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## A Review of Technology Integration in ELT: From CALL to MALL

Abdu Al-Kadi

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## Review Article

# A review of technology integration in ELT: From CALL to MALL

Abdu Al-Kadi<sup>1</sup> 

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### Abstract

This is an attempt to give a bird's-eye view of ways in which ELT has been reconciled with technology. It succinctly chronicles a series of common technological tools, applications, and approaches, starting from the excitement offered by CALL which predated MALL and its associated allies. It shows how ELT has shaped up under the auspices of modern information and communication technology (ICT) which has driven a transformation from traditional teacher-centered and text-bound classrooms into student-centered and interactive paradigms. The paper argues that despite this refinement, technology per se is not a recipe for success in learning and teaching English as a foreign or second language (L2). Technology integration into L2 pedagogy relatively lacks a solid theoretical framework; it requires reconciliation between theory and practice which is an ongoing debate. The paper concludes with a contention that the onus is on pedagogues to innovatively re-appropriate accessible ICTs and make informed choices that best fit the particularity of their teaching situations.

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# Bilgisayar destekli dil öğreniminden mobil destekli dil öğrenimine: Teknolojinin İngilizce öğretimine entegrasyonu

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## Öz

Bu çalışma İngilizce öğretiminin teknoloji ile bağdaştırılmasının farklı yönlerine ilişkin genel bir çerçeve çizmektedir. Çalışmada, CALL' dan (Bilgisayar Destekli Dil Öğrenimi) başlayarak MALL (Mobil Destekli Dil Öğrenimi) ve ilgili unsurlar ekseninde, çeşitli yaygın teknolojik enstrümanlar, uygulama ve yaklaşımlar özetlenmektedir. Çalışma genel anlamıyla dil sınıflarını öğretmen merkezli ve kitap güdümlü olmaktan öğrenci merkezli ve daha etkileşimli bir ortama dönüştüren modern bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin İngilizce öğretimini nasıl şekillendirdiğini gözler önüne sermektedir. Bütün bu gelişmelere rağmen, İngilizceyi ikinci ya da yabancı dil olarak öğrenmek için teknolojinin tek başına yeterli olmadığı bu çalışmada ifade edilmiştir. Teknolojinin yabancı dil pedagojisine entegrasyonu, görece sağlam bir kuramsal çerçeveden yoksundur, ve bu konuda kuram ve uygulamanın uyumlu bir şekilde işlemlerini sağlamak gerekmektedir. Çalışmanın sonucunda, yenilikçi bir biçimde bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini uyarlamada ve eğitim durumlarına en uygun olan seçimleri yapmada asıl sorumluların pedagoğlar olduğu ifade edilmiştir.

**Gönderim**  
10 Şubat 2018

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27 Mart 2018

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**Anahtar kelimeler**  
CALL  
ELT  
yabancı dil pedagojisi  
yöntem sonrası dönem  
teknoloji entegrasyonu

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## **Introduction**

The information and communication technology (ICT) has penetrated into most aspects of human life giving possibilities for recording things from birth to death. In the field of foreign language teaching and learning, this proliferation did not go unnoticed. The succession of ICTs in the second half of the 20th century inaugurated a period of technology-enhanced language learning (TELL). Language pundits and pedagogues have drawn on a range of technological resources to help students learn easily and innovatively. Language researchers view ICTs not only as motivational and assisting tools but also essential appliances for language learning and teaching. Prior research has shown that technology impacts language curricula, teaching methodology, and learning (Chapelle & Voss, 2016). This integration, if undertaken properly, provides laudable benefits to the 'digital' generation: multiple choices for formal and informal language learning, scaffolding, gamification, and much more (Blake, 2016; Ibrahim, 2018; Zappavigna, 2012; Vurdien & Puranen, 2018). Using digital ICTs has become a second nature to most of today's learners. It enables them to study on their own more than what they learn in classrooms (Chapelle & Voss, 2016; Blake, 2016). Arguably, technology not only exposes language learners to the real world with its complexity but also brings it to them either through audio-visual aids in the classroom or online platforms. Motteram (2013) argued that language learning is "enhanced, but is also being changed, by the ways that technology is used by creative language teachers in the many different classrooms throughout the world" (p.188). All over the history of ELT, teachers have exponentially laid heavy reliance on various ICTs. They left no stone unturned in their search to make L2 teaching a success (Chapelle & Voss, 2016). They have increasingly manipulated technology to facilitate things which have been a desire. However, incorporating technology into ESL/EFL contexts is not always straightforward. A flawless formula of technology-integration has not surfaced although it has been an enduring fascination for decades.

### **Rationale**

Using technology in L2 learning and teaching is currently no novelty. The term Technology-enhanced Language Learning (TELL) has been used for decades, resulting in plenty of food for thought in several disciplines: sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, education, etc. A number of claims have been made in favour of TELL (Chapelle & Voss, 2016; Chapelle, 2016; Kern, 2006; Vurdien & Puranen, 2018; Watson, 2001; Whittaker, 2014; Zhao, Byers, Puge & Sheldon, 2002). Such assertions maintain that technological tools and applications espouse different learning styles, provide a wealth of learning and teaching resources, and promote independent learning. Although technology integration goes unchallenged today, there has been no single ICT tool or application that fits all language teaching/learning contexts. There is still a flawed understating of ICT effectiveness on L2<sup>1</sup> pedagogy, and when using it with no scope and sequence, it arguably becomes misleading (Lewis, 2015). This paper revisits common trends of technology-based English learning with a dogged focus on technologies that coincided with emergence of the post-method era. It highlights theoretical background which

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<sup>1</sup> The term second language (L2) refers to any language other than the first language. However, in this paper it refers to English language being the lingua franca of the world.



has guided technology integration throughout the development of L2 theories and approaches. The review expands our understanding of the ICT contributions to the cause of L2 education. It specifically familiarizes language teachers and researchers- especially the novice ones- with the ongoing debate on the phenomenon. It also brings to the foreground new avenues for further research.

### **Technology integration**

Technology integration is generally defined as purposeful manipulation of any kind of modern technology in language pedagogy. Sometimes, a distinction is made between technology integration and technology use (Garrett, 2009; Qin & Shuo, 2011; Stockwell & Hubbard, 2013); and sometimes the terms are used interchangeably. While integration implies the presence of stipulated and scheduled ICTs, the term technology use indicates utilizing tools, applications, and platforms with no primary intention to learn L2; learning results from such unintentional use. As it indicates purposeful usage, the term technology integration is equated to CALL and its associated allies – MALL, WELL, TELL, etc. (more details in the following section). In this paper, the concept is defined in terms of a reiteration of technology uses on a daily basis taking into consideration the structured, systematic as well as chancy and patchy utilization of modern ICTs.

Qin and Shuo (2011) suggested two salient aspects of using technology in English instruction: (a) Technology is a tool for teaching English and (b) English is taught via technology. The authors postulated that teachers and learners in the former aspect use technology with an eye to promoting English teaching/learning. For example, learners use a word processor to draft, redraft, and correct essays; and teachers may use PowerPoint, for example, to prepare lectures and presentations, and so forth. In such instances attention basically rests on technology itself, and technology awareness becomes a psychological burden. In turn, it leads teachers and students to feel inadequate in technological literacy, and this feeling may be a source of anxiety and unease. In the latter aspect, however, technological tools, applications and platforms become the environment in which language materials are presented. Teachers and learners do not necessarily consider what software or hardware they employ to process the language materials or present these materials. They basically focus on the target language and its culture but not technology itself.

### **Research on technology integration**

The word ‘technology’ hosts many variables which interact within a digital ecosystem. It represents the utilization of digital tools, applications, and platforms for language learning and teaching purposes (Nimehchisalem, 2014; Wilkinson, 2016; Blake, 2016). Technology integration has been researched for long under several labels. The capacious Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) was first termed in the last quarter of the 20th century. Carol Chapelle and Mark Warschauer were among the premier writers who addressed it meticulously. As the term suggests, CALL is basically dependent on ‘computer’ as a delivery medium of applications. However, the terminology was latterly unexclusive to the ‘canonical’ desktop and laptop devices labelled ‘computers’ but other possible technological facets used in L2 education (Kern, 2006). In its broader definition, CALL includes a number of technologies

such as PCs, mobile phones, electronic whiteboards, all of which have computers of different sorts embedded in them. Other associated terms were coined later on: Internet-Assisted Language Learning (IALL), Web-enhanced language learning (WELL), Technology-Enhanced Language Learning (TELL), and Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL).

All these terminologies encompass a range of platforms, materials, and approaches. Owing to lack of a solid theoretical background, CALL has been discussed in light of the development of SLA theories, technological advancements, and methodology (Ibrahim, 2018; Miech, Nave & Mosteller, 1997; Chapelle, 2005; Chapelle & Voss, 2016). Theories and models applied in the literature originate from previously established theories of learning: behaviourism, constructivism, etc. Nevertheless, CALL research depends on not only SLA theory and practice but also computer sciences, instructional design, and human-computer interaction. It is further complicated by the constant ICT advancements. In this regard, Egbert and Hanson-Smith (2000) argued that technology in language education is not based on a theory of its own but on language acquisition and learning theories. This is supported by Miech, Nave and Mosteller's (1997) argument that "computers themselves do not possess theories of learning: Computer programmers and educators, consciously or unconsciously bring those theories to the task" (p. 61). Although several studies were conducted on CALL, it is alleged that research is "scattered across such a wide area that a specific picture of 'what CALL is and does' has not emerged" (Egbert, 2005, p. 3). However, it is now extensively used in SLA (Blake, 2016; Chapelle, 2005; Chun, Kern & Smith, 2016).

