in real-life situations. That's why in this research, drama is employed as a teaching methodology both to maximize foreign language speaking performance and to promote positive feelings toward the use of drama in foreign language classrooms.

1.1. Literature review

Drama has been applied as an influential tool so as to teach various aspects of language. The effects of drama on language teaching in terms of skills development have been studied by some researchers from distinct perspectives such as listening comprehension skills (Brouillette, 2012), reading skills (Krueger & Ranalli, 2003), writing skills (Robbie, 1998), and vocabulary knowledge (Demircioğlu, 2010).

As for speaking, drama has been considered to provide learners a chance to practice English by using target language in life-like situations. It has been widely employed by language teachers in speaking courses as it also facilitates particular kinds of speaking activities focusing on different aspects of speaking skill such as fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, stress, intonation etc. However, there exist a few studies which have proved that the use of drama contributes to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' speaking skills in EFL context both abroad and in Turkey.

1.1.1. Studies conducted worldwide

Initially, Iampitakporn (2002) conducted an experimental study to compare the English-speaking achievement of students using drama activities and students using conventional teaching and explore students' opinions on drama activities. Findings revealed that the experimental group using drama activities outperformed the control group trained by conventional teaching methods in terms of achievement in speaking and the students' opinions on drama activities were highly positive. Following that, Bang's study (2003) aiming to discover the improvement of college students' communicative ability through drama-oriented activities and to explore students' reactions towards such activities stated that the drama technique resulted in a significant improvement in students' communicative abilities. On the other hand, with regard to their perceptions, the participants indicated both positive and negative reactions towards the use of drama activities. The study suggested the benefits of

integrating drama activities in EFL classroom not only for communicative but also for cognitive, affective, socio-cultural and linguistic domains. Subsequent to the studies above, Nuktong's pre-experimental study (2010) implemented to examine the effects of drama-based instruction on students' oral communication ability and motivation in learning English revealed a significant increase in students' oral communication abilities and their motivation in learning English. The study also proved learners' positive attitudes towards learning through drama-based instruction. The study suggested the use of drama activities to foster learners' English-speaking skills. Finally, in another pre-experimental study conducted by Iamsaard and Kerdpol (2015), the effects of drama activities on improving English communicative skills were investigated and the results revealed that students' communicative speaking skills improved after the study. Furthermore, learners' opinions on the use of drama activities in speaking courses proved to be highly positive.

1.1.2. Studies conducted in Turkey

In addition to the EFL studies conducted in various countries, some alternative studies investigating the effects of using drama on speaking skills of EFL learners have also been conducted in Turkish context. For instance, Saraç (2007) conducted a pre-experimental study to discover whether creative drama has a positive impact on developing the speaking skills of young learners and the findings emerged from the observations revealed that the students' speaking skills gradually increased towards the end of the study. Besides, the findings obtained from the students' journals designated that creative drama entailed a positive influence on the learners' self-confidence and their willingness to participate. Following that, Saraç (2007) and Kılıç (2009) aimed to explore the effects of creative drama on students' English-speaking skills and students' attitudes towards speaking English with an experimental study. The results indicated that there were positive and significant effects on both the speaking test scores and the attitudes of the students towards speaking English after the study, which suggested the integration of drama activities into classroom instruction. Lastly, Saygılı (2014) conducted a pre-experimental study to investigate speaking strategies of English as a Specific Purpose students and whether drama would help them to improve their speaking skills and discovered that the integration of drama activities into classroom practice not only promoted students' speaking strategies but also ameliorated their speaking abilities.

There have also been some studies conducted in Turkey and other countries which encapsulated EFL students' perceptions on the use of drama in their classrooms. The findings have varied from one study to another. Some studies proved that EFL learners had positive

attitudes towards learning the target language through drama activities (Lee, 2007; Park, 2015; Yılmaz, 2016; Yun, 2007) and the pedagogical implications of these studies suggested that integration of drama activities into foreign language classroom instruction is beneficial. Contrary to those studies' findings, some studies indicated that EFL students had not only positive but also negative attitudes towards the use of drama activities in foreign language classrooms. For example, in Bang's study (2003) the participants indicated both positive and negative reactions towards the use of drama activities.

In conclusion, due to the limited number of studies that embraced both perceptions and L2 speaking performances of the students at the same time, further research is needed to contribute to the studies on the effects of drama on Turkish EFL learners' oral skills. In response to this gap, this study aims to find out not only what effects drama activities have on speaking skills of Turkish university pre- intermediate level EFL students but also the perceptions of students toward the use of drama in foreign language classrooms in EFL context.

1.2. Research questions

The research questions that guided the study as follows:

1. To what extent will the use of drama activities affect Turkish EFL students' language performance of L2 speaking?

2. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL students regarding the use of drama in foreign language classes?

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

The study was designed as a single instrumental case study as the researchers focus on an issue and then select a bounded case to illustrate the issue with an in-depth and advance understanding. As suggested by Stake (1995) the use of an instrumental case study is for having a 'research question, a puzzlement, a need for general understanding, and feel that we may get insight into the question by studying a particular case' (p.3). With regard to the current research, the researchers intend to better understand whether drama activities affect Turkish EFL students' language performance of L2 speaking and to explore the issue of the use of drama in EFL class via the utilization of the single case of one institution to illustrate the reaction of the class to drama integration. According to Yin (2003), "case studies can be based on any mix of

quantitative and qualitative evidence" (p. 15). Therefore, the current study benefitted from both quantitative and qualitative data gathering approaches in order to provide a further understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

2.2. Setting & Participants

The research was generated in one of the state universities in Turkey during the fall semester of 2018-2019 academic year. For the selection of the participating group, convenience sampling was conducted. Among several classes, only one class was selected because of its convenient accessibility and proximity to the researchers (Given, 2008). The study group consisted of 21 pre-intermediate EFL preparatory class students (8 females & 13 males). The English Preparatory Program wasn't compulsory for these students because they weren't registered in departments in which the medium of instruction is English; however, they attended the English Preparatory Program voluntarily. They were all native speakers of Turkish. Their ages ranged from 18 to 20 and approximate years of their English language learning ranged from 9 to 11 years. In this preparatory program, they totally had 24 hours of English classes including four basic skills. Only two hours comprised speaking skill. Up to the procedure, they had been taught by two different non-native EFL teachers since the beginning of the semester and already taken two exams: a quiz and a midterm exam.

2.3. Data Collection Instruments

To implement this research, data were collected by means of the Pre-Intermediate Level Speaking Test developed by the School of Foreign Languages of the university, an Attitude Questionnaire developed by Lee (2007) and in-depth interviews with students in semi-structured design for triangulation.

2.3.1 The Speaking Test

The Speaking Test developed by the School of Foreign Languages of the university was employed to test the pre-intermediate level participants' language performance of L2 speaking in terms of four distinct aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and information exchange. The total score of the test was 20 points; each section was rated as five points. The test encompassed two parts: in the first part, there were questions about learners' personal lives. In the second part, on the other hand, the students were asked to describe some pictures in detail

orally with some follow-up questions. Each student was graded in detail by the teacher according to a rubric.

2.3.2 The Attitude Questionnaire

The Attitude Questionnaire developed by Lee (2007) was applied to explore the perceptions of participants about the use of drama in foreign language classrooms. The questionnaire comprised 11 items and the respondents were expected to rate the degree to which they agree or disagree with them on a five-point Likert Scale. As indicated by Lee (2007), as for the reliability, a pilot study was conducted in 2007 with a group of students with different language abilities to test students' comprehension of the statements and the options based on the ordinal scale. The operation was satisfactory and thus the questionnaire was used in his study. The questionnaire was also justified to have the content validity (Lee, 2007).

2.3.3 Interviews

In-depth semi-structured interviews were performed as the method of data collection. The selection of these students was grounded on predetermined criterion that was relevant to meeting the research aim (Patton, 2002). Accordingly, the interviews were conducted with five of participating students whose main score in the Pre-Intermediate Level Speaking Test demonstrated a significant change after the procedure. The interviews were performed in Turkish and audiotaped. They lasted for ten minutes. Additional questions were reflected, when needed to elicit further details.

2.4. Procedure

This mixed- method research was employed in a class in which one of the researchers was the teacher of the students. In order to ensure validity and reliability of the research, the other researcher was also present within the classroom during the whole procedure. The participating group consisted of 21 (8 females and 13 males) pre-intermediate EFL preparatory class students. Before taking part in the study, all of the students were informed about the research at the very beginning of the study and expected to complete informed consent forms. At the beginning of the study, instead of administrating a pre-speaking test, the researcher took students' scores of the speaking part of the midterm exam as a reference for the pre-test. The speaking test was used to assess the students' L2 speaking performance in terms of four different aspects including grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and information exchange. The pre-test scores were utilized to assess students' current L2 speaking performance. In the study, the same speaking test was applied as the post-test. The time interval between the pre

and post-tests was six weeks to reduce the effects of the pre-test on the upcoming results of the procedure.

For the next six weeks, the participating group was administered drama-based tasks by the teacher. During the procedure, once a week, the teacher practiced drama activities prepared by Clandfield and published by Macmillan (2003), with the students. These drama activities were mainly based on improvisation and these were the main teaching aids in the procedure to encourage speaking skills of the participant students. The activities embraced in the procedure were the following: Greetings, Channel Hopping, Alphabet Dialogue, Dubbed Movie, The Good, the Bad and the Ugly Advice and The Fortune Teller with Two Heads. On the first day of the procedure, the drama activity was 'Greetings'. During this activity, the students were expected to walk around the class. They were asked to greet each other. At first, the students greeted each other by just shaking hand. Following, the students were asked to greet their friends more specifically. They pretended to be a lost friend, an enemy, an ex-boyfriend or girlfriend, etc. On the second day of the procedure, the activity was 'Channel Hopping'. For this activity, the class was divided into groups and given 'channels' or 'television shows' such as a soap opera, a sportscast, a reality show, an action movie etc. The teacher pretended to have a remote control and by pointing one group, the teacher turned on the channel. Each group was asked to provide the speech of the channel or show they represented. The teacher changed the channel as she wished by pointing to one of the groups. The students were required to be picky. Otherwise, the teacher told them that she would change the channel if she got bored. On the third day of the procedure, the activity was 'Alphabet Dialogue' which comprised 26 lines of dialogue. Each line started with a given letter (let's say A). The upcoming reply needed to start with 'B' and so on until the moment that the whole alphabet was covered. The following activity was 'Dubbed Movie' in which two or more students were asked to do a role play. Students were asked to act out a scene from a movie which they knew very well. While some of the students were moving their mouths as if they had been speaking, the others did the speaking. For this activity, the students were given some time for preparation. As for the fifth day of the procedure, the drama activity was 'The Good, the Bad and the Ugly Advice'. To implement this task, the students were asked to form groups of three and they sit down in a row. They were all given problems expecting some advice. For this, in each group every student was expected to provide a different kind of advice: good, bad, and really bad (ugly) advice. In this activity, if the 'bad advice' had been really bad, then the 'ugly advice' was expected to be even worse. On the last day of the procedure, the drama activity was the Fortune Teller with

Two Heads. Two of the students were assigned the role of being the fortune teller. The rest of the class was expected to ask them questions about the future. The challenging part of the task was that the fortune teller had to reply the questions one word at a time per student. As the fortune teller's 'heads' were not able to consult each about what they were going to say, each world reshaped the answer accordingly.

In the final week of the procedure, the students were administrated the same Pre-Intermediate Level Speaking Test with the aim of comparing their scores to the previous ones to see what impact the procedure had on their L2 speaking performance. Besides, at the end of the procedure, the questionnaire aiming to investigate the perceptions of participants about the use of drama in foreign language classrooms was administrated to the participating students. The students were informed that (a) this questionnaire wasn't a test, (b) their answers wouldn't be graded, and (c) they didn't have to give any details about their identities. Following the questionnaire, to triangulate the results, the semi-structured interviews were held with five students (three females and two males) once at the end of the procedure. Purposive sampling was conducted for the interviews. The selection of the students was grounded on predetermined common criteria that were relevant to meeting the research aim (Patton, 2002). The students whose main score in the Pre-Intermediate Level Speaking Test changed significantly after being exposed to the drama activities were asked to take part in the interviews. They were informed about the audio-recording and asked to give informed consent right before the interviews. During the interviews, the participating students were expected to give more details regarding their perceptions about the use of drama in foreign language classrooms to triangulate the results.

2.5. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed by means of a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. The data from the paired samples t-test and the attitude questionnaire were analyzed by means of Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 23.0. Initially, the data were examined in terms of normality and outliers. After that, in order to compare pre-and post-scores of the students, a paired sample t-test was conducted. In order for calculating and reporting the obtained Cohen's *d*s, a spreadsheet (Thalheimer & Cook, 2002) was used. For the analysis of the interviews, pattern coding was used as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) with the aim of reducing the 'large amounts of data into a smaller number of analytic units' (p. 69). In this context, the researcher grouped the data into the categories and interpreted them in light of

the study's overall focus on students' perceptions toward the use of drama activities in foreign language classrooms. During the content analyses of the qualitative data, the researchers were supported by research experts to ensure credibility and trustworthiness of the study. Initially, the interview questions were sent to two experts in the field so as to make changes and edits if necessary. Subsequent to this step, the translated transcriptions were checked by two reviewers. With regard to inter-coder reliability, the researchers were supported by another researcher from the field during code-checking and data analysis (Merriam, 2009). In this research, the reliability coefficient was found to be .89. The researchers also shared the findings with the interviewees so as to provide respondent validation (Creswell, 2012). Finally, member checking was additionally conducted with an experienced researcher for confirmation (Janesick, 2000).

3. Results

RQ. 1: To what extent did the use of drama activities affect Turkish EFL students' language performance of L2 speaking?

In order to check whether the assumptions for a t-test were validated or not, tests of normality for the relevant variables were conducted. The normality of the data was tested through the Shapiro-Wilk Test and the test indicated a normal distribution of the data at $p>.05$ level. There were no significant outliers within the data as well.

In order to explore whether the drama activities were effective on students' L2 speaking performance, the paired samples t-test was conducted. The researchers aimed to report the effect by taking both statistical and practical significance of their results into account. Based on the results of the conducted Paired Samples T-Test (Table 1), the differences between pre and post-tests were statistically significant in terms of students' language performance of speaking skills ($\alpha <.05$; Cohen's $d = 2.2$) variable. The obtained findings indicated that the researchers rejected the null hypothesis and there was statistically significant difference between the means of the paired t-tests. As for practical significance, the obtained Cohen's *d* (Cohen's $d = 2.2$) demonstrated that the procedure based on drama activities had a huge effect on students' language performance of speaking performance according to Cohen's criteria.

Table 1

Paired Sample t-Test

Pre-Test/	Paired Differences	T	df

Post-Test				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
	-6.238	0.768	0.168	-6.588	-5.888	-37.202	20	.000

RQ. 2: What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL students regarding the use of drama in foreign language classes?

The results of the questionnaire showed (designated) that the students had a positive attitude toward the use of drama activities as clearly indicated in Table 2. According to the results, the majority of the students agreed that they felt comfortable in participating in the drama activities and indicated their serious participation in drama tasks. Besides, when the participating students were asked whether drama activities could improve their language skills, they stated that they believed the drama activities could improve their speaking and listening skills rather than reading and writing. Finally, most of them indicated that the use of drama activities affected their feelings about English lessons positively and remarked their willingness to have drama in their English lessons in the future.

Table 2

The analysis of the attitude questionnaire

Statements	SD	D	UN	A	SA
1. I like drama activities.	0(0%)	1(4.8%)	3(14.3%)	8(38.1%)	9(42.9%)
2. I think there might be problems using drama to teach English	9(42.9%)	5(23.8%)	3(14.3%)	4(19.0%)	0(0%)

3. I feel comfortable in participating in the drama activities.	1(4.8%)	1(4.8%)	2(9.5%)	8(38.1%)	9(42.9%)
4. I did the drama activities seriously.	0(0%)	2(9.5%)	1(4.8%)	9(42.9%)	9(42.9%)
5. The drama activities can improve my reading skills.	1(4.8%)	2(9.5%)	10(47.6%)	3(14.3%)	5(23.8%)
6. The drama activities can improve my writing skills.	1(4.8%)	2(9.5%)	9(42.9%)	4(19.0%)	5(23.8%)
7. The drama activities can improve my speaking skills.	1(4.8%)	0(0%)	1(4.8%)	6(28.6%)	13(61.9%)
8. The drama activities can improve my listening skills.	1(4.8%)	0(0%)	3(14.3%)	11(52.4 %)	6(28.6%)
9. I think the classroom atmosphere was good during the drama activities.	1(4.8%)	0(0%)	1(4.8%)	10(47.6 %)	9(42.9%)
10. I think the use of drama activities affected my feelings toward	1(4.8%)	0(0%)	3(14.3%)	8(38.1%)	9(42.9%)

English lessons positively.					
11. I like to have drama in my English lessons in the future.	1(4.8%)	0(0%)	2(9.5%)	8(38.1%)	10(47.6%)

To triangulate the results, the researchers conducted interviews with five of the participants (three females and two males) to obtain information about their perceptions regarding the use of drama activities in foreign language classrooms. By complementing the results obtained from the attitude questionnaire, the analysis of the interviews also revealed that generally Turkish students were pleased with the integration of the drama activities into foreign language classroom instruction. Based on the analysis of the audio-scripts of the interviews, the researchers explored the five main areas: participants' opinions, preference of course content, reactions, feelings and the obtained benefit through the integration of drama into foreign language courses.

Opinions about drama activities

The first research question aimed to find out what the participants thought about drama in foreign language classrooms. The analysis of this question revealed that all of the participants were familiar with the drama activities. All similarly indicated that they enjoyed taking part in drama activities as a classroom practice which improves their speaking skills as illustrated in the following statements:

What I know about drama activities is that my classmates and I act and have fun. I love them! We speak English during the drama activities. It improves our speaking skills (Student 1, December 13, 2018).

Drama? Let me give you an example. When we take part in a speaking class, we act. We pretend to be someone else to have fun. But at the same time, we need to speak English. This makes us learn how to speak more and more. (Student 3, December 14, 2018).

I think drama is an activity that we are expected to speak more. We act, laugh and have fun. I mean pretending to be someone else. Sometimes we are parents, bosses or animals. It helps

us not only speak English but also promote empathy towards everything (Student 5, December 15, 2018).

Preference of course content

The second question was whether learners prefer language courses in which drama is integrated and the reason why. Again, all participants except one specified that they preferred language courses which encapsulate drama activities. They indicated that taking part in drama activities makes real communication easier as it provides them a chance to practice daily interaction:

I prefer language courses that drama is integrated. For me, learning how to speak with drama is really practical. Speaking and drama go hand in hand. When I want to communicate with an English speaker, all I need to do is to remember the things I did during the drama activities (Student 1, December 13, 2018).

If asked, I prefer drama integrated speaking courses. Outside the class, we don't have a chance to use the language that we are learning in the class. Therefore, drama gives us a chance to practice speaking more and more. Thanks to our teacher, in a stress-free environment, I find a chance to speak a lot without hesitation (Student 5, December 15, 2018).

Only one of the participants indicated that the integration of drama is not necessary for a language class to teach students how to speak accurately and fluently:

It is true that thanks to drama we have more chance to speak in the class. However; I prefer the language courses that focus on language alone. I believe that we need to speak accurately and I think accuracy is underestimated during drama activities (Student 4, December 15, 2018).

Reactions towards drama activities in foreign language classrooms

When asked whether they enjoyed drama activities and the reason why, all participants indicated that they enjoyed it a lot. Nearly all of them (four out of five) gave the same reason for which they enjoyed. The answers of them revealed they had good time in the class with their friends and their teacher, and had a chance to practice English. Besides, they denoted that drama promoted their empathy towards people, events and so on. One of the participants explained her ideas as follows:

I enjoyed every moment of drama activities. They helped me to practice more and more. Every day we don't have a chance to communicate with native speakers and even if our

teacher speaks English in the class, as learners, we need to support each other. I believe that taking part in language learning activities with people who are the same age and level, you feel freer and learn more and more. You have fun, laugh or let's say you enjoy. I guess this is what drama brings into a foreign language classroom (Student 5, December 15, 2018).

Only one of the participants indicated that even if she enjoyed taking part in drama activities, she preferred more accuracy-focused courses rather than fluency-focused ones:

I enjoyed drama, but our teacher didn't correct our mistakes very often and this bothered me. After the activities, she highlighted some of our mistakes. She should have corrected them immediately. I don't know… but she didn't… (Student 4, December 15, 2018).