### **Technology and methodology**

The vibrant uses of ICTs in L2 contexts correspond to the development of language learning approaches (Wilkinson, 2016; Chapelle & Voss, 2016). The evolution of technology itself and its ubiquity in day-to-day life guided ELT experts, teachers, and practitioners to opt for different applications to achieve fruitful results. Language education theory shifted in emphasis from 'pedagogically-audiolingualism, psychologically-behaviourism and linguistically-structuralism' to social constructivism. Throughout this shift, there have been some models that customarily matched "technological developments with pedagogical and methodological progress" (Davies, Otto & Rüschoff, 2013, p. 34). When applied to technology-integration, this shift manifests itself in what might be encapsulated under the umbrella term "technology and task-based pedagogy" (Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013, p. 2). Sometimes, a promising CALL model encounters technical challenges ensued from hardware/software limitations; and sometimes a lack of technical skills hampers successful CALL models.

Throughout the history of ELT, every teaching method and approach adopted specific technologies to support it. For example, teachers who followed the grammar-translation method relied on the blackboard as a perfect media for the one-way transmission of information. Later on, the blackboard was replaced by OHP which is another medium for the teacher-dominated classroom. Afterward, the audio records were used as tools for the audio-lingual method which favoured learning through oral repetition. Then the multimedia and social networking broadened the spectrum of ELT even further. The shift from CALL to MALL coexisted with evaluation of the concept of method. The repeatedly articulated dissatisfaction with the notion of 'method' brought about a post methodical vision of L2 teaching, also called

'non-method' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). This new perspective, raised in the last decade of the 20th century, puts emphasis on learners and local identities. The premise of the post-method vision triggered heavy reliance on technology to achieve better learning/teaching results.

It is to be noted that teaching methods, like technology, have been on constant change. The changes of views on language learning, from the behaviourist to integrative learning perspectives and lately the post-method stance, inspired a diversity of ICT applications. Guided by the principles of post-method, the focus is now on the outcomes of learning rather than the process of learning. Prior research shows that ICTs promote learner autonomy (Vurdién & Puranen, 2018) and gamification of the previous drill-and-kill principles (Lewis, 2015; Ibrahim, 2018). It also gives space for teachers (teacher autonomy) to theorize from their practices and practice what they theorize (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). MALL and the post-method perspective are based on the promise of possibly improving efficiency in language learning and teaching; and both gave wide room for autonomous learning and local identities. The two paradigms have afforded genuine opportunities for language acquisition/learning beyond the structured classroom. For more details on tools, techniques, and technology-based activities for EFL classroom, see Wilkinson (2016, pp. 264-269), and for brilliant ideas on how to harness technology for the language skills, see Blake (2016).

### **Early technology integration**

As mentioned above, embedding technology in language education has been associated with SLA theories and pedagogical approaches. The selection of ICTs normally serves the purpose of a given approach to language education (Davies, Otto & Rüschoff, 2013). When discussing technology integration in its early days, behaviouristic CALL is taken as a point of reference. It coincided with the behaviouristic theory of language learning in the 1960s and 1970s. Wilkinson (2016) noted that early tech inventions such as phonograph records, reel-to-reel tapes were capitalized on to improve listening and drill activities. Then, the portable cassette tape recorder became popular for listening and voice recording. Within the trenches of educational technology, behaviourist-learning theories were anchored in drill-and-practice applications, centring on repetitive language drills and games. The drill-and-practice rehearsal was more effective with the help of mainframe computer. It developed isolated and discrete competences (often out of context). Language teachers and professionals who followed the grammar-translation method relied on such technologies. Then the emergence of Overhead Projector (OHP) and early software computer programs eased mechanical drilling. During the 1970s, when the audio-lingual method was at its zenith, language learners used audiotaped materials (in audio labs) to repeat monotonous pattern drills. The audiolingual approach became peripheral towards the closure of the 1970s. Critics contend that it waned in popularity due to lack of focus on communicative aspects of language use – the incapability of language learners in responding to unrehearsed situations.

In the 1980s, the communicative CALL surfaced in parallel with the cognitive theories that assumed that humans are different; and based on this assumption, some students learn better by watching movies, animations, and listening to audios; and some by using images. A variety of software simulating real life situations was developed. Examples of this trend included text re-construction programs which prompted rearranging words and discovering

meaningful patterns. The late 1980s and early 1990s witnessed a move toward communicative language teaching, engaging students in real life interaction. This approach underscored computer-based activities to (a) teach grammar implicitly, (b) facilitate generating original utterances (rather than prefabricated patterns) and (c) use the target language predominantly or even exclusively (Gündüz, 2005). Personal computers that coexisted at that time afforded greater possibilities for individualized work. The golden time of CD-ROMs and multimedia computers dates back to this period but that did not replace the established ICTs- television, videotapes, audio cassettes, and language labs. Although the communicative CALL was hailed as superior to the behaviourist CALL, linguists by 1990 viewed it critically. Kenning and Kenning (1990) voiced concern that the computer was used in an ad hoc and disconnected fashion “ making a greater contribution to marginal rather than central elements of the language learning process” (p. 90). Detractors of the communicative CALL argued that while working with computers, the focus was not so much on what students did with the machine but rather what they did with each other.

### **Technology integration in the post-method era**

The continuation of ICT advances stimulated ideas for L2 pedagogy refinements and provoked a gradual shift from method to post method (1990s-2000s). Based on this shift, English language classroom were directed to be communicative, interactive, and learner-centred. Continued technology advancements and public uses of the Internet laid the foundation for integrative CALL (Gonzalez & Louis, 2013). Stimulated by the Web 1.0 and Web 2.0, the internet-based tools and applications flooded quite regularly. This invasion of ICTs opened up more opportunities for using English online, providing corpora for analysis (Zappavigna, 2012). Many researchers collected data for their research projects from online chatrooms, forum groups, wikis, blogs, and the like. The accelerating development of technology, especially the social media and networking, guided a shift from the cognitive view of communicative teaching to a more social and socio-cognitive view (Wilkinson, 2016). Cognitive-constructivist approaches gradually found their match in digital technologies, i.e. integrating learners in authentic environments and integrating the skills of language learning and usage (Davies, Otto & Rüschoff, 2013; Wilkinson, 2016). The socio-cognitive approaches enhanced the use of language in authentic social contexts. Methodologies based on tasks (task-based), projects (project-based) or contents (content-based) prompted learner autonomy. New technologies enabled “learners to combine speaking, listening, reading, and writing in ways that resemble more closely how they normally engage with the digital facets of their own lives” (Blake, 2016, p. 129). Compared to the previous phases of CALL, students in the integrative CALL employed a variety of technological tools in an ongoing learning process instead of visiting computer labs once a week for isolated exercises (as it was in the behaviourist CALL). Computers played the role of a tutor providing “instruction, feedback, and testing in grammar, vocabulary, writing, pronunciation, and other dimensions of language and culture learning” (Kern, 2006, p.191).

The dawn of the twenty-first century which coincided with matchless internet applications gave rebirth to CALL, dubbed Intelligent CALL (shortened as iCALL). It is an interdisciplinary field of research drawing on a number of disciplines in applied linguistics and

computing. It applies concepts, techniques, algorithms and technologies from artificial intelligence (Blake, 2016; Gonzalez & Louis, 2013). Owing to its sophisticated underlying technologies, iCALL added a new dimension to the traditional CALL. It is a more structured, operationalized instructional environment than its precursor CALL. The iCALL systems offer a wide variety of interaction. The arrival of Smartphones, tablets and the many other sophisticated appliances and electronic platforms have been a real boon to the 21st language learners. The revival of the Web 1.0 (i.e. Web 2.0 & the nascent Web 3.0) gave ground to new applications such as Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, Skype, etc. which extended potentials of worldwide communication. The multiplicity of ICTs has narrowed the *digital divide*<sup>2</sup> and facilitated ICT-based tasks even in low-tech environments (Gonzalez & Louis, 2013). The gap has been increasingly lessened. This phase of ICT development fostered aspects of language learning such as acculturation (Vurdien & Puranen, 2018), authenticity (Davies, Otto & Rüschoff, 2013; Wilkinson, 2016), and virtual interaction (Chapelle, 2005).

iCALL is characterized by connecting learners, instructors, and researchers with electronic language resources. The evolution of the WWW extended users' roles: from access (Web 1.0), to contribution (Web 2.0) and innovation (Web 3.0). To illustrate, the Web 1.0 which was a read-only platform restricted the users' interaction with it. The Web 2.0 and Web 3.0, however, spawned opportunities of online communication and participation; language learners using these versions of the web are not only consumers but also producers of technology-based materials. For example, learners may "enjoy being producers of videos because they have at their fingertips a variety of digital video tools, which they routinely use to upload recordings to YouTube" (Blake, 2016, p. 131). Such video clips might be commented on, and this feedback is useful for evaluating the contents. That is, iCALL which is at the vanguard of CALL development has provided a much more multimodal context that affords learners greater agency and autonomy (Blake, 2016; Vurdien & Puranen, 2018). These technological advances have made possible to re-orient, re-create, and re-appropriate existing teaching materials, curricula and other relevant issues within the post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Nonetheless, the capacious CALL has been recently critiqued (Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013), and mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) was suggested instead. It has gained currency but not replaced CALL.

### **Limitations**

Despite the pervasiveness of technology, there are some challenges that stand in the way of technology-assisted language learning. To begin with, there is no straightforward formula for technology integration or as Nimehchisalem (2014) put it, "no validated framework is available for this purpose" (p. 297). The variability of ICT tools and applications facilitates no clear method of using such appliances which are incredibly updated. The WWW, for instance, is a creation from the 1990s. It predated the many web-based applications, e.g. Facebook in 2004, YouTube in 2005, Twitter in 2006, etc. Based on the development which is already

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<sup>2</sup> 'Digital divide' refers to the gap between those who have access to ICT and those who do not or has less fortunate to access it. It is better thought of as a continuum where some contexts have great access and hence make great advantages of ICT while some other contexts lag behind.

underway, researchers predict that it will become even more so in the future. Crystal (2008) speculated that further innovative developments, especially of an interactive kind, will push human languages in unexpected directions. Successful integration of technology requires a balance between pedagogy and technology. Using ICT without 'scope and sequence' becomes misleading, or maybe a recipe for disaster in some contexts (Lewis, 2015; Chun, Kern & Smith, 2016; Webb, 2014; Motteram, 2013).

The conundrum is that the bulk of ICTs are generally multipurpose technologies with layers of complexity. Many ICTs were not primarily invented for language teaching and learning purposes. Only a handful of digital technologies were created specifically for learning purposes – Interactive White Board (IWB) is a case in point. Many technological gadgets and applications do not materialize into useable technologies for language learning and teaching right away. There is a need to adopt and adapt certain ICTs. In Garrett's (2009) words, "there simply is no such thing as an ideal configuration of hardware or an ideal set of software for language learners in general, and there probably never will be" (p. 717). The uses of wearable technologies, Sharples et al. (2009) argued, "may only be suitable for part of the activity, with other parts being better supported by other technologies, or by no technology at all" (p. 237). Similarly, Garrett (2009) maintained that "the full benefits of CALL will not be realized until its use is fully integrated with classroom work on the basis of theoretically motivated research on the kinds of learning activities most enhanced by technology and those best undertaken without it" (p.702).

Additionally, many ESL and EFL contexts are not ripe for ICT integration. The complexity and diversity of modern technology have made it a challenging endeavour in contexts where a lack of teacher training is coupled with ICT inaccessibility. Hence, the onus is on teachers to make informed choices of ICTs that they deploy (Derbel, 2017; Garrett 2009; Zhao, Byers, Puge & Sheldon, 2002). Deciding what is best in any particular situation, Garrett (2009) argued, "will always require a teacher's considered analysis of that situation and detailed information on the...available options" (p.717). Because ICTs are not always used for activities they were originally intended for, educators need to innovatively re-appropriate such ICTs for learning and teaching purposes. The selection, understandably, is affected by (a) educators' understanding of the capacities of technology, (b) the real functions of technology and (c) educational goals and process. Stockwell and Hubbard's (2013) asserted that the techniques of integrating cutting-edge ICT into modern instructional and learning theories such as "constructivism" and "connectivism" need to be thoroughly researched "to ensure that tasks are suited to the affordances of the devices used" (p. 3). Inadequate knowledge about ICT applications prevents teachers and learners from promoting learning of higher order cognitive skills which are difficult to address without technical aids (Derbel, 2017; Nimehchisalem, 2014).

Assessment of digital language learning is another limitation of technology integration. A big deal of research was based on users' perceptions rather than standardized evaluation measurements. Ben Youssef and Dahmani (2008) postulated that "ICTs are... immature by nature; they need a long process of appropriation and exploration of their possibilities by the higher education institutions before observing any significant change" (p. 53). Evaluating the impact of technology on learning and teaching L2, according to Derbel (2017), requires "taking

into account the complexity of learning and teaching with ICTs to measure and confirm the ‘alleged’ benefits of ICT use and also to foster knowledge and understanding of the use of ICTs in language education in various contexts” (p. 221). In the same vein, Wilkinson (2016) maintains that the use of technology should be informed by relevant L2 learning principles. Practical suggestions on how to select ICT tools for English classrooms and how to improve instructional activities that enhance L2 learning were laid down in Wilkinson’s study. The author suggested that for technology-based learning/teaching to be a success, there should be a rubric for activities which involve some kind of technology utilization. Such a rubric should state clearly the purpose of use, choice of content, clarity of voice, image, etc., expected outcomes, grammar and language usage, and so on. Similarly, Nimehchisalem (2014) discussed evaluative criteria and instruments for ELT software evaluation. Besides courseware adaptability, the author drew on Garrett’s (2009) suggestions of checking software materials for the accuracy, authenticity, and appropriateness of language.

In a nutshell, although technology has played a significant role in language learning and teaching for years, it is not a panacea for all problems in the field (Blake, 2008; Watson, 2001), and its effectiveness, in practice, depends largely on the way it is handled. In the literature, little is known about integrating new technological resources of learning into an overall plan of learning and teaching (Chun, Kern & Smith, 2016). Watson (2001) and Motteram (2013) asserted that technology should be grounded in pedagogy so as to make it relevant to aspects of input, output and languaging. Likewise, Garrett (2009) assumed that “successful integration of technology will require new perspectives and new theory” (p.714) rather than relying singly on technology. Some researchers found that fruitful integration of ICT is more likely to happen when teachers’ general pedagogical approach corresponds, in some way, to the characteristics of the technology (Garrett, 2009; Zhao, Pugh, Sheldon & Byers, 2002).

### **Conclusion**

The influx of technology in L2 instruction has been evident at every stage of ELT. It turned into a tempting area of research since the inception of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Turning into the twenty-first century, the cell phone with its features of mobility and space-restricted touch screens have provided an impetus for mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) – the mobility of learning and learners. Driven by the mobility of modern life, language learning nowadays is boundless to classroom and textbooks. Learners pass most of their lives using digital ICTs on their own, and this has provided opportunities for self-directed learning. Whereas early technologies were basically employed to convey and store data, modern ICTs have widened the spectrum of innovation by including emails, synchronous chat, asynchronous discussion groups, and the many types of web-based tools. Today L2 pedagogy is associated with computers, mobile devices, and the Internet applications. Language teachers and learners are familiar with a long list of technologies such as IWB, videos, web-based applications (e.g. blogs, wikis, Facebook, Twitter) and there are many in the pipeline. Despite the diversity of ICTs, a thorough approach to technology integration is still a topic of debate. Last but not least, extolling technology without addressing its challenges is a cautionary note. Even though old and new appliances maximize genuine opportunities to learn and teach

L2, ICT does not automatically lead to better language learning. The study concludes with a contention that technology integration is a work in progress that facilitates no conclusion; and watertight theoretical frameworks hardly exist. This warrants further research to explore uncharted areas and find out how technology is precisely manipulated for better learning and teaching outcomes.

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# Language Teaching and Educational Research

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## The Impact of Student-Teacher Relationships, Content Knowledge, and Teaching Ability on Students with Diverse Motivation Levels

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## Research Article

# The impact of student-teacher relationships, content knowledge, and teaching ability on students with diverse motivation levels<sup>1</sup>

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### Abstract

The purpose of this research study was to explore the impact effective teacher characteristics have on student motivation within the classroom in order to inform Education Preparation Programs (EPPs) with further knowledge regarding how to support and train future teachers. Specifically, this study sought to (1) determine differences in effective teacher characteristics as perceived by students with diverse motivation levels, (2) determine if relationships exist between effective teacher characteristics, self-efficacy, incremental beliefs, and the degree of student motivation, and (3) determine if teacher content knowledge, (b) teaching ability, and (c) student-teacher relationships significantly predict the degree to which a student is motivated. Results showed that there was a statistically significant difference in student motivation when students perceived that a) strong student-teacher relationships were present, b) high content knowledge of a teacher was exhibited, and c) exemplary teaching ability was displayed. Data from this study adds to the body of literature that encourages EPPs to train teachers to become expert leaders by incorporating effective characteristics needed to improve teaching and learning required of today's 21<sup>st</sup> century schools.

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# Öğrenci-öğretmen ilişkileri, öğretmenlerin alan bilgisi, ve öğretim yeteneğinin farklı motivasyon düzeyine sahip öğrenciler üzerine etkisi

## Öz

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Eğitime Hazırlık Programları'nı, geleceğin öğretmenlerini nasıl eğitip destekleyebileceğine ilişkin bilgilendirmek açısından, etkili öğretmen özelliklerinin sınıf içinde öğrenci motivasyonu üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır. Mevcut çalışma, spesifik olarak, (1) farklı motivasyon düzeyine sahip öğrencilerin gözünden etkili öğretmen özelliklerindeki değişkenlikleri, (2) etkili öğretmen özellikleri, öz-yeterlik, marjinal inançlar, ve öğrencilerin motivasyon düzeyi arasındaki olası ilişkileri, (3) öğretmenlerin (a) alan bilgisi, (b) öğretim yeteneği, ve (c) öğrenci-öğretmen ilişkilerinin öğrencilerin güdülenme düzeylerini anlamlı bir şekilde yordayıp yordamadıklarını belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Sonuç olarak, öğrenciler öğrenci-öğretmen ilişkisinin kuvvetli olduğunu, öğretmenlerin alan bilgisinin yüksek olduğunu ve örnekleyici öğretmen yeteneklerinin sergilendiği algıladıkları zaman öğrencilerin motivasyon düzeyinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılık bulunmuştur. Çalışmadan elde edilen veriler, günümüz 21. yüzyıl okullarının gereksinim duyduğu eğitim-öğretimin geliştirilmesi için gereken etkin özelliklerin bir araya getirilmesiyle, Eğitime Hazırlık Programları'nın öğretmenleri uzman liderlere dönüştürmesini teşvik etmesi bakımından alanyazına katkılar sunmaktadır.