The obtained benefit

As for the following question, the participants were asked whether they got benefit from drama activities, if yes, what benefits they got and if not, the reason why they did not. All of the participants identified that drama activities were substantial classroom practices. However, the rationale behind their ideas displayed differences. The responses concerning the obtained benefit are as follows:

Instead of listening to the teacher all the time, filling the gaps or answering comprehension questions, I believe that as learners, we need to support each other. Thanks to drama, we have a chance to share what we know with others (Student 1, December 13, 2018).

I am fed up with dealing with boring exercises for more than 9 years. What drama has brought me is enjoyment. It proved me that learning language is not something boring but enjoyable (Student 2, December 13, 2018).

I think drama promoted the empathy that I needed to have. Sometimes we were parents, bosses and even animals. Drama helped me improve imagination. I didn't take part in such activities beforehand. However, I like it now. We are social beings. Friends are better than answer keys (Student 3, December 14, 2018).

As for the benefit, I guess it is about whether it helped me improve my English or not. For speaking, of course. But I really wonder whether it could help me improve other skills such as listening, reading and writing… (Student 4, December 15, 2018).

Is it possible to criticize such enjoyable activities? I think it promoted our self-confidence as we used to hesitate to speak in classroom. You feel like a native speaker when you are pretending to be the mom of Lisa! (Student 5, December 15, 2018).

Feelings towards drama activities

The last interview question was associated with what impact the course had on students' attitudes toward drama activities in foreign language classrooms and the reason behind their responses. All of the participating students signified that drama integrated speaking course had a positive impact. Four of them stated that they wished to have drama in their future language classes not only for speaking but also for other skills:

> *The activities reached their aim which was to promote speaking, empathy, friendship and so on. As I indicated beforehand, I want drama to be a part of language learning process. I want to experience it not only in speaking courses but also in others. (Student 1, December 12, 2018).*

Only one of the students asserted that even if she spent good time, enjoyed a lot and had chance to practice English, she sometimes found such activities time-consuming:

> *We have to listen to our teacher to learn more and more. Drama makes us listen to our friends more rather than our teacher. I guess it is a bit time-consuming. Being able to speak is OK, but what for speaking accurately? (Student 4, December 15, 2018).*

In conclusion, the results obtained from the Pre-Intermediate Level Speaking Test revealed that the integration of drama activities into the course content resulted in a significant difference in students' scores regarding their L2 speaking performance, as can be seen clearly from the paired sample t-test results. Also, the findings from the questionnaire reflected_that students had a positive attitude towards drama activities. The majority of the students agreed with the integration of drama activities into their future language classes. This depicted that using drama activities encouraged students to take part in classroom activities during speaking courses as many participants in the interviews stated that they enjoyed taking part in drama activities, also it motivated them to speak more and more. Moreover, both the interviews and the questionnaire represented the students' positive attitude toward the utilization of drama activities in foreign language classrooms.

4. Discussion

The present study aimed to discover what influence the use of drama activities has on Turkish university pre- intermediate level EFL students' speaking skills and explore the students' perceptions regarding the use of drama activities in foreign language classrooms. The findings of the present study revealed that the integration of drama into foreign language

classroom was influential to improve learners' speaking skills and its potential for the field of L2 acquisition.

The findings of the study obtained from the Pre-Intermediate Level Speaking Test demonstrated that drama activities enhanced students' speaking skills by proving what Wessels (1987) stresses as "Drama can generate a need to speak" (p. 9). Acting out proved to make learners associate themselves with the assigned roles by pretending to be someone else. At this moment, the power of imagination triggered a great number of exchanges, which enabled learners' active engagement in communication. Thus, as Schejbal (2006) stated, drama provided learners a field for sufficient practice in acquiring speaking skill. As Maley and Duff (2005) suggested, drama promoted a natural integration of language skills and interaction in the classroom setting. Additionally, what Philips (2003) suggested as drama is a motivator which fosters speaking in an active learning environment has proved to be true. The results of the present study and the previous studies (Bang, 2003; Iampitakporn, 2002; Iamsaard & Kerdpol, 2015; Kılıç, 2009; Nuktong, 2010; Saraç, 2007; Saygılı, 2014) complemented each other as they all proved the positive effects of the drama on fostering learners' speaking skills.

In addition, the results of the study represented that the participating students had an overall positive attitude toward the integration of drama activities into foreign language instruction. These results support the findings obtained by the other researchers (Lee, 2007; Park, 2015; Yılmaz, 2016; Yun, 2007) who reported language learners' positive attitudes towards the integration of drama activities into foreign language instruction.

The in-depth interviews with the selected participants also revealed that the participating students benefitted from the integration of drama activities into foreign language instruction in terms of improving their L2 speaking performance as it enables them to express themselves better, provides them with a chance to practice speaking more, promotes their empathy, creativity and imagination. Furthermore, the participating students' reflections revealed how drama fulfils their social needs.

5. Conclusion

The present study was significant to explore what effects the drama activities have on students' L2 speaking performance and to explore the students' perceptions about the integration of drama activities into foreign language instruction. As indicated beforehand, the research has claimed that drama activities are effective teaching practices which enhance language learners' L2 speaking performance and as a result of using drama activities, the

students have a positive attitude toward the integration of drama activities into foreign language classroom instruction. The findings imply that drama activities fostering L2 speaking performance should be an integral part of every foreign language classroom instruction.

In that sense, the results of the study are expected to contribute to curriculum developers, teachers, instructors and teacher educators as the findings displayed that students' attitudes were positively affected thanks to the integration of drama activities into foreign language classroom instruction when teaching language skills, especially speaking. At this point, language teachers' knowledge of drama needs to be questioned and emphasized. Apart from this, employing different techniques will give teachers a chance to monitor their own practices since it enables them to reflect on their teaching. In other words, teachers will have a chance to test the efficacy of their teaching. Based on the experiences and reflections, teachers can regulate their teaching strategies or techniques accordingly. In addition to this, for syllabus designers, material designers and test developers, drama needs to be taken into consideration. Content of the syllabus or language assessment tests can be reshaped with the help of the integration of drama. Furthermore, material designers need to pay attention to the drama activities whilst the preparation of materials to encourage not only speaking skills but also the others. In conclusion, teaching techniques, materials and ways of assessment need to be regulated with the integration of the drama activities with the aim of promoting learners' language skills.

6. Limitations and Further Research

As for the limitations, the current study had some in terms of its content. Initially, one of the researchers was also the teacher of the present study, and her current knowledge of drama techniques was limited. Therefore, the variety of drama activities provided by the teacher was mostly relied on improvisation. Further studies can be conducted right after teachers are provided with some training embracing different types of drama activities. Additionally, the future research could also investigate the effects of drama on speaking skills of different number of students with different ages and different proficiency levels since the current study was conducted merely with pre-intermediate level preparatory class students. Finally, further research needs to be generated with the aim of exploring the ways of developing language learners' other language skills. In such studies, the efficacy of using drama activities might be investigated. However, the present study still plays a significant role in the field of English

language learning through drama activities despite these limitations; moreover, it affords a foundation for further research.

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Authentic Captioned Sitcom as Listening Comprehension Material in English Language Teaching[i]

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Abstract

This paper provides the results of a research study conducted during the 2007-2008 spring semester at Selçuk University, School of Foreign Languages (SOFL) in order to determine the effects of captioned authentic video films on the listening comprehension of intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) students. Two groups of students (pilot and control group) were chosen and provided with the same chosen episodes of "Everybody Hates Chris", an Emmy Award-nominated sitcom, and took the same pre- and post-tests, and questionnaires. While the experimental group of students watched the episodes with captions, the students in the control group watched them without captions. Subjects viewed the episodes once, for nearly 20 minutes. Before each presentation, both groups received work sheets of the target vocabulary and phrases. The results of the study showed that the group who watched the sitcom episodes with captioning scored significantly better in the listening comprehension test, than the ones in the controlled one. Pre/ post questionnaires were conducted to analyse the students' perceptions of the effects of captioning on EFL learning. The results of the study revealed significant outcomes stating that films with captions in ELT teaching helped students understand the plot better; supported vocabulary acquisition; improved students' listening skills. More, multi-sensory presentations encouraged students using captioning technology as a listening and a learning tool by themselves outside the classroom.

Key Words: Listening, Listening Comprehension, Captioned video, Captions and EFL teaching

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Introduction

Language teachers are exposed to the question of how to capture the interest of their students and to stimulate their imagination so that they will be more motivated to learn the foreign language. Today although there is a wide array of teaching materials available for teaching reading, speaking, vocabulary building, grammar, writing, culture as well as listening in the market, teaching materials utilised in the classrooms are by majority graded text or course books, and practiced on the basis of teacher-talk and student-listening routines which prevent students from developing an interest in learning English. However, according to Krashen (1995), "language learning is 'knowing the rules,' having a conscious knowledge about grammar", so learning is discrete from acquisition; for, language acquisition is the sole means to comprehend and speak second languages easily and well (p.18). He continues, "we acquire when language is used for communicating real ideas, and comprehension precedes production" (p.19). Therefore, in addition to the aforementioned materials, we sometimes need to adopt other means we think more avail to promote listening as well as comprehension. This is possible by means of using authentic teaching materials, which will aid students to 'notice that learning a language is not just learning its grammatical rules' (p.19).

With the advancement of technology in the twentieth century, teachers have been repeatedly trying to utilise materials such as videos to promote classroom teaching and language learning. To examplify, when captioned video technology was designed for people with hearing disabilities in the USA, some educators noticed its potential to aid their students in processing the second language differently with this additional method. They could make use of the words in the subtitles (Goldman & Goldman, 1988; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992). Since the starting point in language instruction is to help acquirers apprehend what is being uttered to them, captioned-video may be a promising method as captions may aid students to comprehend real-English conversation and enhance their listening comprehension capabilities (Krashen, 1995, p.20).

Among the main skills of interaction and language development, listening is the most basic one. It is obvious that youngsters start with listening to their environment prior to learning to talk and respond to language. As Rost (2002) specifies, "under normal circumstances, we all manage to acquire our first language, and we do it primarily through listening. There is a seamless connection between learning, listening and acquiring our first language" (p.81). Krashen identifies two independent systems of second language performance as 'the acquired system' and 'the learned system'. The acquired system -in other words 'acquisition'- is the

product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children experience when they acquire their first language. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language, natural communication, in which speakers concentrate in the communicative act and not in the form of their utterances. Krashen believes that, 'learning' is less substantial than 'acquisition' and signifies that learning does not become acquisition and our ability to use second languages comes considerably from what we have 'acquired', not from what we have 'learned'. Therefore, acquisition is the result of both listening and reading. So, we can enjoy real language use right away by listening to stories, reading authentic books, and engage in daily conversations (Krashen, 1995, pp. 16-17).

EFL students could be encouraged and motivated by interesting written or oral authentic language materials employed in daily and real life situations by native speakers. Ur (1999), for example, emphasizes this point:

> In order to provide students with training in listening comprehension that will prepare them for effective functioning outside the classroom, activities should give learners practice in coping with at least some of the features of real-life situations. For example: it would seem not very helpful to base listening exercises mainly on passages that are read aloud and followed by comprehension questions. It is worth nothing also that listening activities based on simulated real-life situations are likely to be more motivating and interesting to do than contrived textbook comprehension exercises. (p.107)

Rivers and Temperly (1978) believe that, "we as language teachers, have an open field. We are free to experiment and innovate (p.vii). Currently, there is a wide array of teaching materials available to EFL teachers to accommodate their various needs and their unique teaching situations. One approach may be the use of recorded films on DVDs to teach listening comprehension. A crucial advantage of these is that there are subtitles or captions of distinct languages on them. When watching TV programs or films, close- captions are the printed version of the spoken texts, and next to the original speech, they reflect the gestures and natural sounds. This method could be taken as an efficient teaching instrument with regard to communicative competence. Hence, the use of close-captioned videos in EFL classes could be considered as an alternative to other teaching materials.

Background of the Study

Listening plays a significant role in the lives of people. A very simple analysis of listening would designate four headings for this skill: understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, comprehending her/his grammar, recognizing her/his vocabulary and being able to grasp the meaning of what s/he says (Allen & Corder, 1974, p.93). Rivers and Temperly (1978) describe listening as, "essential to all interaction is the ability to understand what others are saying" by expressing, "it has been estimated that, of the time adults spend in communication activities 45 percent is devoted to listening, only 30 percent to speaking, 16 percent to reading, and a mere 9 percent to writing" (p.62-63). Listening is not only the first of the language skills developed, it is additionally the most-frequently used in daily life. On the other hand, due to the fact that listening was usually characterized as a passive activity in the past, Rost (2002) remarks, "ironically, instruction in listening has not received much attention until recently" and "listening plays an active part in language learning and listening is involved in many language-learning activities, both inside and outside the language classrooms" (p.103).

In today's world, with the development of technology, the instruction of English listening comprehension has been transformed into a technology-based system. This age brought to language teaching and learning a wide range of audio-visual technologies. Among these, employing videos to develop learner's listening comprehension has been widely investigated (Baltova, 1994; Chung, 1999). Rivers (1988) explains, "such technologies permit us to see and hear language in a cultural context as well as observe the impact on language meaning of things like real time, word stress, and gestures" (p.155) as seen below:

> The greeting, 'How are you today?' can be presented in a variety of mediums:
> Print: 'How are you today?'
> Audio: We hear the phonic chain, with stress and intonation for the particular meaning intended.
> Video: We observe one individual greeting another and saying, 'How are you today?' with gestures appropriate to the culture. (p.155)

Students in non-native environments are not accustomed to hear the language as produced by the native speakers and frequently have great difficulty in understanding the English spoken to them when they come into contact with native speakers of the language. Similarly, Brown and Yule (1983) explain:

> The student is taught to speak slowly and clearly and his teacher generally addresses the class in a public style (sometimes in a caricature 'speaking to foreigners, the stupid or the deaf style) which is also slow and clear. Native

> speakers, much of the time, don't speak slowly or particularly clearly. Moreover, the student is often only exposed to one accent of English, usually only that spoken by his teacher and as spoken by his teacher. The normal habits of simplification which characterize the accent may be lost when the teacher speaks slowly and 'artificially' clearly. Students consequently get used to a model of speech where every segment is clearly articulated (p.54).

Thus, instead of listening to artificial materials produced for language learning purposes, via social media students face challenges of authentic English such as chatting to native speakers or watching English TV shows and films. For this reason, Katchen (2001; 2003) conducted a study based on the idea of designing a listening course with materials, which would motivate students to learn listening, and constitute a learning environment with lower-affective filter. He states, "when watching TV programs or films, subtitles are the printed versions of the spoken texts. Through using DVDs, the user can choose different languages for both the audio track and text" (p.5).

Price and Dow (1983) implemented a study at Harvard University to determine whether nonnative English speakers could benefit from captioned materials originally targeted for the hearing impaired. Results indicated that viewers, regardless of educational level or language background, benefited significantly from captioning. In a study commissioned by the National Captioning Institute, Neuman and Koskinen (1992) discovered that using captioned science materials from the television program '3-2-1 Contact' with Asian and Hispanic seventh and eighth grade ESL students resulted in higher scores on tests of vocabulary knowledge and recall of science information. Hence, these results support the theory that multisensory processing of the audio, video, and print components of captioned video enhances language learning and content.

Statement of the Problem

Many traditional teachers believe that listening comprehension is a natural skill developed by students on their own and does not require teaching. Listening practice as a preparation for real-life listening comprehension is particularly difficult for learners to handle. Knowing what difficulties students might encounter during the process of learning real-life listening would provide teachers with great help. Ur (1999, p 107) summarizes learner adversities in listening as:

1. Trouble with sounds
2. Have to understand every word

3. Can't understand fast, natural native speech (p.112)

In order to assist students to overcome the listening difficulties, close-captioned video could a promising teaching material, since captioning technology displays the dialogue, narration, sound effects of a video program as words on a television screen. Neuman and Koskinen state (1993), "captioned videos allow viewers to focus attention on both definitional and contextual information; they enhance word meaning by providing a semantically rich visual setting that presents printed words in context with pictorial images" (p.6). Captioned television and video provide a presentation of information that includes opportunities to view the video action, hear the spoken word, and see the printed text. This multi-sensory presentation attracts the students. They further observe, "not only does it decrease the difficulty of learning new words, but it is a medium with which students feel confident" (p.6).

Purpose of the Study

As the British Council and TEPAV project 'Turkey National Needs Assessment of State School English Language Teaching' has also signified, English language classes in Turkey are still based on mastering skills through grammar and vocabulary; and listening comprehension is based on teacher-talk and student-listen routines. Students do not own sufficient motivation to learn a language need variety and excitement. Besides, EFL students in Turkey have very few opportunities to hear real language, so these students are not accustomed to hear the language, as produced by the native speakers (Özen, et al, 2013). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine whether authentic closed-captioned video helps or hinders the listening comprehension development of two groups of learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at School of Foreign Languages (SOFL) at Selçuk University. The designed research questions for the study are as follows:

1. Will the subjects who watched eight episodes of the award winning sitcom, *Everybody Hates Chris*, outperform those who watch traditional, without captions, on a listening comprehension test?
2. Will captioned videos improve EFL students' vocabulary and phrase acquisition?
3. Will closed-captioned presentation help students to overcome their listening difficulties?
4. Will this multi-sensory (to view the video action, hear the spoken word, and see the printed text) presentation charm students, and create a tendency for using captioning technology as a listening and learning tool by themselves outside the classroom?

Some limitations may influence the findings of this study, since this study was applied merely on intermediate level preparatory students at SOFL (School of Foreign Languages), including students ages ranging from 18 to 22. Therefore, it cannot be generalized for other groups. It also reflected a time limitation preventing the researcher to proceed the study and obtain a further result. If time had been extended to two semesters, the progress of each student could have been more clearly observed and reliable results could have been obtained. This study is only valid for Selçuk University School of Foreign Languages.

Importance of Listening

When listening is considered, what is meant could be defined as listening and understanding what we hear. Rost (1991) provides an expansive definition by listing its necessary components as:

- Discriminating between sounds;
- Recognizing words;
- Identifying grammatical groupings of words;
- Identifying 'pragmatic units'-expressions and sets of utterances which function as whole units to create meaning;
- Connecting linguistic cues to paralinguistic cues (intonation and stress) and to nonlinguistic cues (gestures and relevant objects in the situation) in order to construct meaning;
- Using background knowledge (what we already know about the content and the form) and context (what has already been said) to predict and then to confirm meaning;
- Recalling important words and ideas.

Porficient listening encompasses an integration of these skills. In this sense, listening is a coordination of the component skills, not the individual skills themselves (p.4). Similarly Murcia (2000) states, "listening is the most-frequently used language skill in everyday life and when people listen, they listen to a stretch of discourse (p.102).

As indicated above, listening embraces more than just the perception of sounds. Listening is not only hearing, but also an act of attending to the speech and trying to understand the message. In fact, listening is the most-frequently used language skill in everyday life. We seem to listen to twice as much language as we speak, four times as much as we read, and five

times as much as we write (Murcia, 2000, p.102). On the other hand, despite of its importance, listening has been the most-neglected language skill for generations. Overall, Rost (1991) argues that unless listening is given priority at the right level, learning cannot begin and he believes that only "progress in listening will provide a basis for development of other language skills" (p.3).

For Gebhard (2006), "listening is not a passive activity. Rather, listening places many demands on us. When we participate in face to face or telephone exchanges, we need to be receptive to others, which comprises paying attention to explanations, questions and opinions" (p.148). Listening implies more than just hearing or perceiving a stream of sounds; it also requires comprehension of the speaker's intended message.

Nunan (1999) indicates, "we do not simply take language in like a tape-recorder, but interpret what we hear according to our purpose in listening and our background knowledge" (p.23). Further, for Rost (2002) "listening is primarily a cognitive activity, embracing the activation and modification of concepts in the listener's mind", and he assumes, "due to the evolutionary causes, the conceptual that the listener brings to the text comprehension is organized in ways that allow him to activate it efficiently (p.62).

Ur (1999) does not view the classroom listening as real-life listening, and states "it would not be very efficient to base listening exercises mainly on passages that are read aloud and followed by comprehension questions". She claims, "it is worth that listening activities based on real-life situations are likely to be more motivating and interesting to do than contrived textbook comprehension exercises" (p.107). Therefore, DVD films would provide a real-life listening environment with plenty of contextual information, which students could relate to their life experiences.