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**Anahtar kelimeler**  
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etkili öğretmenler  
öğretim yeteneği  
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## Introduction

A renewed interest in teacher preparation reform has been directly voiced by The Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) but indirectly voiced by the new assessment portfolio through edTPA, which demands more rigorous goals and standards from universities who are preparing today's teachers (Heafner, McIntyre, & Spooner, 2014; Stanford Center for Assessment, 2014). Maintaining an enriched learning environment as well as a knowledge of a variety of strategies are both emphasized by CAEP and edTPA (Fulgini, Howes, Huang, Hong, & Lara-Cinisomo, 2012). Quality teachers must exhibit an ability to manage a classroom, create an atmosphere where learning can take place, and increase student academic achievement (Klassen et al., 2013).

Accounting for recent achievement gaps, educational researchers have given much attention over the years to recognizing qualities of effective teachers as well as determining which teacher characteristics are vital in order to create a successful teacher leader. There is a large body of literature that defines a teacher leader as a teacher that emphasizes improving classroom instruction (Danielson, 2007; Patterson & Patterson, 2004; Suwaidi & Schoepp, 2015). Danielson (2007) stated that "teacher leaders aim to improve teaching and learning" (p. 16). This attention to teacher leadership can inform district leaders, future educators and EPPs about what teachers should exhibit in the classroom.

Liu and Meng (2009) concluded that "students value specific teacher characteristics and among the characteristics students outlined were teaching ability, adequate content knowledge, and positive student-teacher relationships" (p. 319), yet often times, they are not present in the classroom. These three characteristics consistently show up in literature surrounding what makes a good teacher (Lui & Meng, 2009; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Samples & Copeland, 2013; Wilkins, 2014). Vlad and Ciascai (2014) stated, "students see the teacher as a person with a complex role, not only as a simple information providing tool" (p. 2), thus in order to maximize learning, teachers must value this complex role set forth and desired by students and exhibit these vital characteristics as necessary. Given the impact teachers have in the classroom as leaders, the aim of this research study was to explore the impact effective teacher characteristics have on student motivation within the classroom in order to inform Education Preparation Programs (EPPs) with further knowledge regarding how to support and train future teachers.

### Student behavior

For the purpose of this study, Bandura (1986) and Herzberg (1968) provided the framework in behavior modification, which served as the groundwork for student behaviors. Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as "personal judgments of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated goals on specific tasks" (p. 39). Self-efficacy beliefs influence the amount of effort and persistence students place on completing tasks and influence positive emotional reactions. Students with high self-efficacy have less stress and anxiety and are willing to put forth more effort because they do not fear failure due to the belief that they are capable (Zimmerman, 2000). Intrinsic motivation occurs when a person participates in an activity for its inherent satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and provides true fulfillment that comes from within (Herzberg, 1968). Extrinsic motivation occurs when a

person participates in an activity because it leads to a separate outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and relates to the external environment, which can serve as a dissatisfier if not met (Herzberg, 1968). Relationships impact academic motivation of students and how a student perceives him/herself. If the student-teacher relationship is too impersonal, student motivation can be thwarted (Elliot & Dweck, 2005), which can also hinder academic motivation of the student (Wentzel, 1998). The student-teacher relationship and how comfortable the student is with the teacher are not only significantly related to understanding concepts introduced within a class but are also significantly related to how interesting the student finds the class (Kelly & Whatley, 1980).

### **Teacher behavior**

Teacher behavior is viewed through the lens of teacher leadership and the definitions surrounding the mission of a teacher leader. Suwaidi and Schoepp (2015) addressed Fay's (1992) definition of teacher leadership as a practicing teacher, who has formal preparation and schedules time for a leadership role with which to preserve the teacher mission and noted that this definition emphasizes the importance of improving teaching. Patterson and Patterson (2004) also postulated that teacher leaders emphasize improving classroom practice. Danielson (2007) stated that teacher leaders "call others to action and energize them with the aim of improving teaching and learning" (p. 16), thus describing a teacher leader as one who strengthens teaching effectiveness. Shillingstad, McGlamery, Davis, and Gilles (2015) concurred with this notion that teacher leaders improve the teaching and learning. "Effective teacher leaders draw upon their extensive knowledge of curriculum, best practices, and current research" (Shillingstad et al., 2015, p. 13).

### **Methodology**

This quantitative self-perception survey study involved middle and high school students who were invited to participate in a study to determine the impact that effective teacher characteristics have on student motivational beliefs. The target sample was considered a sample of convenience given the researcher's connection to the students. Students were sent a text that included both the purpose of the study and the survey link. Students consented to the study at the beginning of the survey. The survey was anonymous and all data was confidential. After data collection had been completed, it was determined that a total of 141 middle and high school students had volunteered to provide self-perception data regarding effective teacher characteristics and student motivational beliefs. Six questions, utilizing 11-point, Likert-scale questions (0 = terrible; 10 = amazing) were used to capture students' beliefs regarding their teachers' teaching ability, content knowledge, and student-teacher relationship for both classes in which they were highly motivated and not motivated to succeed (i.e. *Think of the classes at school, in which you are very motivated to succeed. How would you describe your teacher's content knowledge?*). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were evaluated using the guidelines suggested by George and Mallery (2016) where  $> .9$  excellent,  $> .7$  acceptable, and  $\leq .5$  unacceptable. The items measuring teacher characteristics for classes in which students were motivated had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.61. The items measuring teacher characteristics for classes in which students were not motivated had a Cronbach's alpha

coefficient of 0.73. Students' perceptions of their own self-efficacy beliefs (0 = not able at all; 10 = extremely able), incremental beliefs (0 = not at all; 10 = extremely), and overall motivation (0 = not motivated at all; 10 = extremely motivated) were each measured with one question each using 11-point, Likert-scale questions. Only one question for each of the three aforementioned constructs was used and deemed appropriate (a) in order to provide a shorter survey for students and increase the response rate and (b) because, according to Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007), single-item measures demonstrate equally high predictive validity as multi-item measures. Lastly, students were asked to self-report which teacher characteristics they valued most (i.e. teaching ability, content knowledge, or student-teacher relationship). Construct validity of the survey items was tested during a pilot study utilizing 61 college students. College students completed surveys and education faculty members reviewed the survey. Some items were edited for clarity and all items were deemed valid for the current study. Data were collected utilizing electronic surveys created through *Survey Gizmo* and then analyzed using a variety of *t*-tests, correlation analyses, and regression analyses. The following questions guided the research:

1. Is there a significant difference in the perceptions of high and low motivated students regarding (a) teacher content knowledge, (b) teaching ability, and (c) student-teacher relationships?
2. Do (a) teacher content knowledge, (b) teaching ability, and (c) student-teacher relationships significantly predict the degree to which a student is motivated?
3. Do statistically significant relationships exist between effective teacher characteristics, self-efficacy, incremental beliefs, the degree of student motivation?

## Findings

### Results to research question 1

For the middle and high school population a series of paired sample *t*-tests were conducted. The result of the first paired samples *t*-test was significant,  $t(132) = 13.25, p < .001$ , suggesting that the perceived teaching ability for teachers was significantly different for motivated and unmotivated students. The teaching ability ( $M = 7.66$ ) for teachers of highly motivated students was significantly higher than the teaching ability for teachers of unmotivated students ( $M = 4.11$ ). The results of the second paired samples *t*-test was significant,  $t(132) = 12.62, p < .001$ , suggesting that the perceived student-teacher relationships was significantly different for motivated and unmotivated students. The perceived quality of student-teacher relationships for highly motivated students ( $M = 8.09$ ) was significantly higher than the perceived quality of student-teacher relationship for unmotivated students ( $M = 4.93$ ). The result of third paired samples *t*-test was significant,  $t(132) = 10.70, p < .001$ , suggesting that the perceived content knowledge of teachers was significantly different for motivated and unmotivated students. The perceived content knowledge for teachers of highly motivated students ( $M = 8.77$ ) was significantly higher than the perceived content knowledge for teachers of unmotivated students ( $M = 6.55$ ). Tables 1, 2, and 3 outline the result of the *t*-tests comparing perceptions of motivated and unmotivated middle school and high school students regarding their teachers' effective teacher characteristics.

**Table 1.** Paired samples t-test for differences in perceived student-teacher relationships by motivated and unmotivated students

Motivated		Unmotivated		t	p	d
m	sd	m	sd			
8.09	1.95	4.93	2.66	12.62	< .001	1.35

Note: Degrees of Freedom for the *t*-statistic = 132. *d* represents Cohen's *d*.

**Table 2.** Paired samples t-test for differences in perceived teacher content knowledge by motivated and unmotivated students

Motivated		Unmotivated		t	p	d
m	sd	m	sd			
8.77	1.36	6.55	2.39	10.70	< .001	1.14

Note: Degrees of Freedom for the *t*-statistic = 132. *d* represents Cohen's *d*.

**Table 3.** Paired samples t-test for differences in perceived teaching ability by motivated and unmotivated students

Motivated		Unmotivated		t	p	d
m	sd	m	sd			
7.66	1.99	4.11	2.69	13.25	< .001	1.50

Note: Degrees of Freedom for the *t*-statistic = 132. *d* represents Cohen's *d*.

### Results to research question 2

For the purpose of answering this research question for the middle and high school population, students were placed into two groups (i.e. motivated and unmotivated) based on scores from items on the survey measuring level of overall motivation. For highly motivated middle and high school students, the results of the linear regression model were significant ( $F(6,93) = 4.26, p < .001, R^2 = 0.22$ ), indicating that approximately 22% of the variance in the level of motivation was explainable by incremental beliefs, self-efficacy, type of motivation, teacher content knowledge, teaching ability, and student-teacher relationships. Teacher content knowledge significantly predicted students' level of motivation ( $B = 0.31, t(93) = 2.51, p = .014$ ). This indicates that on average, every one unit increase of a teacher's content knowledge will result in a 0.31 unit change in a student's level of motivation. Table 4 shows these results.