According to Allwright and Bailey's (2004) reflection, "observations of many different classes, both in content area subjects and in language instruction, consistently reflect that teachers typically do between one half and three quarters of the talking done in classrooms (p.139). They define 'teacher talk' as, 'one of the major ways that teachers convey information to learners, and it is also one of the primary means of controlling learner behavior' (p.139). As Rost (2002) denotes, "Teacher-talk - how the teacher talks to students- is one of the vital sources of listening input for learners" (p.134). On the other hand, classroom activities do not provide students with natural language or 'real' language. Rost (2002), for example, observes that, "teachers typically accommodate their speech to the comprehension abilities of their

students. (p.134). Similarly, Allwright and Bailey (2004) put, "a number of studies have revealed, and quite convincingly so, that the language to which second language learners are exposed in the classroom is often unlike the language they will encounter in talking to native speakers outside the classroom" (p.140). According to Krashen (1995), teacher-talk is characterized by slower production, reduced syntactic complexity and utterance length, limited lexicon, and more well-formed sentences (p.34). On the contrary, the characteristics of real-life listening situations are rather discrete from teacher talk, or from the nature of language classroom speech. Ur (1999) expresses that in real-life situations, most of the spoken language we listen to is informal and spontaneous. It is usually broken into short chunks, in a conversation people take turns to speak, usually in short turns of a few seconds each. The pronunciation of words is often slurred, and noticeably different from the phonological representation given in a dictionary. The vocabulary is often colloquial, and in such real-life situations, the grammar tends to be somewhat ungrammatical: utterances do not usually divide neatly into sentences (p.106).

It can be concluded that to prepare students more proficiently and enable them to react accurately to the spoken language outside the classroom, it is necessary that teachers provide their students with many opportunities to listen to authentic and real language samples in the classroom.

Comprehensible Input

'Comprehensible input' is a term popularized by Krashen (Allwright and Bailey (2004), p.120). Brown (1993) explains, "Krashen's hypotheses have had a number of different names. In earlier years 'Monitor Model' and the 'Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis' were more popular terms; in recent years the 'Input Hypothesis' has been a common term to refer to what are really a set of interrelated hypotheses" (p.279). Rost (2002) believes, " while it is clear that input plays an essential part in second-language acquisition, the amount and type of input that is required for a learner to acquire a second language has not been clearly described" (p.93). In his Input Hypothesis, Krashen (1995) explains, "this hypothesis states simply that we acquire (not learn) language by comprehending input that is a little beyond our current level of (acquired) competence. We move from *i*, our current level, to *i+1*, the next level along the natural order" (p.32). Besides, Krashen believes that:

> The most substantial and avail theoretical point is the acquisition-learning distinction; the hypothesis that adult language students have two distinct ways

> of developing skills and knowledge is second language. Simply, acquiring a language is 'picking it up', i.e., developing ability in a language by using it in natural, communicative situations. It appears that language acquisition is the central, most crucial means for gaining linguistic skills even for an adult. (p.18)

Krashen's (1995) input hypothesis claims that listening comprehension and reading are of primary importance in the language-learning program, and that the ability to speak or write fluently in a second language will come gradually with time. Speaking fluency is thus not 'taught' directly; rather, speaking ability 'emerges' after the acquirer has built up competence through comprehending input (p.32).

According to Rost (2002), "Krashen's Input Hypothesis has been widely criticized (p.93). Allwright and Bailey (2004) underline the fact that not all language learners live in the in the target culture, and may not be exposed to a great deal of language. (p.129). These problems might be overcome by the benefits of captioned video. Via multi-sensory (watch the video action, hear the spoken word, and see the printed text) presentation, the learner could easily digest the rapid speech by the help of the captions. Video action would provide enough contextual clues to help learner to interpret the spoken text, and authentic materials provide a real life listening context.

Nonetheless, students who encounter some adversities during the process of learning listening would provide excessive support for teachers and course designers and aid them to build a positive emotional learning environment. Ur (1999) actually classifies the listening difficulties encountered by EFL learners by summing their comments into several categories as follows:

1. I have trouble catching the actual sounds of the foreign language.
2. I have to understand every word; if I miss something, I feel I am failing and get worried and stressed.
3. I can understand people if they talk slowly and clearly; I can't understand fast, natural native- sounding speech.
4. I need to hear things more than once in order to understand.
5. I find it difficult to 'keep up' with all the information I am getting, and cannot think ahead or predict.

6. If the listening goes on a long time I get tired, and find it more difficult to concentrate. (p.111)

In order to help students to overcome the listening adversities, instructors could design listening activities with captioned video, which allows learners to focus attention on both definitional and contextual information; they enhance word meaning by providing a semantically rich visual setting that presents printed words in context with pictorial images.

Using Video as an Authentic Material

There is a huge gap between listening activities in the classroom and in actual situations. This is because most listening materials, comprising dialogues in textbooks are considerably grammar-oriented and controlled in many ways with a few professional speakers. The speakers read the script with a perfectly controlled speed, voice tone, accent, and correct grammar. However, this is far different from real life conversations. In real life situations, there may be improper grammar usage, incomplete sentences, redundancy, contractions, overlap and so forth. Thus, there is a huge gap between controlled listening materials and real life listening. In addition, it is a fact that, in real life listening, we depend largely on visual information, including speaker's facial expressions, posture, movements, and appearance. According to Katchen (2001), there are a number of reasons for using authentic video in classrooms:

> First of all, we get language input for listening practice; video is superior to tape recordings because students can more easily distinguish among more than two voices, the speakers are more "real" and not disembodied voices, and often seeing the mouth movements is an aid to comprehension. A second reason for using video is as a stimulus, a way to elicit language output for speaking or writing activities. The content can present ideas that motivate students to express their own ideas. The focus of these reactions could be from the various cultural elements embedded in films. Nonverbal behavior-gestures, eye contact, proxemics-all can be a source of cultural difference. Finally, films and videos are colorful and appealing. Watching a film does not feel like work; it feels like fun. We watch TV to relax, so using a film/video in class lets students put down the books and learn in a less typical way. (p.5)

Furthermore, as Grant and Starks (2001) specify, "the use of video samples of conversational data from television would help students make this transition from simplified language to real-life language and provide a welcome alternative to textbook data" (p.49). It

appears that visual information via television or video helps students to interpret the given material enhances their comprehension, and a source of teaching the real-language. In sum, videos derived from authentic materials such as soap operas on TV or films, would help students in their language input processes. Karakaş and Sarıçoban (2012, p. 12) in their study which investigated the relationship between watching subtitled and non-subtitled cartoons and its effect on the vocabulary development found that the improvement of participants were thought to be the result of contextual aids of cartoons.

Captioned Video as an Authentic Material

Researchers have documented that closed-captioned video is an alternative approach to the teaching of listening comprehension, contribute to the overall effectiveness of the language learning process and provide a more creative approach to teaching.

Captioning is the process by which audio portions of television programs are transcribed into written words that appear on the television screen at the same time as the program. In other words, captions are a text version of the spoken part of a television, movie, or computer presentation. Subtitles are mistakenly assumed to be the same as captioning, but they are different media with deceptively similar appearance.

Main differences between captioning and subtitling are as follows:

1. Captions are intended for hearing impaired and hard-of-hearing audiences. The assumed audience for subtitling is hearing people who do not understand the language of dialogue.
2. Captions notate sound effects and other dramatically significant audio while subtitles assume you can hear the phone ringing, the footsteps outside the door, or a thunderclap and leave them out.
3. Captions are usually in the same language as the audio. Subtitles are usually a translation.
4. Captions ideally render all utterances. Subtitles do not bother to duplicate some verbal forms.
5. Captions render tone and manner of voice where necessary.

Captioning is categorized as open and closed captioning. Open captions always are in view and cannot be turned off, whereas closed captions can be turned on and off by the viewer. (Understanding Captions & Subtitles. Screenfont CA Web site: http://screenfont.ca/learn/)

Although closed-captioning technology was originally devised for the benefit of the hearing impaired, there has been recent interest on the part of reading and literacy specialists in the use of closed-captioned television (CCTV) with hearing audiences as well. National Captioning Institute in 1989 suggests that over half of the decoders sold to the hearing population, and among the purchasers, many are immigrant families.

Just through watching captioned TV, young children who are learning to read are able to improve their reading skills significantly, people learning English can improve their language and vocabulary skills. (National Captioning Institute. Retrieved May 19, 2008, Web site: http://www.ncicap.org)

Bird (2005) emphasizes the significance and advantages of captioning by remarking that the utilizer is given a transcription that can act as an orthographic, phonological and semantic foothold into entertaining movies without having to resort to translation. This in turn provides further opportunities to learn the language. For learners who are of an intermediate to advanced level, same language subtitles provide the sort of target language support that they need to begin the difficult task of comprehending and learning from fluent native speaker speech (p.313).

A study commissioned by the National Captioning Institute shows that by viewing close-captioned television students learning English can 'dramatically' improve their language skills" (Bird, 2005 p.572). Koolstra and Beentjes state that subtitled television programs seem to provide a rich context for foreign language acquisition and viewers are rather motivated to understand what is shown and said on television (1999, p.51).

As a result, video technology provides just such an innovation. People of all ages and educational backgrounds seem to be attracted to television, and numerous captioned television programs and video can be used in conjunction with specific curriculum topics and objectives. And what is more crucial is that, language learners may gain confidence in being able to understand by the opportunity to view the video action, hear the spoken word, and see the printed text. This multi-sensory presentation may also attract the students and accommodate motivation.

Captioned-Video as Comprehensible Input

Baltova (1999) specifies that language teachers and researchers have been searching for new strategies to make input 'comprehensible' (p.6). In addition, the researcher argues that when sufficient input of consistent high quality/ interest is delivered, "comprehensible input

automatically contains all the grammatical structures the acquirer is ready to acquire, in the right order and right quantity" (p.21). In other words, acquisition emerges on its own as a result of obtaining comprehensible input.

Some Studies on the use of Captioned-Video

Most research and studies have concluded that the use of captions helps students comprehend listening materials, and students display more interest and motivation for learning English (Lin, 2002). For his dissertation titled 'The Role of Closed- Captioning in Second Language Acquisition' Liversidge (1999) denotes that his study sought a comprehensive overview, rather than focusing on one single area, such as comprehension, or vocabulary gains and found that there are gains or benefits from the presence of captioning.

Goldman and Goldman (1988) generated a research employing closed-captioned television to help readers at the high school level. Utilizing popular situation comedies, they employed closed-captioned television once or twice a week to teach various reading skills before, during and after viewing a program. They concluded that (a) comprehension usually remained at 70% or higher, (b) students attended class more regularly, (c) greater time on task was evident during the viewing and discussions, and (d) students displayed more interest and motivation for learning in general. (p.458)

Thirdly, Huang (1998) conducted a study in which a group of thirty ESL students enrolled in The Language Academy at the University of Southern California for the summer session. They were placed in an intermediate level of speaking and listening, level 3, according to their performance in the International Student English (ISE) test. Huang's material was a television serial called, *Family Album U.S.A.* Participants were equally and randomly divided into two groups. The first group watched the series twice (without captions), and the second group watched twice but with close captions. After watching the same episode, students in both groups took the same listening test and the results indicated that students in group two performed better.

Research studies in this field designate that captioned videos/ films are more positive and effective than non-captioned videos/ films in terms of improving learning motivation and an attitude towards overall listening comprehension, vocabulary development, and in helping EFL students' comprehension ability.

Method

This study aimed to determine the effects of captioned video on the English listening comprehension intermediate EFL students at Selcuk University, School of Foreign Languages (SOFL) In addition, subjects' perceptions of the effects of captioned video on EFL learning were also covered in this study.

This study took place at SOFL Selçuk University. Students take a standardized placement test and are placed at proficiency levels based on their performance on this test. The number of students who participated in this study was 34, and they all continued to Level A at SOFL. Being at the same proficiency level, which is intermediate, the subjects of the study can be described as homogeneous. The students aged 18-21 years old and sixteen of them were female and 18 male. The study was performed with two groups: a control group and an experimental group. Each group encapsulated 17 students. In the study, Prep 13 students were considered as the experimental group, while Prep 14 students were considered the control group.

The authentic material used in this study is an award winning sitcom *Everybody Hates Chris* featuring fictional characters and situations based on real people and situations produced by the CBS Paramount Television.

The following criteria were used to evaluate the appropriateness of this sitcom;

1. Is the drama relevant and of interest to the average students in this age group?
2. Is the language (grammatical and lexical complexity) of the segment appropriate for the intermediate level of study?

The authentic and entertaining quality of the material was substantial in order to bring students into contact with language as it is used in the culture to meet actual communication needs. However, due to the fact that this sitcom was not designed for EFL or ESL classes, the language in the video was expected to be relatively challenging to students, as it embraces vocabulary that was likely to be unfamiliar, and some advanced syntactic structures. For each episode, students were expected to complete a worksheet which comprised a list of the target words, phrases and their explanations. As the episodes offer students an opportunity to witness cultural information, both behaviors that are not obvious in texts and cultural information was presented orally before or during the presentation.

This study was conducted during the subjects' regularly scheduled class hours in the Media Lab for about 45 minutes, about 8 weeks per week. Throughout the semester, the students in the control group watched the episodes without captions. During the treatment

experimental group watched the episodes with captions, and took the same pre and posttests, and questionnaires. Subjects viewed the episodes once, for nearly 20 minutes. Both groups received work-sheets of the target vocabulary and phrases.

The list and themes of the episodes shown throughout the study was as the following:

1. *Everybody Hates Halloween*
2. *Everybody Hates the Pilot*
3. *Everybody Hates Basketball*
4. *Everybody Hates Sausage*
5. *Everybody Hates The Babysitter*
6. *Everybody Hates Christmas*
7. *Everybody Hates Part Time Job*
8. *Everybody Hates Valentine's Day*
9. *Everybody Hates Thanksgiving Day*
10. *Everybody Hates Cutting School.*

After the students watched the first episode, *Everybody Hates Halloween,* they were given a Pre-questionnaire and pre-listening test. Then, after they watched the last episode *Everybody Hates Cutting School* they were given a post questionnaire and test. After the students watched an episode without captions, they took both tests.

In addition to the pretest and the posttest, two questionnaires were administered at the beginning and at the end of the study. It was aimed to investigate the participants' beliefs, and opinions towards their understanding of English. The questions also explore students' preferences for text, picture, and sound when studying English, or whether they preferred to study the language through reading, viewing (watching video or TV), or listening.

Data Analysis and Results

To collect the data two Likert-type questionnaires were designed. The first one encapsulated five items ranging from strongly-agree to strongly disagree. The second embraced none- to- a lot options. In the initial part of the pre-questionnaire, the first question asked: "How do the following statements apply to your understanding of English in the classroom?" Students were also expected to check the answers that best apply to their choices. Almost more than 80% of the students agreed or strongly agreed that understanding/ learning English was best under the following conditions:

1. When they were listening to the teacher;

2. When they were reading what the teacher was writing on the blackboard;
3. When they were reading books.

About half of the students were indecisive about considering how watching films and shows on DVD or TV affected their comprehension and learning of English. Finally, majority of the students either disagreed with, or were undecided about the benefits of listening to audiotapes when studying English.

As evidenced by percentages, students in general were not enthusiastic about listening to English audiotapes or watching of English films, video or DVD either when trying to understand English, or when learning English vocabulary. In contrast, most of the students were significantly in favor of listening to the teacher both with respect to comprehension and learning.

Question 6 inquired whether students watched English TV, listened to English radio, watched English movies, or read English magazines and books outside the classroom. They were also required to specify the time they spent on these activities, and to provide the number of movies they had seen, and of magazines and books they had read. The data concerning exposure to English via TV and radio after school revealed that nearly 25% of the students watched English TV after school (ranging from 1 to 7 hours per week), but hardly any ever listened to English radio.

Overall, very few students watched English movies, read English magazines and books of their own accord outside the classroom. Likewise, question 7 further asked students whether they had ever watched English movies subtitled in English, and question 8 asked whether they had seen any English movies subtitled in Turkish. As a result, close to 65% of all the students had never previously watched English movies with English subtitles. On the other hand, close to 100% of all students had already been exposed to English movies with Turkish subtitles. Responses to this question revealed that the vast majority of the students, about 70%, only read subtitles. As evidenced by percentages, students in general were not enthusiastic about watching and listening to films in English, and read only subtitles.

Responses to the question ‘whether they had seen the episode before’ reflected that none of the students had seen this episode before. The next question required students to check one of the 4 options in order to specify how much new information they had learned from watching the episode without captions.

To the question "Do you feel that you have learned any new information from watching this video today?" the majority of the students, in the control group, (roughly 60%) reported that they had learned 'some' information from the video. Furthermore, more students in the experimental group perceived that they learned 'very few', relative to the control group.

Another question asked whether there were new words they believed they had learned from watching the video. In both groups, only 2 students replied that they had learned 'some' new words, and over a third in both groups thought that they had learned 'very few' words. In addition, in both groups, roughly half of the students responded they had learned 'none'.

To the question how well students understood the content of the video, in both groups, nearly 60% of the students felt they had understood 'very little', and only one student in the Control Group claimed to have understood 'everything'. Over 20% of students in both groups claimed that they understood 'some' parts in the video.

The responses for factors preventing students to understand the video, the majority of the students commented that native people's fast speaking, the vocabulary, and their accent in the video prevented their understanding. Accordingly, captioning may be a possible solution as it allows students to read spoken language and increases their vocabulary knowledge by video content.

The aim of the pre-questionnaire was to gather information about students' background, their exposure to English outside of classroom hours, and their input preferences. For 8 weeks, students watched 8 different episodes of the sitcom *Everybody Hates Chris*. In order to collect data with respect to learners' input preferences after 8 weeks of study, students viewed a discrete episode, and then a post-questionnaire was applied on them. Again students were expected to indicate their preferences for different input sources since it also had the aim of discovering students' comprehension performance.

In this part, the first question asked all students whether they had watched the episode earlier on and their responses revealed that none of them had watched this episode before.

Question 2 required students to check one of the 4 options in order to specify how much new information they had learned from watching the episode without captions. The following chart displays the comments of the students' in the experimental group, both before and after the 8 weeks of study.

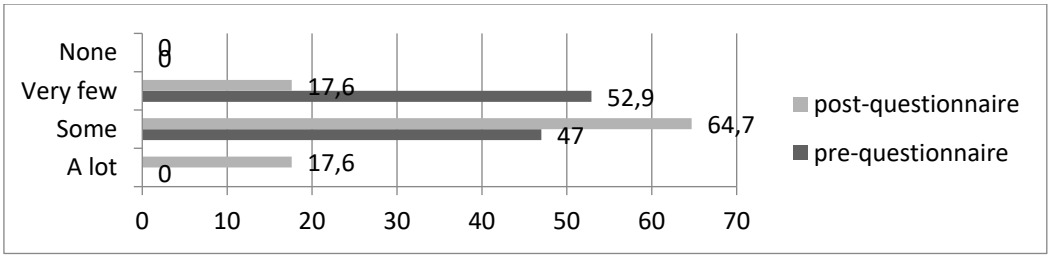


Chart 1. The comments of the students' in the experimental group.

The second chart below shows the comments of the students' in the control group before and after the eighth week of the study:

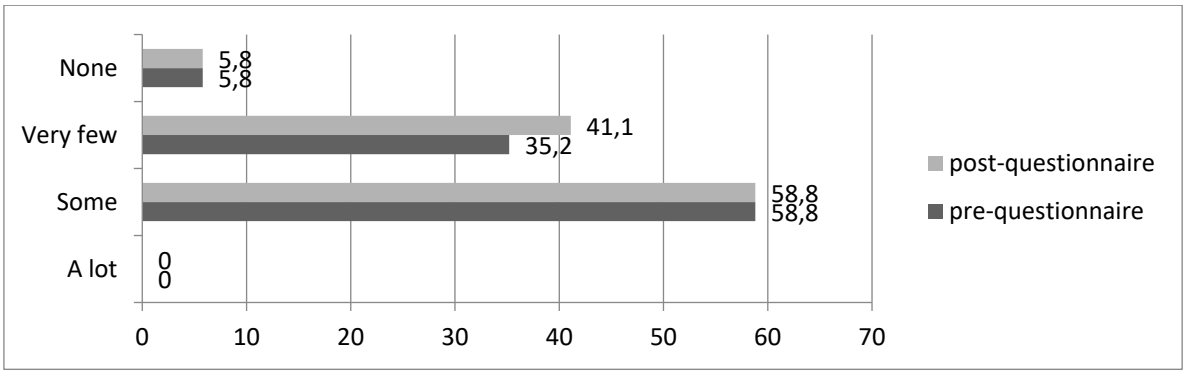


Chart 2. The comments of the students' in the control group.

The majority of the students in the experimental group reported that they had learned 'some' information from the video, with more people in the subtitled conditions than in the control group. Furthermore, three students in the experimental group thought they learned 'a lot'. In particular, students in the experimental group reported higher learning of new information relative to the comparison group.