**Table 4.** Results for multiple linear regression with incremental beliefs, self-efficacy, type of motivation, content knowledge, student-teacher relationships, and teaching ability predicting highly motivated students' level of motivation

Variable	B	SE	$\beta$	t	p
(Intercept)	1.79	1.35	0.00	1.33	.186
Incremental Beliefs	0.18	0.10	0.19	1.85	.067
Self-Efficacy	0.19	0.11	0.16	1.62	.108
Type of Motivation (Intrinsic)	0.27	0.29	0.09	0.94	.347
Content Knowledge	0.31	0.12	0.25	2.51	.014
Student-Teacher Relationships	0.04	0.08	0.06	0.56	.577
Teaching Ability	-0.03	0.09	-0.03	-0.30	.765



Note:  $F(6,93) = 4.26, p < .001, R^2 = 0.22$

For unmotivated middle and high school students, the results of the linear regression model were significant ( $F(6,95) = 3.49, p = .004, R^2 = 0.18$ ), indicating that approximately 18% of the variance in the level of motivation was explainable by incremental beliefs, self-efficacy, type of motivation, teacher content knowledge, teaching ability, and student-teacher relationships. Incremental beliefs significantly predicted students' level of motivation ( $B = 0.19, t(95) = 2.11, p = .037$ ). This indicates that on average, every one unit increase in incremental beliefs will result in a 0.19 unit change in a student's level of motivation. Table 5 shows these results.

**Table 5.** Results for multiple linear regression with incremental beliefs, self-efficacy, type of motivation, content knowledge, student-teacher relationships, and teaching ability predicting unmotivated students' level of motivation

Variable	B	SE	$\beta$	t	p
(Intercept)	3.97	1.02	0.00	3.88	< .001
Incremental beliefs	0.19	0.09	0.22	2.11	.037
Self-efficacy	0.22	0.11	0.20	1.96	.053
Type of motivation (Intrinsic)	0.28	0.29	0.09	0.99	.325
Content knowledge	-0.03	0.07	-0.05	-0.45	.653
Student-teacher relationships	0.05	0.07	0.09	0.71	.480
Teaching ability	0.06	0.07	0.11	0.88	.380

Note:  $F(6,95) = 3.49, p = .004, R^2 = 0.18$

### Results to research question 3

For the middle and high school population, a Pearson correlation analysis was conducted among level of motivation, incremental beliefs, self-efficacy, and effective teacher characteristics and found that all factors were significantly correlated. Results of the correlations are presented in Table 6.

**Table 6.** Pearson correlation matrix among level of motivation, incremental beliefs, self-efficacy, and effective teacher characteristics

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Level of motivation	-			
2. Incremental beliefs	0.34***	-		
3. Self-efficacy	0.28**	0.38***	-	
4. Effective teacher characteristics	0.29**	0.35**	0.20*	-

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$

Chronbach Alpha for effective teacher characteristics ( $\alpha = .65$ )

## Discussion

This research is grounded on the premise that a teacher leader is defined as one who improves their own teaching, thus positively impacting the learning of their students (Danielson, 2007; Patterson & Patterson, 2004; Suwaidi & Schoepp, 2015). The current study's

results further emphasized how teacher leader characteristics, if present in classrooms, can enhance student motivation, which can, in turn, positively impact achievement. Key findings from data included:

1. Motivated students had significantly higher perceptions of their teachers' effective characteristics (i.e. student-teaching relationships, content knowledge, and teaching ability) than unmotivated students did.
2. For *motivated* middle and high school students, the perception of their teacher's content knowledge was the highest predictor of the level to which they were motivated.
3. For *unmotivated* middle and high school students, the perception of their own incremental beliefs was the highest predictor of the level to which they were motivated.
4. Students' perceptions on their teacher's effective teacher characteristics (i.e. student-teaching relationships, content knowledge, and teaching ability) was significantly positively correlated to their (a) level of motivation, (b) incremental beliefs, and (c) self-efficacy beliefs.

These results provide further evidence supporting the implementation of effective behaviors by teacher leaders within the classroom. For instance, it is important to note that data from the middle school and high school population concluded that content knowledge was the highest predictor of motivation for motivated students, and how a student viewed their own ability to learn was the highest predictor of motivation for unmotivated students. Students are not only diverse in their physical demographics but also diverse in their motivational beliefs, and the level of motivation a student exhibits may determine what specific characteristics of a teacher the student values most. EPPs should help teachers recognize that students may vary in their motivational beliefs and as a result may place value on different teacher characteristics. These results can help inform EPPs as they create curriculum changes and incorporate best practices within their programs. These results add to the body of literature that encourages EPPs to train teachers to incorporate effective behaviors needed to improve teaching and learning required of today's 21<sup>st</sup> century schools. However, more research is needed to further determine which specific behaviors teachers can implement to positively impact students with various motivation levels.

### Conclusion

Becoming a teacher leader in 21<sup>st</sup> century schools requires teachers to spend more time engaged in activities that may compete with maintaining effective teacher characteristics. Thus, with such high expectations, it is vital that today's teachers have tools for improving motivation in the classroom in order to positively impact student learning (Rushton & Juola-Rushton, 2008). This study emphasized three teacher characteristics, that not only aligns with other previous literature, but specifically with Liu and Meng's (2009) study, which similarly highlighted the importance of teaching ability, adequate content knowledge, and positive student-teacher relationships" (p. 319). Teaching ability is a vital part of student success, as literature continues to confirm that teachers whose students have numerous opportunities to learn and are actively engaged are more likely to demonstrate their competence, earn higher grades, perform better in class, and have higher expectations for their own success (Ateh & Charpentier, 2014; Turner, Christensen, Kacker-Cam, Trucano & Fulmer 2014). Considering content knowledge, Shulman (1986, 1987) lead the way with the literature that identified the

importance of teacher subject-area knowledge in the classroom. Regarding relationships, Furrer, Skinner and Pitzer (2014) confirmed the importance of student teacher relationships and stated that teachers can “undermine students’ motivational needs when they interact with students in ways that are rejecting, chaotic, or coercive” (p. 108).

Apart from effective teacher characteristics, self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1993; Zimmerman, 2000), intrinsic beliefs (Herzberg, 1968; Ryan & Deci, 2000), and incremental beliefs (Blackwell et al., 2007) can also influence the extent to which a student will strive towards success. If teachers can cater to the needs of diverse students on an individual level by recognizing that students are unique and by understanding that a) student motivation is related not only to the perception students have regarding teacher characteristics (Kelly & Whatley, 1980; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Samples & Copeland, 2013; Wilkins, 2014), but also to the perception students have of themselves and b) that the choices students make are influenced by their beliefs (Bandura, 1986; Goodard, Hoy & Hoy, 2004; Pajares, 1996), teachers may be more successful in their attempts to motivate their students.

### **Suggestions**

Results from this study concur with other motivation literature suggesting that students are both diverse in their level of motivation as well as in their perceptions of themselves and their teachers. Data revealed that the more students perceived that their teachers had content knowledge, teaching ability, student-teacher relationships, and believed that students could succeed, the more likely students were to have higher self-efficacy beliefs relating to their ability to succeed in their classes. These results not only provide insight for EPPs but also for principals, especially in the hiring process and recruiting of quality teachers. Since students were more likely to be motivated in classrooms where teachers reflected positive attributes of teaching ability, content knowledge and student-teacher relationships, principals should make sure these attributes are evident in the teachers they hire.

It was determined that for highly motivated students, content knowledge was the factor that had the most impact on the degree to which the student was motivated. For students with low motivation, incremental beliefs were determined as the factor that had the most impact. Parents should be made aware of these differences in motivation so that at home, they may be able to further provide scaffolds that cater to the needs of their children. Specifically for unmotivated children, parents need to find ways to further communicate to their children that they are capable of learning new things. If students foster that belief both at home and at school, they may be more likely to carry those beliefs throughout difficult tasks that are provided to them.

It is recommended that teachers take time to recognize the individual level of motivation for all students and recognize into which category they fall (low or high) in order to cater to their diverse needs. This may require professional development on student motivation and strategies that are known to boost motivation. Teachers need to account for the relationships these motivational concepts have on students’ desire and ability to succeed in the classroom. If teachers strive to become more effective teachers by improving their content knowledge, teaching ability, and student-teacher relationships, students’ self-efficacy beliefs could be improved thus indirectly improving success in the classroom.

### Limitations and Future Research

Limitations were noted at the conclusion of this study surrounding the sample and methodology of the study. Given the small sample size, this study is not generalizable to a larger population outside of those who volunteered. The sample was considered a convenient sample based on those who volunteered to complete the survey. As a result, further studies need to be conducted with larger sample sizes in order to make further conclusive results.

Regarding the methodology, since the study was a self-perception study, participants were expected to be honest with their answers as well as unbiased. Participants might have been tempted to respond in a way that matched what they perceived the researcher was wanting. As a result of this limitation, this study should be replicated to further validate these results.

Participants were also asked to respond to questions as they related to classes in which they were motivated and unmotivated to succeed, with the assumption that all students have varying levels of motivations based on the task to which they are expected to complete (Ryan and Deci, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). This was noted as a limitation as the “motivation to succeed” was not defined and left up to the discretion of the participant. Future studies should define motivation in a way that all participants are providing answers based on the same concept and definition of motivation.

This study did not explore student demographics such as culture, race, gender, and age. Students are diverse in a number of ways, thus, exploring motivation from these angles may provide further insight into how teachers might better impact students in their classroom by catering to diverse needs.