Students' comments in both groups with respect to their perceived learning of words were significantly higher after 8 weeks of treatment. Merely two students responded with 'none' in the experimental group, on the other hand 6 students responded with 'none' in the control group as seen in the charts 3 and 4.

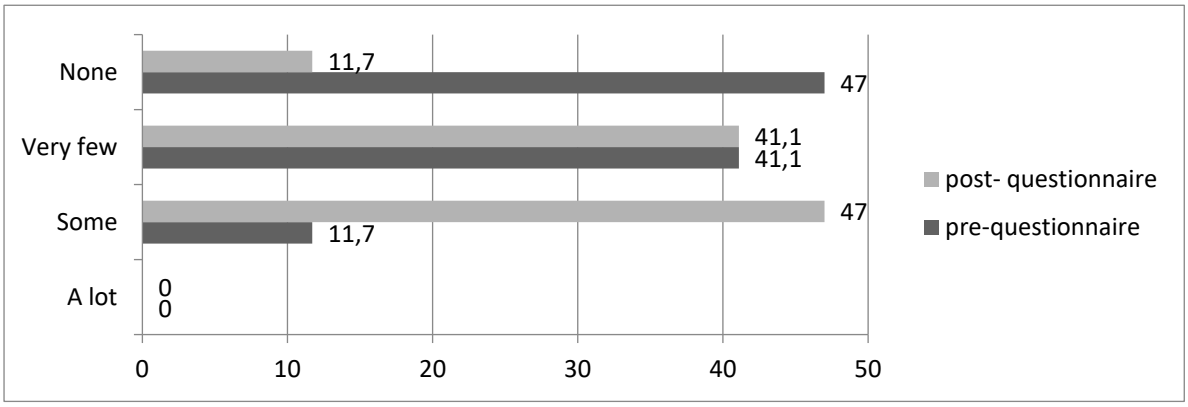


Chart 3. Experimental group students' comments before and after the 8 weeks of study.

The question, "Do you feel that you have learned cultural information all through the episodes you have watched?" inquired if the episodes the students watched afforded them the opportunity of meeting the target language's culture, or if the cultural information was presented via this treatment. As Peterson and Coltrane (2003) also highlight, the role of culture is significant and, "culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning" (pp. 3-6) In both groups, nearly 90% of the students believed that they learned 'a lot' or 'some' cultural information. Only five students responded 'very few'. No student responded with 'None'.

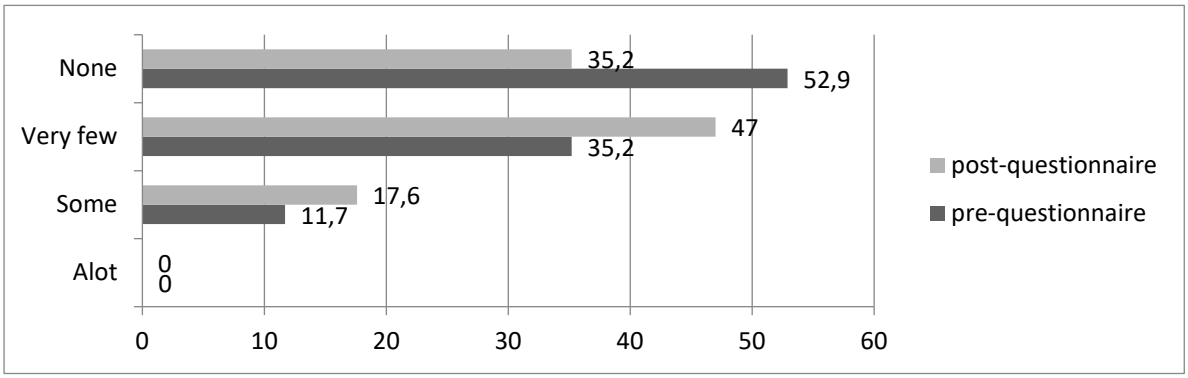


Chart 4. Control group students' comments before and after the 8 weeks of study.

To the question, "Which of the following statements express how well you understood the video you just watched?" as can be seen in the chart below, the students in the control

group, responded nearly the same in both questionnaires. More than 40% of students in the experimental group claimed to have understood 'some of it'.

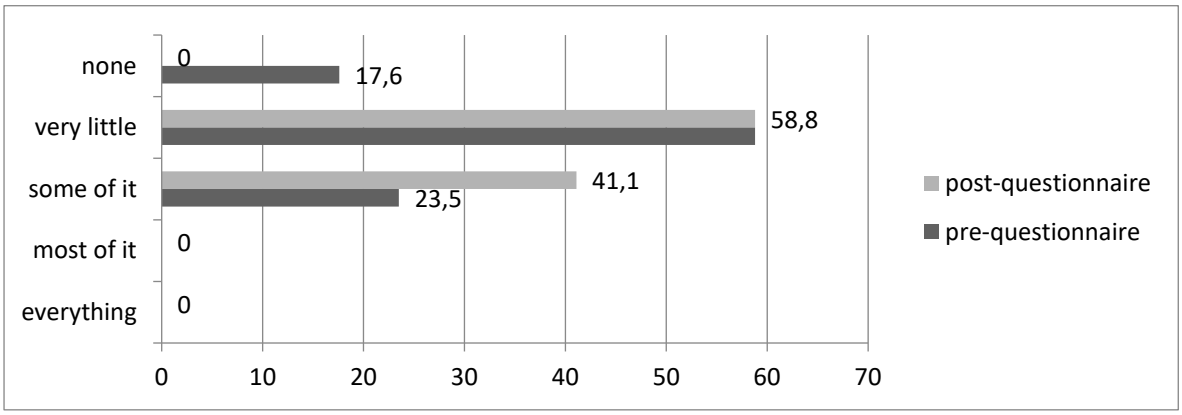


Chart 5. Experimental group students' comments before and after the 8 weeks of study.

In the experimental group, where students watched the videos with captions, item 6 sought the answer to whether captions aided them to comprehend the story better. Nearly 90% of students claimed that captions helped them 'a lot' to understand the story better.

In the captioned condition, question 7 asked students whether they felt that captions helped them to learn new vocabulary and all the students remarked that captions did indeed assist their performance on vocabulary learning.

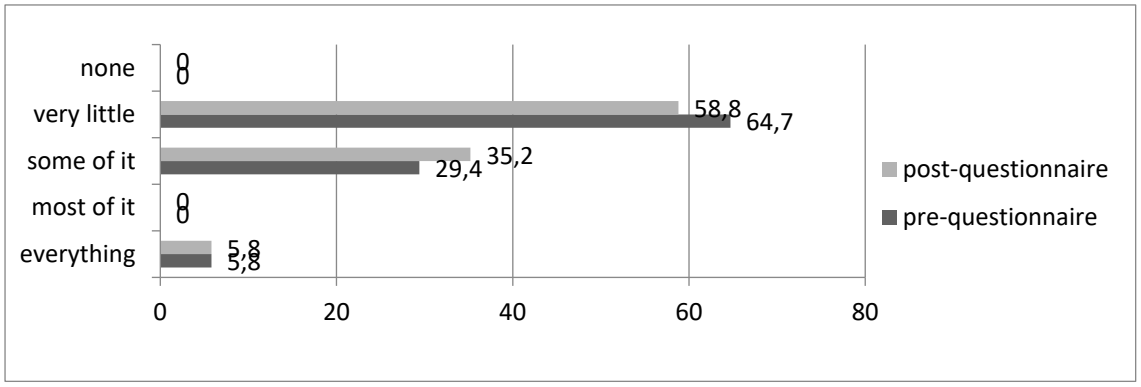


Chart 6. Control group students' comments before and after the 8 weeks of study.

The responses to whether captions assisted students to increase their listening skill confirmed that captioned video increased all learners' level of listening proficiency. Furthermore, majority of students claimed that captions increased their listening skill 'a lot'. To the question whether they thought learning English through watching video is fun, nearly 90% of the students believed that learning English through watching video is fun. It was

interesting to find out how positively students in the experimental group reacted to the treatment.

The last question, (10) elicited students' comments on, whether they perceived that captioned video could be used as a listening and learning tool outside the classroom.

In the light of the responses given to the last question, it was not surprising to discover that nearly all the students agreed that captioned video could be exerted as a listening and learning tool outside the classroom.

In the next section of the study, the questions 11 to 14 were only administered to students in the control group. At the end of the 8-weeks treatment, students in this group were displayed an episode with captions and they had to comment on whether captions would have helped them to understand the story better if they had watched the episodes with captions; whether they felt that captions would help them to learn further vocabulary; whether captions could progress their listening ability; whether they considered learning English through video is fun. None of the respondents were against the use of captioned presentation; moreover, they reported more positive attitude towards captioned video as learning and listening tool.

For examining the effects of captioning, before and after 8-weeks treatment, pre and post listening comprehension tests were conducted to assess their understanding. Apart from these two tests, an overall vocabulary test was also applied to assess their vocabulary acquisition all through the 8-weeks treatment. Then, in order to find out whether there was significant difference between two groups, a T-test was applied to the respondents.

The results of the Research Questions

The primary research question was reflected to obtain an answer to whether the students, who watch all eight episodes of the sitcom, would outperform those who watched it without captions, on a listening comprehension test. The results were displayed in tables and the experimental group made an average score of v56%, while the control group made 47 %. The result reveals that the experimental group learned nearly 20% better than the control group. In particular, students in the captioned condition scored 20% higher in learning of comprehension relative to the comparison group. The average difference of the two group students indicates a meaningful difference. The results of the T-test displayed that the group watching the sitcom with captioning scored excessively better on the listening comprehension test than the group without captioning. Accordingly, the first research question demonstrated a positive result for the researcher.

Research question 2 was reflected to discover an answer to whether captioned video would improve EFL students' vocabulary and phrase acquisition. As a result, the experimental group made an average score of 50%, while the control group scored 34.3%. In particular, students in the experimental group scored significantly higher, nearly 45% in learning of new vocabulary, relative to the control group. The average difference ($p<0.05$) of the two group of students designated a meaningful difference. In the experimental group, there has been a desired for improvement. Captioned presentation enhanced students' vocabulary/ phrase acquisition. Accordingly, research question 2 was also responded positively.

Research question 3 was seeking answer for whether captioned presentation helped students to overcome their listening difficulties. According to the responses in the experimental group roughly 90% of the students claimed that captions helped them 'a lot' to understand the story better. Only two students responded with 'some'. Accordingly, research question 3 was answered positively, too.

The last research question intended to explore an answer on whether this multi-sensory video (to view the video action, hear the spoken word, and see the printed text) presentation charmed students, and created a tendency for using captioning technology as a listening and learning tool outside the classroom for them? In order to collect data for the answer to this question, students were expected to indicate their preferences via two related questions. Roughly 90% of the students believed that learning English through video is fun, as can be seen in the chart 7:

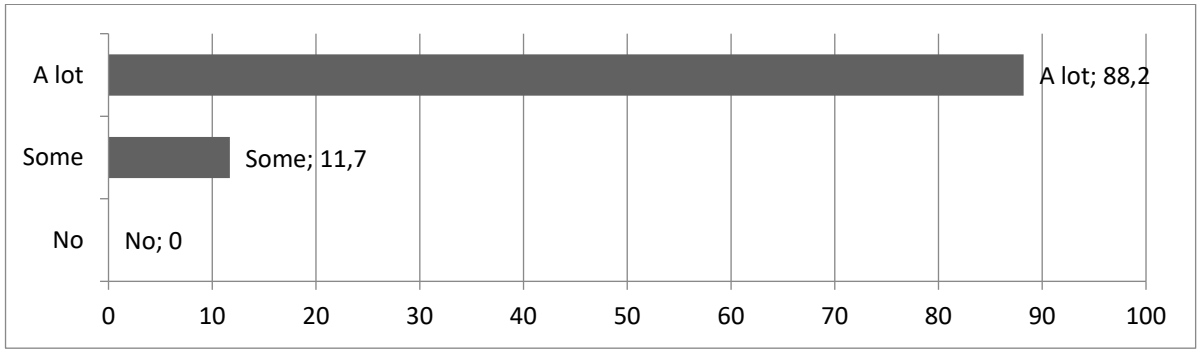
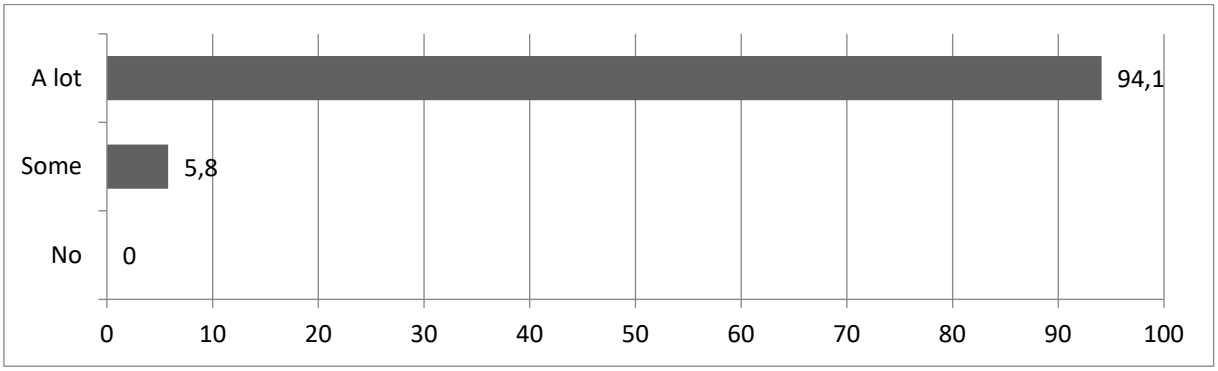


Chart 7. Question: Do you think learning English through watching video is fun?

Only two students were responded with 'some'. In the light of the percentages in the chart below, nearly all the students considered captioned video as a listening and learning tool which they could employ outside the school, by themselves.

Chart 8. Question: Do you think you can use captioned video as a listening and learning tool by yourself outside the classroom?



According to the students' answers to the questionnaire, this multi-sensory (to view the video action, hear the spoken word, and see the printed text) presentation charmed students, and created a tendency for using captioning technology as a listening and learning tool by themselves outside the classroom. Accordingly, the last research question also signified a positive result to the researcher.

Conclusion and Discussion

Technical advancements in digital multimedia present innovative techniques for foreign language learners. Such innovative techniques and methods are also crucial for all educators as they encourage students to apply and extend their foreign language learning.

This study aims to highlight the need for language teachers to be aware that mixing entertainment and education via authentic captioned-video will enhance learning. In order to create such an environment for learners, apart from their traditional classes, an experimental group was formed and trained with captions for eight weeks, while a control group was formed and trained without captions for eight weeks.

Throughout the research, the overall aim was to discover whether captioned-videos/films are more positive and effective than non- closed videos/films in terms of improving learning motivation and attitude, overall listening comprehension, vocabulary development and in terms of progressing EFL students' comprehension ability.

The results of listening comprehension test indicated that the experimental group, the group with captioning, scored considerably better in the listening comprehension test than the group without the use of captioning.

Since vocabulary or phrase acquisition is one of the essential factors influencing the success/failure in listening comprehension, the research additionally scrutinized the effects of captioning on this subscale, and it designated that the experimental group scored significantly better on the vocabulary test.

The results of the present study, concerning the significant outcome of the effects of captioned video on the students, - vocabulary, phrase acquisition and general comprehension- are clearly consistent with the results of previous studies, such as the works of Neuman and Koskinen (1993); Liversidge (1999), Goldman and Goldman (1988).

This research provides strong evidence that captioned video has beneficial influence on the listening comprehension and vocabulary/phrase acquisition on intermediate level EFL students at Selçuk University, School of Foreign Languages.

The results of the interviews reflected positive effects of captioning on students' attitudes. Captioning acted as motivational elements, and gained the attention of the students. As King (2002, p.516) also supports, the value and benefits of employing captioned films for language learners can be summarized as below to aid students in their further studies:

- learn to pronounce proper nouns in different disciplines through authentic video;
- acquire colloquial, context-bound expressions and slang via authentic text/speech;
- process a text rapidly and improve rapid reading by exercise;
- keep up with captioning that accompanies the native-speed spoken English;
- provide students with relaxing, stress-free learning environments where they can comprehend jokes and have a few hearty laughs;
- learn different strategies and skills for processing information.

In sum, as seen in the results of this research and the suggestions above, students' language improvement supported by captioned video provided students more meaningful language experience in the target language, as well as motivation to utilize captioned video for further success in the learning of EFL in their future lives. For further further research researchers can add other types of captioned video to their study, as well as conduct the study on a longer period of time than the present study to check its validity.

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[i] The data used in this article comes from the first author's MA thesis "The Use of Authentic Captioned Video as Listening Comprehension Material in English Language Teaching"[i]written under the supervision of the second author.

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On-Site Technology Use in Language Classrooms through the Eyes of the Pre-service Teachers: A qualitative study[i]

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Abstract

In foreign language (FL) learning, albeit technology is widely used, it is still discussed what language teachers experience when they are employing existing technologies for effective language learning practices. For technology-enhanced language classrooms, the first step would be to determine the needs and possible challenges of technology integration into actual classroom mediums. With regard to this motive, this study aims to investigate the on-site classroom practices of technology use for language teaching through the eyes of the pre-service teachers (PSTs) at a practicum school context. A total of 22 PSTs was required to observe and reflect on the teaching practices of cooperating teachers (CTs) at a high school related to the integration of technology in FL teaching. Data were collected qualitatively via reflection reports and semi-structured interviews along with observation and field notes on technology use, current practices in implementing technology in classes, and PSTs' own views about technology use with specific examples. The results yielded that PSTs reflected their observations often on the use of interactive whiteboards (IWBs) as accessible technology in the school context. However, they underlined the ineffective use of these devices and CTs' lack of awareness in implementing technology so as to enrich learning opportunities. Findings indicate fruitful implications for language teachers and teacher educators to integrate technology into language teacher education (LTE) and language classrooms.

Key Words: Language teacher education, technology integration, IWBs, educational technology

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Introduction

With the growing interest in technology use in education, it has been acknowledged that teachers of today need to think critically and practice a new pedagogy in the new digital era of constant technological challenges (Beetham & Sharpe, 2013). Especially in the recent diverse, mobile, unequal, and globalized world, it is of crucial importance to identify the needs of language teachers to help them adapt to technological advancements and use the available digital resources at optimum level to enhance proficiency in teaching performance (Johnson & Golombek, 2020). Even though most learners and teachers utilize technology in their daily lives, integrating technology into teaching may not be achieved automatically by transferring the necessary skills and social practices (Winke & Goertler, 2008). Hence, there is still a mismatch between the existing digital resources available and the actual on-site uses by teachers and learners. With this regard, teachers play a pivotal role to eliminate this mismatch in language classrooms.

The main underlying reasons for this 'mismatch' can be listed as the lack of knowledge and decision making on the best practices of technology employment in language teaching (Farr & Murray, 2016; Kennedy et al., 2010), and the presence of language teachers who graduate with little or no knowledge of how to use technology in language teaching (Aydın, 2013; Egbert & Thomas, 2001; Hubbard, 2008; Kessler, 2016). Furthermore, lack of training opportunities for technology education (Li & Ni, 2011) leaves teachers on their own which may lead to further frustration (Kuru Gönen, 2019). It is, then, obvious that language teachers need guidance in selecting and adapting to the latest technologies with necessary knowledge and skills (Kessler & Hubbard, 2017).

In order to meet the demands of the digital era, several initiatives were launched to provide a comprehensive framework for technology use for language teaching contexts in particular. As being one of these initiatives, TESOL Technology Standards, the most comprehensive framework designed for the unique needs of language teaching contexts, included a set of guidelines to specify the necessary technological competence of language teachers and learners (Healey et al., 2008). To meet the necessary standards, it is substantial for teachers primarily to explore the existing technologies in their teaching contexts, check their availability, analyze their options to integrate technology and integrate one technology at a time for effectiveness instead of trying to employ various new technological tools at once (Son, 2018). It is in a similar vein to what Bax (2011) underlined as conducting 'needs audit' first which refers to teachers' questioning and evaluating technological tools they have in their teaching contexts rather than pacing the floor hastily to integrate any recent technology.