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## Turkish Pre-service EFL Teachers' Views on Integrating Various Literary Genres in Teaching English

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## Research Article

# Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' views on integrating various literary genres in teaching English

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### Abstract

The aim of this qualitative study was to have a deeper understanding of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' views on integrating short stories, poems, plays and novels in English language teaching. In this light, the researcher tried to find answers to the research question through students' reflections written after their practice teaching presentations in one of their 3<sup>rd</sup> year courses. The results were analyzed through content analysis and emerging codes were categorized under themes and sub-themes. This coding process was done by two experienced researchers in the field of English Language Teaching in order to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the results. The findings revealed four main categories: teacher feelings, problems in using literature, advantages of using literature and suggestions for using literature in ELT. Among all four genres, the pre-service teachers stated more negative feelings, problems and suggestions, and fewer advantages for using novel in teaching English. Furthermore, students in all genre groups indicated they enjoyed using literary texts in their presentations, and suggested choosing appropriate texts for language learners, giving background information about those texts and combining teaching language structures with literature in classroom activities.

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# Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının İngilizce öğretiminde çeşitli edebiyat türlerinin kullanımına yönelik görüşleri

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## Öz

Bu nitel çalışmanın amacı İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının İngilizce öğretiminde kısa hikaye, şiir, oyun ve roman kullanımı üzerine görüşlerini belirlemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, araştırmacı, 3. sınıf öğrencilerinden derste uygulama yaptıkları sunumlarından sonra yazılı görüş almış ve bu görüşler içerik analizi sonucunda ortaya çıkan kodların temalar ve alt-temalar halinde gruplandırılması sonucu incelenmiştir. Sonuçların kodlama süreci inandırıcılık açısından alanında uzman iki araştırmacı tarafından yapılmıştır. Analiz sonucunda bulgular dört ana tema altında toplanmıştır: öğretmenin duyguları, edebiyat kullanımındaki problemler, edebiyat kullanımının avantajları, İngilizce öğretiminde edebiyatın kullanımına ilişkin öneriler. Katılımcılar çalışmaya dahil edilen dört edebiyat türü arasında en fazla problem ve öneriyi İngilizce öğretiminde roman kullanımı için belirtmişlerdir. Yine aynı şekilde katılımcılar romanın İngilizce öğretiminde kullanımını açısından daha az avantajlı olduğu görüşündedirler. Ayrıca çalışma dahilindeki tüm edebiyat türü gruplarındaki öğrenciler öğretmenlik deneyimi yaşadıkları sunumlarında edebi eserleri kullanırken çok eğlendiklerini belirtmişlerdir. Bu eserleri kullanırken öğrencilerin seviye ve ilgi alanları açısından uygun metinlerin kullanılmasını, metinlerin kullanımından önce metinle ilgili ön bilgi verilmesini ve sınıf içi etkinliklerde İngilizce dil yapılarının edebiyat ile bütünleştirilerek verilmesini önermişlerdir.

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**Anahtar kelimeler**  
edebiyat  
tür  
duygular  
problemler  
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## Introduction

Throughout the history of language learning and teaching, the use of literary texts has shown fluctuation, starting from Greek and Latin works to its popularity loss with the rise of speaking, and most recently its uptrend in the field (Maley, 2001). Having previously seen as an elite source for teaching languages, the tendency to integrate it as an authentic material in language classrooms has increased over the years (Kramersch & Kramersch, 2000; Paran, 2006; Carter, 2007). Literature stimulates emotions, imagination, experience and dreams that cannot be achieved through other types of texts (Pulverness, 2007), and not just increases language development, but also contributes to education as a whole (Brendella, 2000). Therefore, studies revealed many advantages of integrating literature in language teaching.

The authenticity of literary texts enables learners to engage in a meaningful context that increases student motivation (Ghosn, 2002) and enables them to have fun during the classroom activities. Language learners engaging with literature have been found to be more involved and enthusiastic in their lessons (Yang, 2001; Kim, 2004). Furthermore, both the linguistic and affective development can be achieved with these learners (Liaw, 2001). Literature can also be used to teach and encourage critical thinking (Diaz-Santos, 2000) and develop linguistic (Clark & Zyngier, 2003) and literary (Zyngier, Fialho & do Prado Rios, 2007) awareness. The natural language of literary texts advances vocabulary and reading (Strong, 1996; Lao & Krashen, 2000; Holden, 2003; Ono, Day & Harsh, 2004; Wang & Guthrie, 2004) and fosters higher order thinking skills as well as developing emotional, interpersonal (Ghosn, 2002) and intercultural awareness (Strong, 1996; Ghosn, 2002; Kayaoğlu, Çıraklı, Aykıt & Taş, 2012; Tuncer & Kızıldağ, 2014).

Along with its advantages, some researchers stated some problems that may occur during the integration of literature in language teaching. These studies indicate that in teacher-based instructions, literature is not given much importance, and compared to other texts used in language teaching, literary texts can be demotivating for language learners (Edmondson, 1997; Vandrick, 2003). Moreover, for the development of the genres of academic writing, literature provides little support (Vandrick, 2003). Some other problems that learners can experience with these authentic texts have been stated as the difficulty of syntactic patterns, high level vocabulary, meaning differences, cultural contrasts. Little knowledge on aesthetics and genres may also cause difficulties for language learners (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011).

When using literature in the classroom, EFL teachers benefit from various genres such as poems, short stories, plays and novels. Due to the different language structures and deviations from the original sentence formation, poetry is the least used genre among the others in foreign language classes (Widdowson, 1984). However, Kellem (2009) suggests that poetry is a valuable source for language learners, since they can benefit from the rich content, creativity, vocabulary in context through poems. She brings a new approach to the field, namely Formeaning Approach, by combining Stylistics Approach and Reader-Response Approach (Kellem, 2009). According Formeaning Approach, language elements are studied by the learners at the same time they react to the poems depending on their personal opinions and background. In terms of the process that learners go through, poetry can serve basically in two beneficial ways. First of all, learners understand the author and his feelings, thoughts and

opinions in composing the poem. Second, learners develop themselves in understanding the meanings that words carry, and this leads to an increase in the analytical skills (Hişmanoğlu, 2005).

Short stories are found to be the easiest way of introducing literature to language learners (Spack, 1985). Furthermore, having enjoyable and compelling in essence, short stories motivate students and increase their positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2002). There are various advantages of using short stories in teaching. They help learners to comprehend the text easily, since they are short and simple (Arioğul, 2001). When compared to novels, teachers can meet different students' tastes by using various short stories in their lessons, since they are not time consuming. Furthermore, because of the shortness, teachers may require extra activities for students to comprehend the richness of the story (Collie & Slater, 2004).

Plays enable learners to figure out the usage of language structures and the cultural elements in context (Hişmanoğlu, 2005). Lazar (1993) states some of the benefits of using plays in teaching a foreign language. She indicates that plays exemplify the usage of conversational features for learners by enabling them to practice spoken discourse. Moreover, plays offer a meaningful context for them to learn formulaic structures and chunks (Lazar, 1993). The authentic nature of plays demonstrates the target culture and social structure along with fostering productive skills in language learners (Mengü, 2002).

Novels reflect the daily lives of individuals by opening a mirror into real life settings, and in this way encouraging learners to deepen their understanding of the target culture (Hişmanoğlu, 2005). Studies conducted on language learners engaging with novels suggest that novels provide more meaningful and valuable discussions than responding to comprehension questions (Yang, 2001). In integrating novels in language teaching curriculum, Lazar (1993) offered teachers to consider their learners' cultural, linguistic and literary background. In terms of cultural background, she suggested that teachers should consider novels whose culture is not too distinct from the learners, since they may have difficulties in relating and understanding the target culture. Even though learners' linguistic abilities are highly developed in foreign languages, they may not cope with the difficulties of language in the novels. Therefore, teachers should consider choosing motivating and linguistically similar text for their learners. Lastly, language teachers should realize how hand in hand linguistic and literary competences can go, since having mastery in one of them does not mean the learner is capable of the other. Even though learners can understand the words and linguistic structures in a novel, they may lack behind the literary content. For this reason, teachers should consider activities that help students balance these abilities (Lazar, 1993).

Teacher involvement in literature integrated language classrooms are found to be beneficial (Boyd & Maloof, 2000) and their roles as a facilitator are seen quite important for supporting student engagement with their friends and with the text (Kim, 2004). However, because of time limitations in the classroom (Paran, 1998) and difficulty in selecting appropriate literary works for their students (Dawson, 2005), language teachers do not favor using literature in their classes. Although some studies have found that pre-service teachers are mostly lack training on how to integrate literature in language teaching, and develop negative attitudes towards this issue (Paran, 1998; Weist, 2004; Fonder-Solano & Burnett, 2004), some

teachers have been found to be eager to merge literature and language teaching without having any training just by depending on the personal intuitions in preparing courses (Minkoff, 2006).

Studies conducted in Turkey mostly revealed that although pre-service and in-service teachers favor the use of literature in teaching English (Arslan, 2001; Arıkan, 2005; Çıraklı & Kılıçkaya, 2011; Kayaoğlu, et. al., 2014), they state some problems for the implementation of these texts. In line with the findings of previous studies (Paran, 1998), time limitations (Tuncer & Kızıldağ, 2014), centralized curriculum and entrance exams (Kayaoğlu, et. al., 2012) have been stated as the main problems these teachers face. These texts, when used in the classroom, have been found to be integrated just for practicing linguistic skills rather than stylistic and literary purposes (Kayaoğlu, et. al., 2012).