A preliminary requirement in the successful integration of technology into the language classroom is having positive perceptions and attitudes towards technology and awareness regarding its benefits to language teaching (Al-Jarrah, Talafhah, & Al-Jarrah, 2019; Merç, 2015). In both in-service and pre-service teaching contexts, language teachers by a majority adopt positive attitudes towards operating technology to foster interaction and collaboration, promote visual stimulus, and create effective learning activities albeit the differences in teaching models applied in their teaching contexts (Aydın, 2013; Mei, Brown, & Teo, 2018, Meyer, 2015). However, language teachers generally lack the necessary mental and technical skills to use the technology at hand in their classrooms (Lozano & Izquierdo, 2019), and how to train teachers effectively to help them integrate technology in their own teaching contexts is still nebulous (Aydın, 2017).

In a language classroom, reasons for drawbacks in technology use can be attributed to some restrictions in budgeting, additional planning time required, limited classroom time, and most importantly lack of training (Godwin-Jones, 2015). Although in-service teachers believe technological innovations in the language classroom foster motivation and engagement in language learning, they may still have some concerns in classroom management, lack of knowledge, pedagogical practices, and technical support while integrating technology into their language teaching and learning environment (Al-Jarrah et al., 2019). Teachers may not even know how to identify available technological tools such as software and hardware and may not have a strong preference and solid rationale in selecting what technology to incorporate into lessons (Ibouhouten, 2018). Such hesitation may hinder the use of available technological resources in an effective way for language teaching (Lee, 2019). Recently, it has been revealed that in-service EFL teachers lack confidence in integrating digital technologies due to the heavy load of teaching hours, limited technology proficiency, and student's low proficiency levels (Weerakanto, 2019). As a result, it is quite essential to explore in-class activities of teachers to alleviate potential hindrances of successful prevalent technology implementation.

Regarding the pre-service LTE, prospective teachers may hold varying perceptions towards technology integration due to the availability of technology in their teaching contexts, personal and culture related experiences, and their cognitive insight (Chaklikova & Karabayeva, 2015). It has been discovered that there is a lack of authentic tasks where PSTs can manage and practice technology-enhanced concrete activities (Tondeur et al., 2012). Despite the expectations in terms of using technology in the language classroom proficiently, PSTs may still fall behind these expectations (Gill, Dalgamo, & Carlson, 2015). To overcome this, Aşık et al. (2019) indicated that the LTE programs need to offer more opportunities with

the aim of developing particular strategies such as role modeling, reflection, authentic experiences, feedback, and instructional design to employ information communication technologies (ICT). Likewise, Hsu (2016) pinpointed the need to offer training opportunities to optimize the effectiveness of using ICTs in accordance with curricular goals. In a pre-service LTE context, Batane and Ngwako (2017) attained that even though the majority of the prospective teachers supported the use of technology, reported to have the necessary skills, and believed in its effectiveness, they were not aware of the existing available resources in the classrooms and they were hesitant to use technology after all. As a result, identifying how teachers perceive technology use in their teaching contexts, and investigating current practices regarding the implementation of technology into language teaching would illuminate the ways to provide effective training to both in-service and pre-service teachers in accordance with their needs. Based on this idea, this study aims at understanding technology use in actual teaching contexts based on on-site observations and reflections of prospective teachers and finding out the rationale behind the use of existing technologies in language classrooms.

Technology in Foreign Language Classrooms

Recent advancements in ICTs and the Internet tools provide academic and social development opportunities for both learners and teachers via new assessment models, collaboration mediums, visual stimulants, and learning activities (Meyer, 2015). Rapid and increasing developments in technology have paved the way for its use in language classrooms, as well. Even though some learners are experience adversities whilst accessing to the Internet or various individual devices such as laptops, smartphones, or tablets (van Deursen & van Dijk, 2019), one of the most common ways and devices of technology use in language classrooms is the use of IWBs. This technology has been incorporated into classrooms for many years; however, how it is perceived by its hands-on users (i.e. teachers and learners) has not been explored fully with respect to technology integration in language teaching and learning.

IWBs in language teaching

IWB is a type of all-in-one technology which combines several instructional aids such as chalkboard, whiteboard, television, video, overhead projector, CD player, and computer (Yáñez & Coyle, 2011). The benefits of IWB use in language classrooms were listed by Schmid and Schimmack (2010) as follows:

> *a) facilitating the integration of new media in the regular language classroom, b) enhancing the scope of interactivity and learner engagement in the lesson, c)*

> *supporting the development of so-called "electronic literacies", and d) meeting the needs of students with diverse learning styles (aural, visual and kinesthetic) through the use of multiple media*. (p.198).

Moreover, IWB has additionally been found avail and effective as it enhances interaction and collaborative learning (Bettsworth, 2010), brings authenticity into the classroom (Stanley, 2014; Whyte, 2011), and facilitates comprehension of input and supports output production (Cutrim Schmid, 2008). IWBs also allow access to Internet resources and the ability to project videos and images, all of which improve language instruction in classrooms (Yang & Huang, 2008).

In terms of language learning and teaching, several studies ranging from elementary to higher education contexts revealed the potential of IWBs from the standpoint of fostering interactivity through meaningful language use (Cutrim Schmid & Schimmack, 2010), and enhancing multiple learning styles (Cutrim Schmid, 2008). Fang and Lee (2018) focused on exploring the effects of the IWB integrated approach on elementary students' achievement of and their attitudes towards their mother tongue, Taiwanese, when compared with traditional instruction without the use of any technology. Findings yielded an advantage on behalf of the IWB integrated approach group both on achievement scores and fostering positive attitudes towards their mother tongue. In a similar vein, Johnson et al. (2010) interviewed language teachers and their students and conducted classroom observation in order to reveal both teachers' and students' perspectives of what worked and what needed to be improved corresponding to the use of IWBs in a language classroom. It was specified that both teachers and students make personal transformations within the IWB context, and there is a need for collaborative work among teachers and more opportunities for teachers on how to use technology. Moreover, in a Korean EFL classroom, Hur and Suh (2012) examined effective ways of integrating IWB along with digital storytelling and podcasting to develop language skills. Results designated that when tools like podcasts and digital stories were embedded in IWBs, it was possible to create an active learning environment and diversify class activities to arouse curiosity and motivation.

Research on IWBs in general underscores the effectiveness of this tool on student learning, positive attitudes towards language use, and improvement in instructional skills. Despite various benefits, it has also been acknowledged that IWB use might induce some problems. The possible drawbacks of IWB use can be summarized as easy assimilation leading to patterns of replicating previous (traditional) practice (Cutrim Schmid, 2011; Whyte & Alexander 2014; Whyte, 2015), increase in teacher-centeredness (Gray, 2010), cognitive

overload (Cutrim Schmid, 2008), and lack of modification or creation of new content (Cutrim Schmid & van Hazebrouck 2010). In order to overcome these problems, Kennewell and Beauchamp (2007) denote that there is a need for a 'new wave of professional development in ICT which takes account of the extended list of ICT's features and the need to embed them in teachers' pedagogical knowledge and reasoning' (p.240). Hence, to meet this dual need for developing technical skills and pedagogical knowledge, teachers' attitude towards this technology in various EFL/ESL contexts needs to be investigated, and rather than treating them as visual screens that substitute blackboards, how influentially they can be instilled into language learning can be mapped (Whyte, Beauchamp, & Alexander, 2014).

IWBs in Turkish EFL classrooms

IWB technology is one of the available tools for most EFL teachers in Turkey recently as a result of an education reform movement. Since this study focuses on technology use in language classrooms at high schools in Turkey, we believe that it is a necessity to expound the Fatih Project, a comprehensive technology reformation at schools in Turkey. Due to the increased awareness and necessity of technology integration in education, in 2012, Turkey launched a project called FATİH which stands for 'Movement of Enhancing Opportunities and Improving Technology' in Turkish. The Fatih Project, run by the Ministry of National Education of Turkey (MoNE), aimed to provide five components for technology integration in education: a) providing equipment and software substructure, b) providing educational e-content and management of them, c) effective usage of the ICT in teaching programs, d) in-service training of the teachers e) conscious, reliable, manageable and measurable ICT usage. With these objectives in mind, at first, it was aimed that around 42.000 schools and 570.000 classes would be equipped with the latest information technologies such as IWBs with LCD panel, Internet network infrastructure, multifunction printers, and document camera (MoNE, 2012). Recently, around 432 thousand IWBs and 1 million 437 thousand tablet PCs have been delivered to the primary, secondary, and high schools and students across the country, according to the recent data retrieved from the official website of the project (http://fatihprojesi.meb.gov.tr/etahta.html).

With respect to the outcomes of this project, Öz (2014) investigated perceptions of high school EFL learners and their teachers on the use of IWBs in the language classrooms, and whether some variables such as gender, students' level of proficiency, teachers' year of experience make any difference on their perceptions of this available technological tool in the classroom. Findings, in general, indicated that both students and teachers perceive IWB as a tool to provide an enjoyable atmosphere for language learning and foster motivation regardless

of the variables under investigation. Even though perceptions of the participants were by a majority positive, it has been revealed that students and teachers need training on the effective use of IWB technology. Furthermore, due to the unavailability of appropriate e-materials for IWBs and problems in the integration of tablets, teachers lose interest and motivation in handling this available technology in EFL classrooms. It is highlighted that there is a need for investigating teachers' experiences with this tool to explore their capacity to comply with integrative skills in using IWBs. In a similar vein, focusing on the use of technology with Turkish EFL high school students, Han and Okatan (2016) observed IWB use in actual language classrooms and detected that IWB equipped lessons had a positive impact on concentration and in-class participation. This study underlined conducting more research to discover both teachers' and students' experiences and attitudes towards such technology to enhance EFL learning.

How effectively technology integration is initiated by the facilities of such nationwide projects mentioned above, and how other available technologies used in the actual Turkish EFL context are worth investigating in order to shed light on how and to what extent technology is used for language teaching purposes. In this way, it would be possible to determine possible challenges and needs to ameliorate both in-service and pre-service language teacher training in EFL contexts such as Turkey.

Aim and significance of the study

Although the literature on technology use and its affordances in ELT provides valuable insights, there is a dearth of studies which intend to explore actual on-site practices of technology use in language classrooms. Identifying the actual classroom practices of technology in language classrooms might offer considerable implications for in/pre-service English LTE.

Studies conducted in the Turkish education context yield that both pre- and in-service teachers cannot cope with the expected levels of technology integration (Akbulut, Odabaşı, & Kuzu, 2011; Yılmaz, 2007) in general. Some of the reasons for this adversity are explained in terms of technological illiteracy, lack of knowledge on the use of instructional technologies such as whiteboards and mobile devices (Tezci, 2011; Yavuz-Konokman, Yanpar-Yelken, & Sancar-Tokma, 2013). Previous research emphasizes a need to conduct studies in EFL classes to ascertain what language teachers experience in actual classroom settings in terms of implementing technology.

In order to provide more concrete suggestions and improved training on technology integration in language teaching and LTE programs, it is still needed to determine the existing challenges and possible opportunities for technology use in language teaching through critical observation. However, this investigation remains underexplored in the field. To this end, the current study was conducted to investigate the actual classroom practices of technology use for language teaching through PSTs' viewpoints. The study could be considered significant as it attempts to explore the reflections of the prospective teachers' observations after a six-week observation (longitudinal) period instead of a one-time observation slot. Another significance of the study is that the findings are based on the observations and field notes rather than self-reported perceptions and claims of CTs on their technology use. With this motivation in mind, the study was generated to seek answers to the following research question:

1. What are the perceptions of the PSTs in a Turkish EFL context on the actual classroom practices of technology use for language teaching?

Method

Research Context

The study was conducted at an ELT department of a state university in Turkey during a practicum course. ELT programs in Turkey last for four years at BA level and practicum takes place in the last year. The practicum period is held at the program with two courses: the 'School Experience' course in the first semester and the 'Teaching Experience' in the second semester. The PSTs are supposed to regularly attend practicum in primary or secondary schools, complete the observation tasks, prepare lesson plans, and practice teaching. The study was conducted in the first semester with the medium of the course called 'School Experience', which requires PSTs' participation in the lessons of the CT four hours a week for observation and task completion (observation and reflection) and under the supervision of their supervisor at the university.

Participants

A total of 22 PSTs (19 females, 3 males) participated in the study. The PSTs who participated in this study practiced their internship at two different state high schools in Ankara, Turkey. They were identified according to the non-probability convenience sampling method suggested by Creswell (2005) since all of them were available and volunteered at the time of the study. The PSTs signed consent forms that guaranteed the confidentiality of their participation. As for the requirement of the course called "School Experience" of the first term

of the fourth grade, the PSTs were required to complete an observation task assigned by their supervisor each week and submit it to their teacher trainer at the university. The observation tasks encapsulated reflections concerning classroom management, assessment, methodology, language teaching materials, classroom interaction, technology use, and so on. Based on these observations reports and reflections, weekly sessions with their teacher trainer at the university were held to discuss and elaborate on these topics.

Data Collection

The data were collected qualitatively through reflection reports written by the PSTs based on their observation and field notes as for the requirement of a task assigned within the course called "School Experience" in 2018-2019 academic year Fall Term. The PSTs were required to write a detailed reflection report according to the following guideline:

> *Please write a report about technology use at the practicum school. Give detailed information about your observations and comments about the technological devices and their use at school. Discuss how cooperating teachers (CTs) use technology in/out of the classroom, for which general and language teaching purposes CTs use technology. Please also state your own reflection and opinion about technology use and support your reflection and argumentation with specific examples from actual practices*.

The task was assigned to the PSTs in the sixth week of their first practicum period. The participants were informed that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions. They were asked for objective observation and their own reflection and opinions on technology use in the practicum school. They wrote their reflections in English. Since they were senior ELT students and the tasks were one of the requirements of the course, English was utilized as the language of the reports.

Data Analysis

The study adopted a qualitative analysis approach. Research findings were based on the ideals of qualitative analysis for the 'Grounded Theory', which allows interaction with the data and for ideas about it to emerge through continuous comparisons (Smith, 2008). In the current study, the Constant Comparison Method (CCM) was implemented to analyze participants' reflection reports. CCM method allows for sorting, coding, and connecting pieces of data according to emerging patterns and themes rather than predetermined sets of categories (Leong, Joseph, and Boulay 2010). Following the principles of the CCM, first of all, communication units (any idea, thought, or feeling associated with the purposes of the study) that reflected participants' observations and opinions on technology use in language classrooms were

identified. Then, similar communication units were constantly compared and contrasted until they were formed into sub-themes. In the final step, the main themes were formed from the identified sub-themes. Thus, all categories emerged from the existing data to present STs' reflections and opinions with respect to technology use. For the effective presentation of the data, communication units were quantified according to their frequency. Furthermore, sample extracts from reflection reports were given to exemplify the categories that emerged and to present a more in-depth discussion. Corresponding to the reliability of the qualitative analysis, two separate raters who are experienced in the CCM method analyzed the data by sorting, delineating, and identifying the categories. The formula for inter-rater reliability (the number of agreements/the number of agreements (x) the number of disagreements multiplied by 100) suggested by Tawney and Gast (1984) was used, and it was found was .91, which showed a high degree of reliability indicating that raters reached a consensus on the coding and categorization of data (Gwet, 2014).

Results

Qualitative data collected through reflection reports were analyzed through constant and comparison methodology of emerging communication units. Subsequent to this phase, the data were quantified and tabulated via descriptive statistics by using the number of communication units and percentages. The numbers of the codes and exploratory statements are presented below. Furthermore, in order to illustrate the results with concrete examples, a number of quotations and explanatory statements from reports of the PSTs are also presented.

The qualitative data analysis resulted in a sum of 208 codes including three main themes and 14 sub-themes, all of which were tabulated below. Regarding the main themes emerged from the analysis, the PSTs' reflections mostly focused on three common themes related to the technology used at the practicum school: a) IWB use in the language classroom, b) technology for teaching English, and c) technology use in the school context, as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. *Main themes on classroom practices of technology use in the practicum context*

Main Themes	**N***
IWB Use in the Language Classroom	74
Technology for EFL	68
Technology Use in the School Context	66

	208
TOTAL	

N*: Number of communication units

The findings above revealed that PSTs attributed IWB as the main source of technology in the classroom. The theme "IWB use" was categorized as a separate theme since a considerable number of the reflection reports of the PSTs embraced several references to IWB use which constituted the main technological tool available. When these mentions focusing on IWB were analyzed, several sub-themes emerged in connection to the distinct types of IWB use by both the CTs and language students, all of which are presented in Table 2 with explanatory statements.

Table 2. *Sub-themes related to IWB use in the language classroom*

IWB use in the Language Classroom	**Explanatory Statements**	**N***
IWBs are used …		
to show the content of the coursebook	*They (IWBs) are used to display part of the coursebook, give and check coursebook activities*	28
by teachers ineffectively	*Teachers are not aware of how to use them effectively*	28
by students for presentations	*Ss use them mainly for ppt presentations*	10
for various purposes other than language teaching	*They (IWBs) are used merely as a projector, computer*	8
		74
	TOTAL	

N*: Number of communication units

As it is clear from Table 2, the results indicate that IWBs are mostly used to *display the English coursebook* such as projecting the relevant activity, the text, and the content of the unit. Pertaining to this advantage of IWB use, one PST explains how IWB facilitate material management in the classroom in the following extract:

> "*I think it is so advantageous for those who forget to bring their own books. They can easily follow the lesson with the help of the smartboard. The teacher doesn't have another device for the listening activities. Smartboard enables her to do everything. It has a sound system. The teacher can open the listening tracks and students listen to them. It is so practical. Because the smartboard has everything in it, there is no need of using any other technological device in the classroom."* (PST5)

Another significant result was related to the comments of the PSTs on the *inefficient use of IWB by their CTs*. It was attained that the in-service language teachers in the practicum context could not employ IWB for several teaching purposes other than the display of the coursebook content. The lack of necessary knowledge and competence of technology use of the CTs is also supported by other sub-themes which are discussed below. For example, in the following excerpt, one PST illustrates how the language teachers struggle with the smartboard:

> "*For example, the teacher did not know how to use the smartboard effectively. The teacher generally got help from students, which caused a waste of time. In addition, the teacher had to stand in front of the board during the lesson that is why; she was not effective with classroom management."* (PST20)

Furthermore, IWB is also *used by the students for their presentations in the classrooms*. The reflection reports indicate that the students are eager to apply IWB in the classroom as a medium for the requirements of the course (i.e. to show a website and a link, prepare ppt presentations). Another type of IWB use reported is the use of smartboards as basic technology devices such as a projector or a computer. That is, IWB is rather considered as a kind of screen which provides visual stimulus available to all students. The PSTs discuss this limited use of

IWB in relation to language teaching purposes, which are also illustrated in the following sub-themes.

The second main theme, 'Technology for EFL' comprises several sub-themes on the perceptions of the PSTs towards technology use for EFL contexts. As remarked in Table 3 below, the perceptions are particularly positive. Thus, the findings reveal that PSTs support the idea that technology promotes language learning by facilitating the process and provides an effective medium of instruction.

Table 3. *Sub-themes related to technology for EFL*

Technology for EFL	**Explanatory Statements**	**N***
Technology promotes language learning	*Technology facilitates the language learning process and helps to learn more effectively*	16
Teachers should integrate technology into language learning	*They should use technology not only in the class but out of class as well*	16
Teenagers are enthusiastic about technology use	*They are prone to connect with others via social networking, emailing, etc. technology provides authentic materials and resources*	14
Teenagers benefit much from technology	*They can make connections via technology in learning FL*	12
Teachers need technology training	*Teachers lack the necessary knowledge and practice on integrating technology into FL*	10
	TOTAL	**68**

N*: Number of communication units

As can be distinguished in Table 3, PSTs clearly are aware that *technology use in the school context promotes language learning* as it provides influential learning opportunities with quick access to language materials, multimodality (visual, auditory, and kinesthetic features), and practice chances. PSTs also reported that *teachers need to integrate technology for language learning purposes*. It has been found that teachers use technology in a limited way. Since the available technology-IWBs- are rather considered as mere projector-like devices, EFL teachers avoid operating them for enhancing learning opportunities for language teaching. However, it is emphasized that the high school students, who are *teenagers* in the study, are enthusiastic about technology use and *can benefit much from technology* for language learning. That is, these learners are familiar with technology in their personal lives and can adapt to employing it for language learning. Another observation of the PSTs was the lack of technology knowledge of the teachers, which can be asserted as one of the main challenges why technology integration into language teaching cannot be done. Hence, findings indicated that *teachers need training* in order to integrate technology effectively. In relation to these argumentations, the following excerpts indicate the suggestions and opinions of the PSTs for more effective and improved use of technology:

> *"The smartboard can be used in other ways. There are so many applications that help students to learn and practice English (such as Kahoot). With the help of these apps, students become more active by playing online games. I hope to see that the smartboard is used for different purposes through different applications in the future lessons." (PST5)*

> *"It is now a technological era so there are lots of applications and so on in terms of teaching and teaching-learning a foreign language. I can give Kahoot, Powtoon, Edmodo, Socrative, etc. as some examples and I must say these are quite useful materials when it comes using in the lesson. That's why maybe they could use these sites and other sites while teaching English." (PST13)*

> *"Teacher as far as I observed do not use the application Kahoot, Socrative, Edmodo, or Prezi. I think adopting these applications to the lessons would enhance learning and students would be more enthusiastic to learn. I hope that I will apply technology to my future classes." (PST11)*

The extracts above clearly designate that the PSTs are familiar with the latest common Web 2.0 tools which can be used for language teaching purposes since they had the training during their pre-service teacher education program. The limited use of IWB (to display the coursebook content or as an audio and projection device) is criticized by the PSTs since IWBs have several affordances for a more motivating, interesting, creative medium of instruction. As a result, the PSTs were aware that technology is not completely inserted into language learning in the school context.