Scholars in the field of pre-service teacher education state the importance of studying teacher perceptions and views as they see it as a significant part of preparing teachers (Britzman, 2003). Pre-service teachers experience various challenges in building their personal teaching beliefs when shifting from a student to a teacher (Alsup, 2006). This process may even start way before the enrollment at a university (Marshall, 1999). The difficulties that can be faced during these processes may even result in attrition due to the intricacies pre-service teachers live through (McCann, Johannessen & Ricca, 2005; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008). Therefore, considering all its advantages stated in the literature and the significance of shaping teacher views as early as possible, it is important to study pre-service teachers' views on integrating literature in language teaching. Most studies conducted in the field of foreign language teaching have focused on teachers' views on literature as a whole. However, the scarcity of studies investigating teachers' genre-based views stands out. For this reason, this qualitative study aims to investigate Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' views on using various genres in English language teaching through their reflections. The following research question is proposed according to this aim:

What are the views of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers on integrating short story, poem, novel and play in teaching English?

### **Method**

This study has a qualitative research design aiming to understand Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' views on integrating various literary genres in their in-class teaching practices. The aim of a qualitative study is to conduct a detailed exploration of the central phenomenon, which cannot be retrieved adequately from quantitative research (Creswell, 2012). The central phenomenon of this present study is the views of pre-service EFL teachers after their teaching practice experience including short story, poem, play and novel in their third year teaching reading and writing skills course. The purpose of choosing this kind of research design is that, as Dörnyei (2007) states, qualitative studies "broaden the repertoire of possible interpretations of human experience", and in this way provides a wider scope of understanding with the help of data-driven in-depth analysis of the central phenomenon.

### **Participants**

Participants were chosen among pre-service EFL teachers studying at a state university in Turkey. Fifteen third year university students, who were taking Special Teaching Methods II

course in Spring 2016, were included in this study. Convenience sampling was done, since the recruited participants were available and willing to be studied (Creswell, 2012). These students were divided into groups according to their own decisions. In other words, each student selected the friends they wanted to work with. In line with the literary genres, namely, short story, poem, play and novel, four groups were formed and each group was assigned a genre to prepare their lesson plans accordingly. The detailed information about the participants is presented in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Information about the participants

Groups	N of Sts	Genre	Literary Piece
Group 1	3	Short Story	The Happy Prince by Oscar Wilde
Group 2	4	Poem	The Chimney Sweeper by William Blake
Group 3	4	Play	The Merchant of Venice by William Shakespeare
Group 4	4	Novel	Animal Farm by George Orwell

These students had taken English Literature courses in their second year at the department and were taking Using Literature in ELT courses at the time of this study. In English literature courses, the students were presented an overview of English literature covered mainly over poems belonging to various periods in English history. Using Literature in ELT courses required similar teaching practice presentations to the ones done for this study. However, in the former one, students were asked to handle only one activity based on a genre in the classroom as an individual work. On the other hand, students in this study were asked to prepare a whole lesson plan and worked as group.

### Data collection and procedure

As a requirement of Special Teaching Methods II course participants were asked to form groups and each group was given a literary genre (short story, poem, play and novel). The students were asked to prepare a lesson plan for their given genre as a group. A lecture on how to prepare a lesson plan had been given in the previous courses. These lesson plans were supposed to include a warm up, two main activities and a follow up activity. Since students were instructed on genres in their Using Literature in ELT courses, they were not given any extra lectures on these issues.

Each group did their teaching practice presentations separately during a 4-week process. In order to learn their views on this process, participants were asked to write reflections. These reflections were collected in two phases. Firstly, immediately after their presentations the presenters were asked to reflect on their own teaching. The researcher did not give any comments on presentations and stayed neutral during these lessons. In the second phase, after all groups covered their lessons, students were asked to reflect on their own teaching experience with respect to the following guidelines:

- (1) Write about the integration of the given genre in your own teaching practice.
- (2) Write about how you handled it.

(3) Share your views in general in this process.

### Data analysis

Pre-service teachers' both first reflections and the second reflections were analyzed qualitatively through the content analysis and descriptive methods. The analysis focused on identification and classification of issues represented in participants' reflections. The first step in this process included the listing of codes provided in the reflection papers. Then, these emerging codes were classified. Themes and sub-themes were determined. The aim of the content analysis was to analyze the written data to deduce implicit or explicit content in order to investigate social reality (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

In order to ensure inter-rater reliability a second researcher from the field of English Language Teaching independently coded the data. According to Miles and Huberman's (1996) formula, the agreement rate between the coders was calculated as 94%.

## Findings and Discussion

The findings of the content analysis were presented under three main headings: Teacher feelings, problems and advantages of using literary texts, and suggestions for use.

### Teacher feelings

The feelings of pre-service teachers were identified from their reflection papers. These feelings, according to each genre, are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Teacher feelings

Themes	Codes	Short Story	Poem	Play	Novel
Teacher Feelings	Prejudiced				x
	Puzzled	x			
	Nervous	x		x	x
	Dispirited	x			
	Anxious	x			
	Stressed			x	x
	Enjoyed	x		x	x
	Satisfied				x
<b>Total</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>5</b>

The pre-service teachers, who integrated short story into their lesson plans, have stated that they felt puzzled, nervous, dispirited and anxious during their practice lesson. One of the students explained the reason behind his being puzzled in front of the class as:

*When I first stood in front of the class, the felt puzzled at the very beginning. As much as I tried to hide my feeling, -I forget- I had no idea what I was going to do. However, I had written everything that I was supposed to do in the lesson plan. The reason behind this, -I mean the reason why I forgot everything- is the low*

*energy of students, because teaching a language through a literary text is parallel with its comprehensibility.*

Here, the student also stated one of the problems of dealing with literary texts. According to him, the difficulty of the text implicitly affected his performance in front of the class. As Khatib, Rezaei and Derakhshan (2011) stated the difficulty of the text may cause difficulties for language learners and even demotivates them (Edmondson, 1997; Vandrick, 2003), it can be said that the experiences and feelings of students may have an effect on teacher feelings and performance. Furthermore, these pre-service teachers also indicated that their lack of language proficiency during the lesson made them feel nervous, dispirited and anxious.

The participants, who used play and novel in their lessons, stated that they felt nervous and stressed. One of the students from the play group said the following:

*I was not very comfortable during the lesson, because it is always stressful for me to make the classroom play games. There can be some misunderstandings in instructions or students can be shy or I can lose the control and finally there can be problems with time management, but it was not bad, I relaxed when I saw that students are interested in the game.*

Although for this student, this stress seemed to be caused by general teaching worries and not related with the problems that can occur during the integration of literary texts (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011), another student indicated that it is good to have a little bit of stress, since it is in the nature of human beings.

Being prejudiced was only observed among the pre-service teachers who integrated novel in their lesson plan. One of those students in the novel group stated that she was prejudiced in integrating novel into teaching language prior to the preparation of the activities and expressed her feelings as:

*I was afraid because I had no idea about the topic, the plot, the characters, and how to deal with a literary text.... We brainstormed on how we can simplify the language, which clues we should give in order for our students to understand the text.*

Since teachers' role as a facilitator in the literature integrated language classroom is considered important (Kim, 2004), it is not surprising that this student's fear and as a result her prejudice against using novel affected her views. She feels the responsibility as a facilitator and her lack of knowledge on how to deal with an unfamiliar novel emerged as a negative attitude towards using literature, as previously stated in the literature (Paran, 1998; Weist, 2004; Fonder-Solano & Burnett, 2004).

For all the genres, students indicated that they enjoyed integrating literature in their teaching. One of them from the short story group stated the following:

*I enjoyed a lot while using literature as a language teaching tool.*

It is not surprising that the enjoyable nature of classroom activities for literary texts, affects both teachers and students. Especially for short stories being compelling and motivating for students (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2002), it is inevitable that teachers feel satisfied, motivated and enjoyed after their lessons.

### Problems and advantages of using literary texts

Throughout their reflections, pre-service teachers touched upon several problems and advantages that they had observed during their teaching practice. The problems for each genre were categorized into sub-themes, namely, teacher-related problems and text-related problems. This classification of codes according to genres and sub-themes are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Problems

Themes	Sub-themes	Codes	Short Story	Poem	Play	Novel	
Problems	Teacher-related problems	Time management	x	x	x	x	
		Knowledge of the text				x	
		Insufficiency of teachers' L2	x		x	x	
		Lack of student involvement	x	x			
		Giving instructions		x	x		
		Classroom management		x			
		Students using their L1		x	x		
		Preparing activities	x	x	x		
		Material selection		x			x
		Text-related problems		Length of the text			
Difficulty of the text						x	
Unknown/rare vocabulary	x					x	
<b>Total</b>		12	5	7	5	7	

As seen in Table 3, the number of problems emerged from each genre is more or less the same. However, the types of problems apart from time management, are different from each other. The participants mostly stated that during their practice teaching they had difficulty in preparing the length of activities for their literary works. For instance, a student from the poem group stated:

*We planned the level of class as intermediate, but maybe because of the simplicity of the activities, the lesson finished earlier than we expected.*

A student from the short story group stated:

*I had problems in time-management. It was actually because of my struggle to finish a whole short story in a lesson.*

And a student from the novel group stated:



*During the practice lesson presentation, I realized that the video is longer than it was supposed to and the students got bored.*

This finding is parallel with the situation in Turkey. Mostly teachers have limited time for covering course materials, and they spend little time integrating literature in their lessons. The findings of Tuncer and Kızıldağ (2014) also support the problem of having limited time for such activities. Even though students were given 2 lesson hours (45+45 minutes) for their presentations, some of the students could not use their time efficiently and exceeded their time allotted for each activity in their lesson plans. As for the poem group, they finished earlier than they planned. Being able to use time efficiently, is one of the challenges that pre-service teachers face in their transition to become a teacher (Alsup, 2006). Therefore, this problem can be attributed to the general difficulties of pre-service teachers as well as to the integration of literary genres.