The final main theme is 'Technology Use in the School Context' in general. Table 4 below displays that although technology is not effectively used for enhancing teaching and learning in general, technological devices are accessible, available, and commonly used in the school for various purposes. This finding is to be explained with the Fatih project launched in Turkey at the national level (the details of the project were explained earlier).

Table 4. *Sub-themes related to technology use in the school context in general*

Technology Use in the School Context	Explanatory Statements	N*
In general…		
various technological devices are used for educational and managerial purposes	*Computers are used to fulfill institutional duties, design visual materials; smartboards; photocopy machines for multiple handouts*	24
students at school are technologically adept and expert	*Students are comfortable, professional, they deal with and fix technological problems*	20
technology is widely used in the school context	*In every class via various devices with an internet connection*	14

the school uses technology to ease Ss' learning process	*Technology facilitates some tasks*	4
technology use is ineffective at the school	*It is not used effectively for learning*	4
	TOTAL	**66**

N*: Number of communication units

Table 4 displays that devices such as computers are *used for practical purposes to fulfill duties* like tracking student absence, filling out daily managerial forms, and writing lesson plans. Furthermore, another observation stated by the PSTs is that *the students are competent in technology*. The students can fix the problems with the IWBs or any other equipment. It has been commonly indicated that the students are more tech-savvy than their teachers. In classrooms, when there is a problem with IWBs, the teachers generally ask for help from the students. The following extracts exemplify such a similar situation:

> *"The teacher just clicks on and plays the listening track. As far as I have observed this far, the teacher is not so good at dealing with technology. However, she tries her best. She just needs help sometimes. For instance, she asks for help from the students inside the classroom, and from us outside the classroom." (PST3)*

> *"As a specific example, I can talk about a student who had a presentation. She was very good at using the board. She made a presentation and also, she prepared a video about it. However, the teachers on the other hand are not very good at using these machines. They should get more education about using smart boards in classes in an effective way." (PST19)*

Moreover, the PSTs mostly reported that in each classroom there is a student (kind of a 'tech guy') who is responsible for the problems encountered with the IWBs on a voluntary basis. However, it has also been stated that the time allocated to IWB device problems was sometimes too much that classroom time was to be wasted. *Classrooms are wired with technological devices* (e.g. projectors, IWBs, audio tools) and Internet connection is available

even though it is of limited use due to some institutional restrictions at state schools such as unavailability to connect worldwide sites like YouTube. In this respect, PSTs observed that albeit many problems, *the school uses technology to ease learning* and that it is possible to facilitate some tasks (i.e. listening tasks, language games, tasks that are based on visual input). Finally, some of the PSTs noticed that *technology use in general in the school context is ineffective* as available tools are not performed effectively by the teachers and learners. All in all, in the high school EFL context, integration of technology is not compatible with recent advancements in the use of educational technology, and there is an obvious need for creating more opportunities to learn by focusing on the findings of the study which are discussed in the following section.

Discussion

The findings indicate that technology is used for various purposes in the Turkish EFL high school context, schools are tech-friendly, equipped with accessible technology, and that the IWBs are the main technological devices in the language classrooms. However, IWBs are frequently used for coursebook content display including mostly listening activities, videos, visuals, and checking answers. In this respect, IWBs are considered merely as screen regardless of their potential for enhancing language learning. It is revealed that more interactive uses of IWBs (such as online games, useful language learning resources and webpages, creative language practices) are not known and practiced by the teachers. In this regard, Dudeney and Hockly (2016) specify that the effect of technology can be recognized when it is used for making the language task more effective or engaging for learners. The findings of the current study are in correspondence with Cutrim Schmid and van Hazebrouck (2010) which additionally discuss the superficial interactivity of IWB-based activities that lead 'patterns of technology use in which students interact with the IWB mainly to reveal answers embedded in the electronic files or to move pictures or text boxes across the screen without modification or creation of new content' (p.127). In this sense, it has been criticized that teachers use IWBs by just replicating their traditional practices (Cutrim Schmid, 2016). However, it has been spotted by Han and Okatan (2016) that IWB equipped lessons had positive influence on more concentrated and increased participation.

Even though the PSTs asserted that the use of IWBs makes lessons more engaging and motivating in the high school context of the current study, they cannot be applied for the provision of effective language learning opportunities. This can stem from the idea that may

not find appropriate grounds in integrating existing technology to create meaningful lessons due to time constraints or the perceived necessities although they have positive attitudes towards technology in the language classroom (Dalton, 2012; Hutchison & Reinking, 2011). Öz (2014) relates the ineffective use of IWBs in Turkish EFL contexts to lack of technical support at state schools which causes further ambiguity in deciding on how best to employ these tools. What is more, lack of materials tailored to the features of IWBs can be one of the reasons for teachers' inability to use existing technologies in their classrooms to redound language learning. In order to solve this problem, teachers can purport to critical thinking skills to adapt their materials to existing technologies, use cooperative learning ideas, and employ learning strategies in order to benefit more from IWBs (Miller & Glover, 2009).

Since the results depict that teachers (CTs) are not aware of potential uses of IWBs or technology in general, the PSTs reported the need for technology training for more creative, effective, and interactive uses of IWBs. English in-service teachers need to go through a process of technology development that goes beyond the familiarization with IWB presentation tools (Cutrim Schmid, 2012; Cutrim Schmid & Whyte, 2015). For example, combining IWBs with other interactive technologies such as collaborative videoconferencing software and learner response systems (Cardoso, 2011; Cutrim Schmid & Whyte, 2014) can create opportunities for successful technology integration into the classroom context. Therefore, IWBs need to be used in a more learner-centered way in the FL by means of constructivist practices (Cutrim Schmid, 2016). Even though teachers generally have basic ICT skills, findings clearly call for an urgent initiation for providing training opportunities for language teachers. Additional technological training is assumed to foster teacher confidence in integrating technology into their teaching (Hutchison & Reinking, 2011). Likewise, Johnson et al. (2015) assert that teachers should participate in professional development programs and seek assistance in technological practices before they design innovative learning activities. In this way, teachers can meet the digital literacy requirements and the necessary pedagogical knowledge to guide students in this digital era (Weerakanto, 2019). When teachers lack the necessary knowledge and experience and are now aware of how to use available technological devices such as the IWBs, it is of no use for any class to be equipped with the latest technologies (Çoklar & Tercan, 2014).

Another result related to technology use is students' enthusiasm and creativity to use technology more than their teachers. PSTs reported that English teachers often ask help from students when they need to used technology. It is noticeable that students are more capable of and comfortable in utilizing technological devices such as the IWBs. It is in accordance with

the view that teachers can learn integrating new technologies from their hands-on practices or from their students who are technological experts (Dudeney et al., 2013). The new generation can easily adapt to recent technological advancements as they are considered as digital natives who are grown up with the necessary digital skills to survive in a digital world (Prensky, 2001). However, using technology in daily life for various purposes and using it to enhance learning are two different things. This leads us to reconsider the misleading idea that any technology will by and of itself automatically lead to 'better' learning (Hockly, 2013). In this respect, students may need tech-savvy teachers who can enrich learning environments with effective implementation of technology. As a result, in addition to students' use of technological skills, teachers need to achieve an understanding of using technology for the sake of promoting language learning rather than using it for its own sake.

The results of the study also indicated that all PSTs have positive perceptions of technology use in language classrooms. They find it encouraging, motivating for students, and they reflected that in the future they aim at using technology more effectively. PSTs are willing to use technology more influentially in the future. When PSTs were guided to observe and reflect on how technology is used in the practicum context, they had a chance to notice how technology is applied in the school context, the importance of effective implementation of technology, and teachers' lack of necessary skills and practices to this end. PSTs realized that having access to technology does not ensure teachers' using it meaningfully and purposefully in their teaching practices (Navaridas, Santiago & Tourón, 2013; Ryan & Joong, 2005). In addition to informing prospective teachers on the use of technology in foreign language education, how well they accept, and how ready they are to use this technology are crucial for successful technology integration. Thus, this study can also be considered as an initial step in creating awareness for PSTs in exploring actual teaching practices at state schools in terms of technology integration. When they focus on both effective and ineffective practices, they can notice the gap in their own knowledge and practice, which may in turn help them seek ways for upgrading themselves professionally to enhance learning and teaching via technology.

Conclusion and Implications

This study aimed at inspecting the use of technology in FL classes at a high school context in Turkey from the viewpoints of prospective teachers who observe and reflect on language lessons as part of a practicum course. PSTs in the study noticed many discrepancies related to the availability of technological devices at schools and their successful integration into language study. The results of the study mainly indicate a call for training for teachers to integrate technology in a more creative and compelling way to foster motivation, promote

language skills, and provide opportunities for language practice. The findings of the current study once again confirmed that in addition to the use of recent technology in the classroom, it is substantial for teachers to implement technology in a sound and pedagogically efficient way to create more learning opportunities for language learners (Lozano & Izquierdo, 2019).

Based on the urgent need for technology training for both pre- and in-service teachers, one implication of this study could be to design workshops, seminars, certificate programs (both online and face to face) that would provide opportunities for hands-on practices of effective technology integration. Hutchison and Reinking (2011) also call for support from administrators and policymakers in providing professional development workshops for teachers. Best practices, useful applications, and technology implementation models can be presented to teachers in order to create awareness of using technology with the aim of enriching language teaching practices and motivate them. Additionally, teachers may form communities of practices (CoPs) to collaboratively work on mastering necessary ICT skills and motivational support to have inspiration for engaging practices (Hanson-Smith, 2016). As revealed in the current study, assistance and opportunities may assist teachers to use technology in a balanced way to augment existing practices, design and evaluate resources for available technologies such as the IWBs, and manage interaction with these devices.

Another implication of the study would be to involve PSTs more in the practices of technology use at the practicum schools. Prospective teachers are part of the new generation who are engaged in technology more often than the CTs, and their reflections revealed that they seek alternative ways to incorporate technology into their lessons. As a suggestion, training models like Reverse Mentoring Model suggested by Aydın (2017) may help both pre- and in-service teachers to gain techno-pedagogical knowledge. By restructuring the teaching practice process, pre-service teachers who are more equipped with technological knowledge will mentor their in-service teachers creating an environment in which both groups of teachers will be learning from each other. This reverse model may create a win-win atmosphere in which prospective teachers act as a catalyst to ease the integration process of technology into language learning and in-service teachers guide them with their teaching experience whenever necessary. Teacher educators may benefit from such experience to arrange technology courses at universities and new LTE courses can be implemented

This study additionally has some limitations that it is mainly based on observations and reflections of a limited number of PSTs at two high school contexts. Further studies can be conducted with more PSTs and CTs at other EFL contexts, and longitudinal studies employing discrete data collection tools such as questionnaires on eliciting their attitudes and motivation

towards technology and investigating the effects of using various tools in FL learning may offer valuable insight into technology and LTE. All in all, this study provides insight into on-site applications of educational technology in FL learning/teaching and echoes popular remark that technology will be a great transformational tool in the hands of great teachers rather than replacing them (Couros, 2015).

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EFL learners' locus of control and translation achievement

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Abstract

This study sought to investigate the relationship between Internal Locus of Control and English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' translation achievement and to explore whether there was a significant difference in locus of control among different groups of EFL learners. The participants of the study comprised seventy-two EFL tertiary level students in a translation course at a state university in Turkey. The data were collected by means of Internal Locus of Control Index (ILCI) and achievement tests. Findings revealed that EFL learners' loci of control significantly moderated their translation achievement. They had the potential to use their effort in translation studies when they were required to translate even complicated translation works. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation and partial correlation tests indicated that the higher EFL learners' internal locus of control was, the more they achieved in the translation course.

Key Words: Locus of control, EFL learners, translation achievement, internal locus of control, external locus of control

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Introduction

Locus of control (LOC) is a kind of psychological construct which significantly affects individuals' motivation and language learning (Weiner, 1992). Individuals with an internal locus of control orientation tend to direct their success and failure to their efforts, while those with an external locus of control orientation believe that superficial values and beliefs such as luck and fate have much role. The concept of internal locus of control is related to Attribution Theory which is concerned with how and why individuals explain events as they do (Jarvis, 2005). Developed by Weiner (1992), the Theory of Attribution embraces four attributions, how the individuals see or understand success and failure in their life as effort, ability, success, and the level of difficulty of the tasks they are in. The nature of the attributions related to learners' success or failure was explained in three ways- locus of control, stability, and lastly controllability (Weiner, 1992). Locus of control indicates individuals' beliefs that can be controlled by events affecting them. Stability defines the idea that failure or success may have stable causes or unstable ones, and controllability is the situation that events or elements are within the individuals' control or not.

In various countries of the world, the tertiary level students who have learned English as a foreign language are studying to achieve expertise in translation among the compulsory courses at their universities. As translation studies have a high potential in the agenda of countries speaking English as a foreign language, it is vital to understand how people recognize the world, and each individual has a very decisive responsibility in their own learning process. Thus, it is more efficient not to focus on how learners are different from one another or measuring language learners' differences. In fact, it would be avail to spotlight how learners perceive themselves as foreign language learners, and what influences their individual views have on their learning processes. The purpose of the present paper is to examine the relationship between Internal Locus of Control and English as a foreign language (EFL) students' translation achievement and to apprehend whether or not there is a significant difference in locus of control among different groups of EFL students.

Literature review

A locus of control is a construct depending on whether the results of individuals' actions are outcomes of what they do –internally- or on events outside their personal control – externally- (Zimbardo, 1985). Psychologist Julian Rotter proposed that human behaviors were directed by rewards and punishments, and that there was a potentially serious relationship

between the causes and consequences for their actions (1966). This suggests that individuals' beliefs about the causes of their actions, in turn, influence their behaviors and attitudes (Kool, & Agrawal, 2006).

Internal locus of control

Individuals with an internal locus of control perceive that the right decisions and efforts they made result in their winning the award. If they do not achieve, they consider that is because of their very own lack of effort. An internal locus of control has been shown to develop with the development of self-regulatory abilities. Many factors have been associated with an internal locus of control. Males are apt to be more internal than females when it comes to personal successes . This might be due to cultural norms that emphasize aggressive behavior in males and submissive behavior in females. As societal structures change, this distinction may become minimized. As getting older, people also become more internal. This may be due to the fact that as children, individuals do not have much control over their lives. Moreover, people promoting in jobs and organizational structures tend to be more internal. Rotter (1966) theorized that this trait was most closely associated with motivation to succeed.

External locus of control

People having an external locus of control consider that rewards are concluded by either luck or others with more power than them. If they do not succeed, they believe it is due to forces outside of their control. Individuals who grow up in circumstances where they do not observe hard work pay off, as well as individuals who are socially disempowered (for example, people from lower socioeconomic statuses), may develop an external locusof control. An external locus of control can be related to learned helplessness in a responsive environment. Evidence has supported the theory that locus of control is learned and can be modified. However, in a non-responsive environment, where an individual actually does not have much control, an external locus of control is associated with a greater sense of satisfaction (Grantz, 2006).

Locus of control and student achievement

There are some studies corresponding to locus of control and academic achievement. All of these studies encapsulate to the same conclusion that students having an internal locus

of control had greater academic achievement than students having an external locus of control (Uget, 2007). People having an internal locus of control admit that working hard and studying brings good grades and academic achievements. For this reason, they study and concentrate on their homework much more (Grantz, 2006). But people with an external locus of control have no control over the grade they get. Since they had bad experiences, they got low grades from school assignments, concluding them to have lower expectations from their academic life (Grantz, 2006). They believe that any achievement they have will be good fortune or the task was too simple. They strongly believe that low success and the purposes they set are improbable (Uget, 2007). Beside the growing interest in locus of control and student achievement, awareness-raising studies on locus on control and student achievement have been recently pinpointed. In Bedel's (2012) study on the examination of locus of control, epistemological beliefs and metacognitive awareness levels of preservice early childhood education teachers, it was revealed that there were significant correlations between Locus of Control and Epistemological Beliefs Scale. This suggests that both locus of control and metacognitive awareness are interrelated.

Additionally, Griffin's (2014) research on 557 university students in the United States demonstrated that external locus of control predicted unique variance in self-esteem, depression and stress while internal locus of control had no unique association with psychological well-being. This implies that internal and external LOC should be measured as two discrete constructs, and that external LOC is the main factor in predicting well-being, and it might affect students' achievement. Similarly, Grob (2000) stated that stress could be the result of feeling powerless in any given circumstances, which suggested it was linked to having an external locus of control. On the other hand, Klonowicz (2001) measured locus of control as a determinant of subjective well-being and made similar conclusions. He discovered that high internal locus of control induced more positive affect. These studies suggested that internal and external locus of control as separate constructs had a unique association with psychological well-being to measure students' academic achievement.

Changing external locus of control

When a student in any classroom setting seems to have a problem with his/her grades and does not have will for advancement, that student may have an external locus of control. (Grantz, 2006). To increase the motivation of the learners in a classroom setting, more specifically strengthening their internal locus of control, attribution training can be integrated

into the learning environment. In the attribution training, students should be encouraged to specify positive things about themselves. For instance, "I can do this" or "This can be done with hard work". Students should train themselves on the regulations and change of the things they are interested in (Grantz, 2006). Students should be stimulated spiritually to combine their academic troubles with the reason of their adversities and they should be supervised to perform the effect of their behaviors (Uget, Habibah, & Jegak, 2007).

Students' locus of control can considerably alter their academic achievement. Their perception on the world around them influences how well they succeed in school. It works if one study and work hard, one succeed well. But students having an external locus of control do not have the same feelings and think that they do not need to try. These thoughts, certainly, will effectuate students' academic achievement. Though there are some alternatives to change their way of thinking, it may not be successful every time. The substantial thing is that we should inspire our children at a very early age and explain them that a constant studying makes a crucial difference.

Purpose of the study

Given that locus of control is an important individual difference construct, the present study set out to study the relationship between internal locus of control and English as a foreign language (EFL) students' translation achievement and to understand whether or not there is a significant difference in locus of control among different groups of EFL students. Thus, the following research questions were formulated to guide the study.

1. What are the most frequent loci of internal control in the translation achievement of EFL students?
2. Are there any significant differences in Locus of Control of EFL leaerners with high achievement, average achievement, and low achievement?
3. Is there any relationship between EFL students' Locus of Control and their translation achievement?
4. Is the relationship between translation achievement of EFL students and Locus of Control even when midterm attribution is controlled?

Method

Setting and participants

The present research was conducted in the Department of English Language and Literature (ELL) at a state university in Turkey. Similar to all ELL departments in Turkey, the curriculum encapsulates compulsory translation courses for the junior and senior students in both fall and spring terms of the academic year. It is expected that students studying English Language and Literature have gained proficiency in both the target language and their native languages conceptually and literarily. To increase EFL students' achievement in translation, some psychological factors such as locus of control, causing differences in the performance of the students are needed to be handled (Ellis, 2012). Additionally, understanding whether internalizers attribute success or failure of the EFL students or not, might enlighten instructors in decision making process for the students' translation achievement. The instructors teaching the translation courses in the department have educational background in translation studies and experiences in various national and international translation projects, which is stated in the background questionnaires collected in the very beginning of the research.

The participants of the study comprised a total of 72 university students (female: 45, 62.5%; male: 27, 37.5%) who were enrolled in the Department of English Language and Literature at a state university in Turkey. Their ages ranged from 20 to 26. The participants' proficiency level in English language based on their academic achievement, was determined as the proficient user (C1-Effective Operational Proficiency and C2-Mastery) based on the Common European Framework of References (CEFR). The participants were senior students studying English as a foreign language nearly for 10 years. When the study was conducted, they had already taken translation classes for three semesters at the same university as a compulsory course in the department. The samples were obtained from populations of equal variances, which means that the group was homogeneous. The participants were not grouped as both male and female since the discrimination between male and female students in terms of locus of control was not questioned in this study.

Prior to the data collection, the senior students at the ELL department of a state university were asked whether they would like to participate to a research study on translation studies and locus of control. They voluntarily participated in the research. The students gave consent for the use of their exam scores in the research. During the data collection process, the participants were informed about how to complete the scale, and were required to respond to

each item. Additionally, they were expected to identify themselves with their full names in the scale. The participants were assured that the instructors of the translation course would not see the results of the scale. The researcher administered the inventory in the classrooms and the administration of the scale took about 30 minutes.

Data collection instruments

Internal Locus of Control Index

Internal Locus of Control Index (ILCI), a 5-point Likert-scale developed by Duttweiler (1984), was administered to the participants in this study. The scale includes twenty eight items and the participants were expected to respond on the five frequency uses of each item, ranging from 'rarely' to usually'usually'. The internal consistency of the scale was $\alpha = .85$.

The achievement instrument

Grade-point averages (GPA) of the participants' midterm and final course exams were used to measure the translation achievement. Midterm and final exams comprised literary texts in both first language (Turkish) and the target language (English) or vice versa. Each exam incorporated paragraph translation rather than sentence translation for a contextual translation. Four texts (two texts for both Turkish and English languages) were involved in each translation exam but the participants were required to translate three of them in two hours by using their own bilingual dictionaries. Moreover, a translation exam was given to the participants to understand their translation achievement before taking the translation course in the beginning of the fall term of the 2013-2014 academic year. Translation achievement among the EFL students is classified as high achievement if it is higher than 85; average achievement, 70 to 84; low achievement between 0-69. 70 is a cut off point for the translation course achievement in the ELL department.

Procedures for data collection and analysis

Each participant's translation achievement was scored by GPA of the translation course exams. The mean scores of midterm and final exams in the fall term of 2013-2014 academic years were calculated. After the data collection process, the researcher checked the data to discover whether there were any abnormal data entries in the variables, and whether translation achievement scores were normally distributed. It is assumed that the participants (n=72) from

which the samples are taken are normally distributed. With large enough sample size, the violation of this assumption do not cause any major problems. The distributions of the scores for each participants were checked using histograms. Parametric tests were applied to analyse the collected data. Then, the statistical techniques to analyse the data were selected and then applied step by step by following each research question. Descriptive statistics, One-way ANOVA, Pearson correlation, and partial correlation were used as data analysis methods in the present study. Descriptive statistics was utilized to define the participants' frequent use of the items.

To determine the impact of locus of control variable on translation achievement levels, One-way ANOVA was used to define the research question two. It lets the researcher know whether the groups' -gp1(0-69), gp2(70-84), gp3(85-100)- translation achievements differed regarding locus of control. Besides, post-hoc comparisons were conducted to identify which groups were significantly different from one another. Pearson correlation, a correlation coefficient suitable for ordinal or ranked data, was employed to see the relation between locus of control and achievement, corresponding to the third research question. For the last research question, partial correlation was used to measure whether the relationship between translation achievement of the students and locus of control was influenced, at least to some extent, by midterm exam. The reason for identifying the midterm exam as a contaminating variable is that midterm exam is one of the scores affecting the total translation achievement and the midterm scores were lower than the final exam as students could not practice till the midterm exam as much as until the final exam. This can artificially serve to the size of the obtained correlation coefficient value.

Results and discussions

The results of descriptive statistics reveal that the most frequently nominated attributions of internal locus of control on translation achievement are as follows: The EFL students consider the different sides of an issue before making any decisions (M = 4.4444, SD = .78523); They like jobs where they can make decisions and be responsible for their own work (M = 4.3889, SD = .88103); If they want something they work hard to get it (M = 4.3056, SD = .92901); When something is going to affect them they learn as much about it as they can (M = 4.1176, SD = .80167); Whenever something good happens to them they feel it is because they've earned it (M = 4.1127, SD = .94943); Knowing they have done something well is more

important than being praised by some else (*M* = 4.0857, *SD* = 1.1130); and they enjoy being in a position of leadership (*M* = 4.0000, *SD* = .99293).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Items (ILCI)	N	Mean	SD
IT10- I consider the different sides of an issue before making any decisions.	72	4.4444	.78523
IT3- I like jobs where I can make decisions and be responsible for my own work.	72	4.3889	.88103
IT5- If I want something I work hard to get it.	72	4.3056	.92901
IT16- When something is going to affect me I learn as much about it as I can.	72	4.1176	.80167
IT12- Whenever something good happens to me I feel it is because I've earned it.	72	4.1127	.94943
IT18- For me, knowing I've done something well is more important than being praised by some else.	72	4.0857	1.1130
IT13- I enjoy being in a position of leadership.	72	4.0000	.99293

As it is understood from each item designated above, the participants in this study revealed the feeling and idea that they are responsible for their works and when they are nominated with any kind of positions, they can try to do their best to deal with the problems. They are capable of using their effort in translation studies when they are required to translate even complicated translation works.

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of translation achievement on the internal locus of control, as measured by the Internal Locus of Control Index (ILCI). Participants were divided into three groups according to their translation achievement (Group 1: 85 to 100; Group 2: 70 to 84; Group 3: 0 to 60). It was discovered that there was not a statistically significant difference in ILCI scores for the three achievement groups (F (2, 57) = 2. 9, p = .059, significant at $p < .05$). Despite reaching statistically significance, the mean scores between the groups was quite small. Post-hoc

comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (*M* = 109.42, *SD* = 8.18) was significantly different from Group 2 (M = 99.14, *SD* = 9.59) and Group 3 (*M* = 99.66, *SD* = 12.22).

Table 2. One Way-ANOVA with Post-hoc test

Groups		Mean difference	SD	F	P
Group 1	Group2	10.28	4.274	2.98	.050
Group3		9.761	4.598		.094
Group 2	Group 1	-10.28	4.274	2.98	.050
Group 3		-.523			.983
Group 2	Group 1	9.76	4.598	2.98	.094
Group 2		.523	2.994		.983

Note: The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

It can be inferred from the results that there was no significant difference among all three groups except two significant levels. All groups did not demonstrate a variation by locus of control, which may indicate that both high achievement level and average achievement level utilized the same amount of locus of control.

The relationship between EFL students' locus of control and their translation achievement was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. There was a moderate, positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .343$, n=60, $p < .007$.

Table 3. Correlation between LOC and translation achievement

	N	p	R
LOC Translation Achievement	60	.007*	.343

*Note. *significant at p < .05*

As can be seen in Table 3, the correlation coefficiency for the two variables in question was r = .343. This correlation is significantly positive and acceptable. Therefore, it can be concluded that the higher translation students' internal locus of control is, the more they achieve in translation course. By the same token, Majzub et al. (2009) explored the relationship between LOC and academic achievement, and internal locus of control was found to be a positive predictor of academic achievement while external locus of control to be a negative predictor of academic achievement, which supports the present findings.

Partial correlation was employed to explore the relationship between translation achievement of the students and locus of control while controlling for the midterm scores. There was a moderate, positive correlation between translation achievement of the students and locus of control, controlling for the midterm scores, r =.390, n=70, p< .002. An inspection of the zero order correlation (r =. 343) suggested that controlling for socially desirable responding had a moderate effect on the strength of the relationship between these two variables.

Table 4. Partial correlation

	N	p	r
LOC	70	.002*	.343
Translation Achievement (Controlling for)Midterm		.007*	.390

*Note. *significant at p < .05*

As shown in Table 4, the correlation (r) values for both relationships between locus of control and translation achievement are meaningful. However, when the midterm exam scores were controlled, the correlation value between translation achievement and LOC increased from r = .343 to r = .390. This might be due to the low scores of the participants in the midterm exams and the failure in midterm affects the general translation success.

As stated in the present research within the domain of foreign language education, EFL learners' loci of control significantly affect their translation achievement. They had the potential to use their effort in translation studies when they are required to translate even complicated translation works. To redound EFL students' achievement and to nurture their motivation in this process, EFL teachers should have a lighting flash role on their students to urge them to go beyond the academic achievement and to apprehend how their perceptions of self and their environment may shape their academic performance.

Conclusion

The present research was aimed at investigating the relationship between internal locus of control and EFL learners' translation achievement. The study also sought to explore whether there was a significant difference in locus of control among different groups of EFL learners. Most of the previous studies concerned with both internal and external dichotomy affirmed that internal locus of control compared to the external was more responsive for students' achievement in second language learning context. The present study clarified that the internal locus of control is additionally a challenging psychological construct for EFL learners'

achievement in an EFL context. Findings of the present research also detected a relationship between the translation achievement and internal locus of control, as well as how learners were involved in their own success and failure. The internal locus of control is assumed to operate in various domains. Yet, without any conscious knowledge about the internal and external locus of control dichotomy, it would be difficult for EFL learners to have an active role in their own learning environment. Thus, EFL learners are expected to be more aware of internal and external locus of control. Finally, further studies can be conducted on what metacognitive strategies were used by both internally and externally focused EFL learners.

The present research had a few limitations such as the department and the number of the students. Totally 72 students participating to this research were randomly selected from the department of ELL. Future research can reach to richer data collected from the students studying at the department of translation studies. Furthermore, the internal and external locus of control components might be discussed by comparing the group differences in the departments of ELL and Translation Studies. In the light of the results and limitations of this study, several pedagogical implications can be drawn from this study. Senior students' loci of control moderated their translation achievement significantly, which reflects the impact of loci of control in translation achievement in EFL context. Therefore, Turkish foreign language teachers should give instructions on the relation of both internal and external locus of control on translation achievement. It might increase students' level of metacognitive awareness and attention on their translation studies. In addition to this, a crucial implication of this study is that teachers should explore their students from different achievement levels in translation studies and develop their self-regulatory skills in translation. Moreover, the present study has raised the implications for future research on the exploration of locus of control and translation achievement in EFL context with larger samples. The size of the participants can be increased, and freshmen and senior students as sample groups can be compared with their locus of control and achievement in translation.

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The Effects of Written Corrective Feedback on Expressing Simple Present Tense

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Abstract

The present study compared the effects of direct and indirect written corrective feedback (CF) on the accurate use of Simple Present tense for describing daily routines. Written assignments of secondary school EFL (English as a foreign language) learners, enrolled in the 6th grade of a Turkish secondary school, were investigated throughout a period of two months. The experimental study included pretest, treatment, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest sessions. There were two experimental groups and one control group whose treatments comprised direct, indirect, and no written CF. Results indicated that the group receiving indirect CF outperformed the groups receiving direct CF and no CF on the delayed posttest.

Key Words: Corrective feedback; Direct feedback; English as a foreign language; Error correction; Indirect feedback; Simple Present Tense; Written corrective feedback

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Introduction

As expressed by the output hypothesis, producing language is of benefit because it enables language users to experiment with linguistic strategies and forms so that language learners can notice the factors which require further development (Swain, 2000). Errors occurring during production are an important part of the learning process that allow students to experiment with their existing hypotheses about language (Corder, 1973). Thus, it is crucial to give students the chance to produce language. In that way, one can focus on their output and notice if any problems in language use exist (Swain, 2000) that can be dealt with through corrective feedback (CF) which is the focus of most studies both in oral (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mennim, 2007) and written form (Bitchener, 2008; Sheen, 2007).

Studies which investigated the role of direct and indirect CF in improving written accuracy revealed varying results so that a consensus could not be reached on which type of CF is more influential in increasing the level of grammatical accuracy. That is why this study set forward to come up with further analysis in this field via focusing on the effects of direct and indirect written CF on the use of Simple Present tense.

Literature Review

Although CF is frequently used in teaching settings, the focus on CF in research shifted after Truscott's claim specifying that CF is ineffective. Van Beuningen, De Jong and Kuiken (2012) report that Truscott (1996, 2007) holds the opinion that the ineffectiveness of CF is based on practical and theoretical issues. While the practical concerns are directed towards teachers' abilities to provide effective CF and to learners' capacities to make use of CF appropriately, his theoretical concerns are based on the fact that second language acquisition theories (e.g., interlanguage development, the necessity for different types of CF for different language domains and structures, the impossibility of providing CF for every individual's level) are not taken into consideration by CF which will hinder the effectiveness of feedback. Another claim of Truscott (1999) is that the correction of errors might be counterproductive in that correction may lead students to avoid complex structures developing a preference for simplified writing with the aim of overcoming errors. He also regards CF as a waste of time as, according to him, it would be more beneficial to perform additional writing practice than to deal with errors (Meihami, 2013). Truscott thinks that CF can be effective in decreasing the number of grammatical errors (not non-grammatical ones), students will not utilize complex structures to avoid errors, and additional writing is more advantageous than focusing on errors (Meihami, 2013).

Despite Truscott's (2007) assertion that CF has just small benefits on students' accuracy in writing, it is frequently used since it is proved by many studies that CF can be effective in promoting grammatical accuracy both in EFL (English as a foreign language) and ESL (English as a second language) contexts (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Sachs & Polio, 2007). Among the many types of CF, direct and indirect types (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Sachs & Polio, 2007; Shintani & Ellis, 2013) are the commonly studied ones.

Corrective Feedback

CF is defined as the response to erroneous learner utterances which may indicate errors and give the correct form of the utterance or provide metalinguistic information on errors (Ellis et al., 2006).

Based on the role metalinguistic information and directness play, CF can mainly be divided into explicit/direct and implicit/indirect feedback (Yilmaz, 2013). Indirect feedback does not provide any metalinguistic information and indicates that an error occurred (e.g., through underlining, circling, noting the number of written errors in the margin) without giving the correct forms but encouraging learners for self-correction. On the other hand, direct feedback provides metalinguistic information (grammar rules) and/or the correct form of the incorrect structure (e.g., crossing out wrongly used structures, adding omitted words) (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis, 2009; Ellis et al., 2006; Ellis et al., 2008; Meihami, 2013; Van Beuningen, De Jong, & Kuiken, 2012). Direct CF can also include oral form-focused instruction which aims to elaborate on written metalinguistic information (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). It is argued that indirect CF is useful as it enables learners to self-correct, which actively engages them in the process of error correction (Ferris, 1999), and leads to long-term acquisition (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010).

Bitchener and Knoch (2010) report that indirect CF allows learners "to engage in guided learning and problem solving and, as a result, promotes the type of reflection on existing knowledge that is more likely to foster long-term acquisition and written accuracy" (p. 209). Despite the support for indirect feedback, arguments about its inefficacy emerged since it was regarded as providing learners with insufficient information to deal with the errors (Van Beuningen et al., 2012).

Conversely, direct CF was found to facilitate learning for those who do not have any wrongly formed grammatical knowledge (Shintani & Ellis, 2013) and that individuals who

receive direct CF can more successfully revise their errors than those who get indirect CF (Van Beuningen et al., 2012). Since direct correction gives learners the opportunity to immediately see what is wrong with their utterances even if the errors are complex ones, it can be viewed as a type of feedback that instantly rectifies errors (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010).

The focus of studies conducted in this field is on several types of CF since different domains require different corrections. Indirect CF is reported to increase the control of learned forms, but it is not easy to judge in what ways it addresses the learning of a new form. Conversely, it is assumed that direct CF affects new forms since it immediately supplies learners with the correct structures (Ellis et al., 2008). Another factor which is in favor of both direct and indirect CF is the positive effect d,irect CF has on grammatical and indirect CF on ungrammatical accuracy (Van Beuningen et al., 2012). From the information above, it can be inferred that the effectiveness of CF is dependent on language learners' grammatical knowledge (Ellis et al., 2008), and that not one type of CF should be regarded as profiting accuracy since each linguistic domain may ask for a different type of CF. Thus, since the results of previous studies could not reach a consensus on which type of CF – direct or indirect – to regard as effective with regard to language learning, studies continue to investigate the effectiveness of direct and indirect CF.

Findings of Studies on Corrective Feedback

Research on direct and indirect CF generated conflicting results so that further studies were considered as necessary to clarify if there are differences between direct and indirect CF in terms of the promotion of accuracy.

Van Beuningen et al. (2012) examined if written CF can be used as an editing tool and if it has a learning effect. For this purpose, the participants were divided into four groups receiving either direct CF or indirect CF, had to self-correct without CF, or practice writing without CF. Results clarified that CF improved learner accuracy. It was the direct CF group who gained more grammatical accuracy in new writings, whereas indirect CF led to non-grammatical accuracy. While this study regarded both types of CF as effective in enhancing the level of different kinds of accuracy, other studies found that direct CF is more effective than indirect CF (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Ellis & Shintani, 2013; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009; Yilmaz, 2013). Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009) examined the effects of direct focused CF, direct

unfocused CF, and writing practice. They specified that direct focused CF was more efficient than unfocused CF.

Yilmaz (2013) compared three different oral negative feedback types: mixed feedback including explicit and implicit feedback, implicit-only CF, and explicit-only CF. Results revealed that the explicit-only feedback and mixed feedback groups outperformed all the other groups on the immediate posttest showing that mixed feedback can be as effective as explicit-only feedback.

Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005) investigated whether direct written CF, direct written CF combined with student-researcher conferences, or no CF led to accuracy gains in four new pieces of writing over 12 weeks. The researchers concluded that the group who received direct written CF combined with student-researcher conferences outperformed the other groups indicating benefits for a combination of oral and written direct feedback.

Ellis and Shintani (2013) generated a study which encapsulated a direct CF group, a metalinguistic explanation group and a control group. They indicated that direct CF had no effects on the accuracy of the target structure, but that metalinguistic explanation increased accuracy in an immediate writing task.

Bitchener and Knoch (2010) examined advanced L2 learners with regard to their performance based on written metalinguistic feedback, indirect CF, and written metalinguistic CF together with oral form-focused instruction. They identified that the experimental groups outperformed the control group and that only the direct CF groups outperformed the indirect one. From this study, it can be concluded that indirect feedback is more profitable than no feedback. Further, this study designates that metalinguistic explanation is the most useful type of written CF for long-term accuracy.

Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) reported on the effectiveness of implicit (recasts) and explicit feedback (metalinguistic explanation) on low-intermediate L2 learners' acquisition of the simple past ending –ed. Results demonstrated that explicit feedback was more advantageous than implicit feedback.

Another study investigated CF in an online environment. Yeh, Lo and Chu (2014) developed a web-based error correction practice mechanism where teachers provided direct feedback resulting in positive outcomes in improving students' written accuracy.

With regard to indirect CF, Kahyalar and Okan (2014), who intended to explore the effects of comprehensive coded indirect corrective feedback (CCICF) on three students' writings, discovered that CCICF helped learners to reduce their errors and improve mechanical accuracy in the short run.

Truscott and Hsu (2008) provided indirect CF in form of underlining errors in learners' narrations which had to be revised, while another group of learners had to do the same without any form of CF. Results showed that the group who received indirect CF was more successful than the control group, but when the students had to produce new texts, the indirect CF group did not significantly differ from the control group. Thus, this study failed to display that CF improved accuracy in new writings.

The studies reviewed were conducted in different settings with different participants, different teaching strategies, and instruments which hinder a comparison of the outcomes. Thus, it can be stated that CF has different effects on different groups of participants in different contexts. Based on the existing discrepancies in the reviewed literature, the current study aimed to explore the effects of direct and indirect written CF on A1 level Turkish EFL learners' writings to put forth results for a context that was not considered before. The focus of this study is on the correct application of the Simple Present tense for the purpose of talking about daily routines through internalizing direct written CF and indirect written CF in similar but new pieces of writing.

Indirect feedback in this study stands for implicit correction. The erroneous sentences of the students were marked, but the correct forms were not provided so that the students had to generate the correct forms by themselves. Direct feedback refers to explicit correction. In this form of feedback, the errors were marked by the teacher and the correct forms were provided with some metalinguistic information. The students could immediately notice what was wrong with their sentences. Since previous studies (Bitchener, 2008; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2007) demonstrated that explicit feedback facilitated accuracy development, it was expected that direct feedback would be more effective in improving the quality of the students' output.

Research Question

This study was designed to investigate the efficacy of written CF on L2 writers' accuracy gains in the use of Simple Present tense to describe daily routines over a period of two months. To this end, the participants were asked to produce three different narrative texts. A pretest-treatment-posttest design was used. It was aimed to find out if direct and indirect written CF would help increase L2 learners' accuracy level in the use of Simple Present tense in the long run. The research question that is drawn upon in this study is:

Which kind of written corrective feedback, direct or indirect, will be more effective in improving the accuracy of the use of Simple Present tense to describe daily routines in the long run?

Methodology

Design

The study followed a pretest-treatment-posttest design with a delayed posttest. Three groups, each comprising ten students, received either direct feedback in form of explicit corrections in which the errors were underlined and the correct forms were provided with metalinguistic information, or indirect feedback in which the errors were indicated through underlining. It is important to specify that the students were instructed on the target structure (using the Simple Present tense to express daily routines) before they had to take the pretest and before they were assigned the writing tasks. This structure was part of the curriculum and due to this, the Simple Present tense was frequently addressed by the teacher who was the researcher at the same time.

Context and Participants

Data were collected from 30 Turkish students (14 male and 16 female) who were enrolled in the 6th grade of a secondary state school in Turkey in the first semester of 2014- 2015 academic year. Since the Turkish national curriculum states that students have reached A1 level in English in 6th grade (MoNE, 2013), it was assumed that the participants' level of English was A1. The participants ranged between 11 to 14 years of age. All participants had studied English for three years. These students participated in a two-hour English lesson per week (3 lessons each being 40 minutes long). The sample was selected based on convenience sampling (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012).

According to the EFL teacher's judgements on the participants' performance in the English lessons (high – intermediate – low), the learners were assigned to two experimental groups (direct CF group and indirect CF group) and to a control group. To ensure heterogeneity of the groups, each group consisted of students who performed high in the lessons, who demonstrated low performance, and who were intermediate level learners. Group 1 comprised 10 students and received direct CF. One of the students in this group did not follow the instructions, so she was excluded from the study. Group 2 consisted of 10 students and received indirect CF. Lastly, Group 3 comprised 10 students and did not receive any form of feedback.

In order to satisfy ethical requirements, the participants of the control group received CF at the end of the study.

Target Structure

In contrast to the majority of the studies which were concerned with the correct use of English articles (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis et al., 2008; Yilmaz, 2013), this study investigated the use of Simple Present tense.

The participants were already familiar with the Simple Present tense forms from the previous schooling year. In accordance with this, it was assumed that the students had a basic knowledge of this structure. In 6th grade, Simple Present tense is also included in the syllabus to revise the structure and recover the topic of daily routines.

The Simple Present tense was chosen as the target structure due to the fact that EFL students made large amounts of errors in subject-verb agreement during the use of Simple Present tense in an analysis conducted by the researcher previous to the current study. From the results of this analysis it was apparent that the students had difficulties in using the Simple Present tense ending –s for the personal pronouns he, she and it. It was observed that the students frequently forgot to use the Simple Present ending –s or that they overused it for the first person singular form of the personal pronouns. Thus, the researcher decided to focus on the use of Simple Present tense in expressing daily routines. Table 1 visualizes the results of the analysis demonstrating the most frequent errors of Turkish sixth-graders.

Table 1

Frequent Errors of 49 Turkish Sixth-Grade EFL Students

Error Type	Frequency
Subject-Verb Agreement	in 40 samples
Numeric Shift	in 38 samples
Semantic	in 17 samples
Sentence Structure	in 4 samples
Mechanical	in 43 samples
Misinformation	in 6 samples
Addition	in 15 samples
Pronoun	in 10 samples

The existence of treatable and untreatable errors was another reason for dealing with Simple Present tense. Treatable errors include errors such as verb tense and form which are easier to correct due to the fact that they are based on certain rules that can be referred to while correcting

errors. In contrast, untreatable errors are harder to cope with since they are more abstract (Ferris, 1999). Due to their treatable character it was assumed that the students would more easily respond to errors in the use of Simple Present tense.

Instruments

The researcher employed a pretest-treatment-posttest design. The pretest was in form of a picture-strip story including 20 pictures and 20 sentences with blanks which the students had to fill in with the Simple Present tense forms of the verbs provided in brackets (see Appendix A). This means that the participants were asked to produce 20 sentences describing someone's daily routine using Simple Present tense.

Moreover, three written production tasks were collected from the participants dealing with the daily routines of (a) one of their friends, (b) one of their teachers, and (c) one of their family members or relatives. Students were expected to work on their own, but they were allowed to use dictionaries or to consult the teacher for some unknown words. During this phase the teacher did not provide any form of feedback with regard to the use of Simple Present tense and sentence structure. The students were not given any word limits, but the teacher asked them to produce at least ten sentences and not to use the same sentences throughout all their tasks.

After each written production, the teacher provided either direct or indirect CF to the experimental groups. The control group did not receive any form of feedback. After the completion of the tasks, the teacher conducted an immediate posttest which was the same as the pretest. Again the students had to complete the 20 sentences in the picture-strip story which were related to daily routines. Lastly, a delayed posttest was conducted which again was the picture-strip story used as the pretest and immediate posttest.

Treatment

The students were not given any information on the study. They were expected to write three different texts in which they had to narrate the daily routine of one of their (a) friends, (b) teachers, and (c) family members or relatives which formed part of their English lessons.

The first experimental group was the direct CF group. The errors of this group were directly replaced by the correct forms. Metalinguistic information reminding the rules of the use of Simple Present tense was provided. Further, praise (e.g., Well done!, Good!) was also given if the students improved.

Example of Direct CF (with metalinguistic information)

He listen to music.

listens

Do not forget to add *–s* after the verbs following the personal pronouns *he, she*, and *it* when you are using Simple Present tense.

The second experimental group received indirect CF through underlined errors. No further indications such as error codes for the different error types were given. The researcher just reminded the students that the underlined parts of their texts are incorrect in order to focus their attention on the errors.

Example of Indirect CF

She go to school.

The third group did not receive any feedback on the texts produced since it served as the control group. A control group was included in the study to demonstrate the effectiveness of CF.

Due to their proficiency level, the students had limited knowledge of English structures and did not make use of forms they had not acquired. This facilitated the process of giving feedback in which a focus on certain error types was not necessary meaning that the error correction procedure was unfocused. Further, the unfocused type was preferred to avoid the assumption that the uncorrected parts were error-free, and to improve general accuracy which is not the aim of focused feedback (Van Beuningen et al., 2012).

Procedure

One week before the first written assignment, the students took the pretest. Five days later the teacher assigned the first written task. Two days later the tasks were collected and on the same day, the researcher provided feedback to the

groups and assigned their second task. Five days later, the second task was collected, and on the same day, students received feedback and were assigned their last written task. Two days later, the researcher collected this task. After a week, the third task with some written CF was handed back to the students so that they could examine their work. The students could always have a look at their previous tasks as these were attached to the preceding tasks. Thus, they were able to follow their own progress or delay. After the participants got feedback III, they had to complete the immediate posttest. Finally, they were asked to participate in the delayed posttest three weeks later in which they also had to provide background information such as gender, age, and time of English study. The delayed posttest was administered seven weeks after the pretest.

PRETEST (1 week before the treatment → 26th – 28th November)			
Time	DIRECT CF GROUP	INDIRECT CF GROUP	CONTROL GROUP (NO CF)
December, 3rd	Task I was assigned	Task I was assigned	Task I was assigned
December, 5th	Task I was collected and CF I was provided	Task I was collected and CF I was provided	Task I was collected
December, 5th	Task II was assigned	Task II was assigned	Task II was assigned
December, 10th	Task II was collected and CF II was provided	Task II was collected and CF II was provided	Task II was collected
December 10th	Task III was assigned	Task III was assigned	Task III was assigned
December, 12th	Task III was collected	Task III was collected	Task III was collected
December, 17th-19th	CF III was provided	CF III was provided	No CF
IMMEDIATE POSTTEST (immediately after the third feedback session → 17th – 19th December)			
DELAYED POSTTEST (14th – 15th January)			

Figure 1. Research Procedure

Analysis

After the errors were marked, each piece of writing and each test was assigned an error rate which was calculated by dividing the total number of errors in the use of Simple Present

tense by the total number of verbs that had to be in Simple Present tense. Initially, for each written assignment the frequency of the target form was counted. Then, the number of errors was detected, and lastly, the error ratio was calculated as previously mentioned. The bigger the error ratio was, the more errors the students made, and vice versa.

Results

Table 2 visualizes the participants' scores on the three written tasks. When these scores are scrutinized, it can be stated that all of the students receiving direct CF (DCF), six of the students receiving indirect CF (IDCF), and four of the students in the control group (CG) managed to reduce their errors throughout the treatment. This finding indicates that students' improvement is independent of the type of CF they receive. When the averages of errors are examined, the most apparent increase of accuracy is observed in the DCF group, followed by the IDCF group.

Table 2

Error Ratios in the Tasks

Participants	Task I	Task II	Task III
DCF1	15/15 (1)	1/15 (0.06)	3/15 (0.2)
DCF2	12/12 (1)	4/11 (0.36)	4/8 (0.5)
DCF3	15/15 (1)	0/11 (0)	1/12 (0.083)
DCF4	10/10 (1)	9/9 (1)	0/10 (0)
DCF5	9/9 (1)	1/8 (0.125)	4/9 (0.4)
DCF6	15/15 (1)	6/12 (0.5)	2/11 (0.18)
DCF7	14/15 (0.93)	0/11 (0)	2/13 (0.15)
DCF8	7/14 (0.5)	0/22 (0)	0/15 (0)
DCF9	14/15 (0.93)	3/14 (0.21)	6/15 (0.4)
Average of Errors	(0.93)	(0.25)	(0.21)
IDCF1	15/15 (1)	8/8 (1)	6/6 (1)
IDCF2	12/12 (1)	8/8 (1)	8/8 (1)
IDCF3	6/11 (0.54)	10/11 (0.91)	2/12 (0.16)
IDCF4	10/10 (1)	10/10 (1)	3/10 (0.3)
IDCF5	16/16 (1)	8/13 (0.62)	6/11 (0.55)
IDCF6	17/17 (1)	11/11 (1)	12/12 (1)
IDCF7	13/13 (1)	9/9 (1)	2/3 (0.6)
IDCF8	11/11 (1)	7/7 (1)	4/9 (0.4)
IDCF9	15/15 (1)	4/10 (0.4)	0/10 (0)
IDCF10	16/16 (1)	8/9 (0.8)	9/9 (1)
Average of Errors	(0.954)	(0.873)	(0.601)
CG1	7/7 (1)	7/7 (1)	4/4 (1)
CG2	9/9 (1)	6/11 (0.54)	5/10 (0.5)

CG3	14/14 (1)	11/11 (1)	-
CG4	10/14 (0.71)	5/14 (0.36)	7/15 (0.46)
CG5	10/10 (1)	7/7 (1)	11/11 (1)
CG6	16/16 (1)	10/10 (1)	15/15 (1)
CG7	12/18 (0.6)	8/16 (0.5)	2/16 (0.125)
CG8	6/13 (0.46)	9/17 (0.53)	9/13 (0.69)
CG9	8/9 (0.8)	10/10 (1)	10/10 (1)
CG10	6/22 (0.27)	1/14 (0.07)	3/18 (0.16)
Average of Errors	(0.784)	(0.7)	(0.66)

Table 3 demonstrates the errors students made on the pretest and the two posttests.

The averages of errors suggest that the IDCF group and the CG produced more accurate forms of the Simple Present tense than the DCF group.

When the students' test scores are examined individually, the following can be concluded: From the DCF group, three students improved from the pretest to the immediate posttest. From the IDCF group, three students decreased their number of errors, and five students from the CG demonstrated improvement. Next, the results of the delayed posttest indicate that all students who received DCF increased the number of their errors. Students who received IDCF showed a similar trend, but two students demonstrated greater accuracy. Students in the CG either had the same scores on both posttests or slightly decreased their number of errors.

Table 3

Error Ratios in the Pretest and Posttests (DCF, IDCF, CG)

Participants	Pretest	Immediate Posttest	Delayed Posttest
DCF1	16/20 (0.8)	18/20 (0.9)	20/20 (1)
DCF2	18/20 (0.9)	9/20 (0.45)	18/20 (0.9)
DCF3	19/20 (0.95)	11/20 (0.55)	20/20 (1)
DCF4	20/20 (1)	-	20/20 (1)
DCF5	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
DCF6	19/20 (0.95)	-	20/20 (1)
DCF7	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
DCF8	15/20 (0.75)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
DCF9	10/20 (0.5)	5/20 (0.25)	20/20 (1)
Average of Errors	17.4 (0.87)	14.71 (0.735)	19.7 (0.98)
IDCF1	20/20 (1)	18/20 (0.9)	18/20 (0.9)
IDCF2	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	8/20 (0.4)
IDCF3	20/20 (1)	7/20 (0.35)	6/20 (0.3)
IDCF4	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)

IDCF5	20/20 (1)	18/20 (0.9)	20/20 (1)
IDCF6	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
IDCF7	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
IDCF8	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
IDCF9	17/20 (0.85)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
IDCF10	19/20 (0.95)	19/20 (0.95)	19/20 (0.95)
Average of Errors	19.6 (0.98)	18.2 (0.91)	17.1 (0.855)
CG1	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
CG2	15/20 (0.75)	17/20 (0.85)	17/20 (0.85)
CG3	20/20 (1)	12/20 (0.6)	20/20 (1)
CG4	9/20 (0.45)	7/20 (0.35)	8/20 (0.4)
CG5	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)	16/20 (0.8)
CG6	19/20 (0.95)	20/20 (1)	20/20 (1)
CG7	8/20 (0.4)	0/20 (0)	3/20 (0.15)
CG8	20/20 (1)	8/20 (0.4)	8/20 (0.4)
CG9	12/20 (0.6)	16/20 (0.8)	14/20 (0.7)
CG10	20/20 (1)	0/20 (0)	0/20 (0)
Average of Errors	16.3 (0.815)	12 (0.6)	12.6 (0.63)

The current study found that students, independent of the type of CF they received, improved their accuracy throughout the written tasks. Further, the groups did not differ significantly in their initial proficiency on the pretest (average of errors: DCF = 17.4, IDCF = 19.6, CG = 16.3), but they showed differences on the immediate posttest (average of errors: DCF = 14.71, IDCF = 18.2, CG = 12). The immediate posttest indicated an improvement for all groups. The CG and the group that received DCF could correct more errors than the group receiving IDCF. Further, the delayed posttest presented that the CG (average of errors = 12.6) had fewer errors than the IDCF group (average of errors = 17.1) and the DCF group (average of errors = 19.7). The scores of the delayed posttest demonstrated an increase in the number of errors in the group receiving DCF, while a decrease in the number of errors was observed for the IDCF group and the CG.

Discussion

The research question investigated aimed to shed light on the type of written CF that would help learners to improve their accuracy in the use of Simple Present tense.

While all three groups profited from CF and decreased the amount of their errors on the immediate posttest, the results of the delayed posttest portrayed a decline of errors for the IDCF group and the CG, and an increase of errors for the DCF group. When individual students were examined, it was apparent that half of the participants (N = 15) had the same scores on the

immediate and delayed posttests, while only two students demonstrated improvement in the delayed posttest.

The corrections some students received seemed not to affect them in any way since these (e.g., IDCF1, IDCF 2, IDCF6, IDCF7) did not make use of the corrections in subsequent writings, so that it can be concluded that some students did not show any signs of progress. Truscott and Hsu (2008) reported the same finding in their study. Their participants did not profit from indirect CF for their second narratives in which they made more errors than in their first narratives. Thus, it can be argued that similar to the findings of Truscott and Hsu (2008), for some students in the current study, especially the ones receiving DCF (e.g., DCF1, DCF3, DCF4), there was no relation between CF and improvement in the long run.

Since there was not much difference between the three groups and since the delayed posttest did not show significant gains with regard to accuracy, one can agree with Truscott (2007) who claimed that correction has small benefits. Nevertheless, due to the fact that the students showed progress during the tasks, it can be stated that CF gave them the possibility to correct grammatical errors.

The fact that some students (e.g., DCF1, DCF2, IDCF6, IDCF7) could not profit from feedback on the delayed posttest may be related to the low level of attention they paid to the corrections or to some problems with noticing the feedback provided which, according to Schmidt (1990, 1993), are necessary components for learning to take place. Furthermore, it is not rational to expect that feedback will immediately lead to learning. Hyland and Hyland (2006) stated that for feedback to become constructive "it needs time and repetition before it can help learners to notice correct forms, compare these with their own interlanguage and test their hypotheses about the target language" (p. 85).

Another factor to discuss in this context is the finding of Van Beuningen et al. (2012) who specify that direct correction is especially useful for grammatical accuracy, while indirect CF benefits non-grammatical accuracy. The current study focused on grammatical errors only and applied both direct and indirect CF. It was evident that students benefited from both direct and indirect CF in the corrections of their grammatical errors in their writings. Although it is supposed that "explicit forms of feedback (including more explicit recasts) result in higher levels of uptake and repair" (Ellis, 2005, p. 21), the present study clarified that both forms of CF were useful for the students during the treatment process but that indirect CF was more effective in the increase of accuracy in the long run.

Based on the results, it could be denoted that indirect CF is the type of feedback that learners profited most from. Further, when the students who improved were examined

individually, it was apparent that these were students who were autonomous and proficient in English (e.g., DCF4, IDCF4, CG7), and were not affected by the type of CF they received.

The specific influence of linguistic proficiency on the effectiveness of written CF is not exactly known (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010), but it can be assumed that metalinguistic competence is necessary to profit from indirect CF (Sheen, 2007). Reducing the amount of their errors, independent of the type of CF they received, the higher-level students outperformed the lower-level students, which was also observed in the study of Van Beuningen et al. (2012). It can be concluded that the effectiveness of CF is dependent on students' knowledge. Since this study did not embrace the implementation of a proficiency test and an aptitude test, it is recommended for future research to do so.

Conclusion

The present study indicated that both direct and indirect CF led to a decline of the number of errors in new writings. Further, no significant differences between direct, indirect and no CF could be detected in helping students decrease the number of errors they made in the written assignments. The posttests reflected that indirect CF was more beneficial than direct CF and no CF. Being exposed to indirect written CF helped participants to gain accuracy in the use of Simple Present tense whose effects were durable. In the long term, indirect CF seemed more effective than direct CF and no CF. Thus, it can be recommended to use indirect CF if the aim is to make students retain the forms and structures learned. For pedagogical purposes, indirect CF seems to be the most effective one since it arouses the potential for retention.

Although the present study came up with helpful insights into CF, it is limited from some perspectives. Firstly, because of the fact that the students had to complete the written assignments out-of-class, it was impossible to check if they completed the tasks without any support. Next, the teacher herself decided on the students' proficiency levels. That is why a proficiency test is asked for. In addition to this, the study investigated if the use of Simple Present tense could be enhanced by CF, so that the findings cannot be generalized to other linguistic forms. Thus, further research is required in the field of CF that can come up with results that investigate the effects of direct and indirect CF on the use of Simple Present tense to verify the results of the present study.

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Appendix

Instrument (Pretest, Immediate Posttest, Delayed Posttest)

DAILY ROUTINES

Describe what the person on the pictures does. Write a sentence for each picture. Use the words in parentheses.
(Resimdeki kişinin ne yaptığını anlatınız. Her resim için bir cümle yazınız. Parantez içindeki kelimeleri kullanınız.)

This is Sally. She is 12 years old.
She lives in London with her family.
Let's see what her daily routines are.

(WAKE UP)

She_____early in the mornings.

(WASH HER HANDS)

She_____every morning.

(GET DRESSED)

She_____.

(GO TO SCHOOL)

She_____on weekdays.

(HAVE A DRINK)

She_____.

(DO HOMEWORK)

She_____.

(SWIM)

She_____.

(WALK THE DOG)

She_____.

(READ A BOOK)

She_____.

(SLEEP)

She_____at 8 o'clock.

DAILY ROUTINES

Describe what the person on the pictures does. Write a sentence for each picture. Use the words in parentheses.
(Resimdeki kişinin ne yaptığını anlatınız. Her resim için bir cümle yazınız. Parantez içindeki kelimeleri kullanınız.)

This is Joe. He is 11 years old.
He lives with his family in Washington.
Let's see what his daily routines are.

(BRUSH HIS TEETH)

He_____every morning.

(COMB HIS HAIR)

He_____.

(GO TO SCHOOL)

He_____on weekdays.

(EAT A SANDWICH)

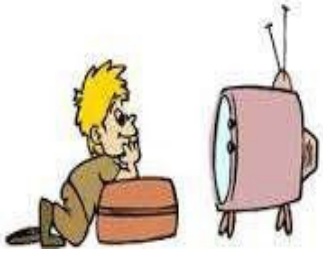
He_____after school.

(LISTEN TO MUSIC)

He_____in the afternoon.

(DRAW PICTURES)

He_____.



(WATCH TV)

He_____.

(PLAY FOOTBALL)

He_____.

(PLAY COMPUTER GAMES)

He_____in the evening.

(HAVE DINNER)

He_____with his family at 7 o’clock.