The second and third mostly stated problems were the insufficiency of teachers L2 and the preparation of activities. As for the first one, the participants indicated that because of their lack of proficiency they felt anxious about not being able to convey what they wanted as the way they wish. For the later one, the pre-service teachers stated that since literature is not favored mostly by students in their daily lives, covering it in language classroom can be problematic as well. Therefore, to make their lessons more enjoyable, they had problems in finding suitable and at the same time enjoyable activities for their literary texts. One of the students from the play group the following:

*While preparing our lesson, we had difficulty in finding activities. It was our first time in planning a whole lesson for a literary text. And, we neither wanted to bore our students nor give the impression that we did nothing but just played games. We wanted our students to have background knowledge on the play in an enjoyable way.*

It is seen from the expressions of the participant that balancing fun and lesson is one of the most difficult ways of integrating literature. Again when the problems that learners can face during these lessons such as syntactic patterns, high level vocabulary, meaning differences, cultural contrasts, little knowledge on aesthetics (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011) are taken into account, it is quite normal that pre-service teachers had difficulty in preparing activities. Furthermore, since these pre-service teachers wanted their lessons to be enjoyable and prepared fun activities, some problems in line with these characteristics emerged such as lack of student involvement, giving instructions, classroom management, students' using their L1 and material selection. Especially the group that integrated poem in their lesson plan experienced all of these problems. The following quotations from two students in the poem group express their experiences:

*Student 1: ... After, we presented 'locks and keys' game. It was very enjoyable. And the last part was good, but students didn't listen to the instructions and they didn't move together. So, I lost classroom management.*

*Student 2: We had some problems in classroom management. In the main and follow up activity we should have been more careful about controlling our students. Also, in some parts students used Turkish, we should have been more careful about making them speak English. Maybe, we could have used more enjoyable and interesting clothes for poem or we could have prepared some different materials. In this part we couldn't catch enough attention.*

As Yang (2002) states that a student-centered approach in teaching literature leads to positive attitudes towards the integration of literature in language classes, the endeavor of these pre-service teachers to get students more active in their lesson resulted in the problems as stated above. The rich content and stylistic devices in poems (Kellem, 2009) may have caused these pre-service teachers to experience such problems. Furthermore, these results support the tradition of poem's being the least preferred genre in teaching languages (Widdowson, 1984).

Finally, it can be seen from the table 3 that, text-related problems were mainly encountered by the group which tried to integrate novels in their lesson plan. The length and difficulty of the text and the unknown/rare vocabulary caused some problems for these pre-service teachers. The culture and literary content have been stated as issues that teachers have to cope with while dealing with novels (Lazar, 1993). Therefore, it is not surprising that these pre-service teachers experienced such problems in their practice teaching presentation.

Apart from problems, the participants also mentioned the advantages of the literary texts. The analysis of their reflections revealed codes which are grouped under sub-themes by the researcher. These sub-themes are teacher-related advantages, student-related advantages and both teacher and student-related advantages. The codes and sub-themes stating advantages for each genre are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4.** Advantages

Themes	Sub-themes	Codes	Short Story	Poem	Play	Novel	
Advantages	Teacher-related advantages	Motivating for teacher			x		
		Less teacher workload		x			
		Teaching abstract relationships	x				
		Presentation of the target culture	x			x	
		Presentation of the target language	x		x	x	
	Student-related advantages	A model for writing	x		x		
		Personal development			x	x	
		Motivating for student			x	x	
		Cultural awareness			x		
		Contextual language learning			x		
		Increased interest in literature	x				
		Creative thinking	x		x		
		Cognitive development			x		

	A ground for student expressions			x	
	Implicit learning			x	
	Retention of the newly learned subjects		x		
	Frees from prejudices and taboos		x		
	Mental development	x			
	A ground for vocabulary learning	x			
	A reminder of moral and social values	x			
	Empathy development	x			
	A ground for socializing		x		
	Inductive learning		x		
	A ground for L2 practice				x
	Critical thinking			x	
Both teacher and student-related advantages	New and unusual method		x		
	More enjoyable lessons	x	x	x	
	Authentic material			x	
<b>Total</b>	28	11	7	13	5

Using short-stories were found to be advantageous by the pre-service in several ways such as teaching abstract relationships, presenting the target culture and language, serving as a model for writing, increasing interest in the literature, enhancing creative thinking, fostering mental and empathy development, learning vocabulary, reminding of moral and social values and creating more enjoyable lessons. These findings support the findings of Liaw's (2001) study on short stories, in which the results indicated both linguistic and affective gain of the students. One of the participants stated his views as:

*It is a bit childish, but I think no matter their ages, everybody needs to remember moral values. I think we gave the message by using a literary work reminding people in need... we presented a good example of the target language. We had the chance to enjoy the best of many worlds by using this literary work.*

Using poems were stated as advantageous by the following factors: requiring less teacher workload, retention of the newly learned subjects, freeing from prejudices and taboos, helping in socializing, providing inductive learning, being a new and unusual method, and creating more enjoyable lessons. Studies conducted on the integration of poems in language teaching have revealed similar results indicating an increase in language skills (Yeh, 2005). Even though, poems were found to be less favored by teachers (Widdowson, 1984), the participants of this study stated that poems are actually less demanding for teachers. Moreover, the deviations from the daily language were found to be a turn-point for students in their prejudices and taboos. One of the participants in the poem group stated her thoughts on this issue as:

*Apart from the difficulty in determining materials, the target of the lesson, learning outcomes and students' needs, interests and capabilities, thanks to the extraordinariness and fun it provides, I observed that students can free from their prejudices and taboos.*

The advantages stated for integrating plays into language classes include motivating for teachers, the presentation of the target language, a model for writing, enhancing personal development, motivating students, increasing cultural awareness, providing contextual learning, fostering creative thinking, enabling students to express themselves, providing implicit learning, fostering critical thinking, creating more enjoyable lessons and serving as an authentic material. These results support previous studies in the literature (Diaz-Santos, 2000; Mengü, 2002; Hişmanoğlu, 2005). The results of this study also indicated that in terms of advantages play outnumbered other genres. Also, this is the only genre that participants found motivating for teachers as well as students.

Lastly, the novel was found to be advantageous by these pre-service teachers as it presents the target culture and language, enhances personal development, motivates student, and enables practicing the target language. These findings support previous studies (Lazar, 1993; Yang, 2001; Hişmanoğlu, 2005). Surprisingly, the pre-service teachers touched upon advantages of using the novel in language teaching very little. Among all four genres, when considered the number of advantages stated, the novel was found to have fewer advantages compared to the other genres. The situation in the problems section was vice versa. Thus, this may show that the problems encountered during the activities moved ahead of the advantages, and this can be counted as the reason why students did not mention many benefits for using novels.

### Suggestions for literature use in ELT

Some suggestions for integrating literature were made by the pre-service teacher in their reflection papers. These suggestions were presented for each genre in Table 5.

**Table 5.** Suggestions for literature use in ELT

Themes	Codes	Short Story	Poem	Play	Novel
Suggestions for use in ELT	Provide background knowledge	x	x	x	x
	Integrate language activities	x	x	x	x
	Cover it in manageable parts	x		x	x
	Check comprehension	x	x		x
	Choose appropriate texts for students' levels	x	x	x	x
	Use activities initiating active participation	x	x		x
	Use visuals		x	x	x
	Choose enjoyable materials		x		x
	Use creative activities		x		
	Be prepared as a teacher		x		x
	Do both efferent and aesthetic reading		x		x
	Elicit key points to the students				x
	Mind students' interests				x
<b>Total</b>	13	8	8	6	12

As Table 5 indicates, pre-service teachers dealing with the novel in their practice teaching presentations were found to be offering more suggestions compared to the other

genres. This group was the one that had more problems and fewer advantages. Two unique suggestions were made by this group. They stated that eliciting key points in the novels to the student can be beneficial for their comprehension. Furthermore, they offered to keep students' interests in mind while choosing materials and activities for them. Also, they stated that it can be more useful to use novels with high proficiency level and elder students. One of the pre-service teachers from this group indicated her views as:

*I had so much difficulty in preparing materials, since literature cannot be an area which every student likes. Therefore, I tried to prepare the best and the most interesting reading lesson. It was imported that the materials were appealing to the eye and interesting, and I chose colorful pictures as materials... Literature can be used in ELT, but the level of students should be taken into consideration. With primary and secondary school students this integration can be superficial, and with the high school student it will be better to handle with topics related to the text's content.*

Pre-service teachers from other three genres offered similar suggestions. However, there are three suggestions that were made by pre-service teachers from all genres: provide background information and integrate language activities and choose appropriate texts for students' proficiency levels. Although studies highlight the significance of promoting reader awareness by showing the effects of manipulated language (Clark & Zyngier, 2003) and emphasize the importance of literary awareness (Byrnes & Kord, 2002; Zyngier, Fialho & do Prado Rios, 2007), pre-service EFL teachers were found to be putting much emphasis on language structures. Moreover, the most essential thing prior to the activities based on literary texts were found to be preparing students to the text by teaching unknown vocabulary, introducing the characters, informing the historical period that the text was written and giving information about the author and the culture presented in the text. Considering the fact that these issues can preclude learning, it is important to make them clear before dealing with the actual text. Furthermore, the selection of suitable texts for the students' proficiency levels can help teachers lead a more successful lesson.

The participants dealing with inherently longer texts, namely short story, play and novel, suggested breaking the texts into small pieces so that it will be easier to cover them in the lessons. Furthermore, the same groups also suggested being prepared as a teacher. The length of the text may cause them to think so, since poems, although they have many deviations from the actual language use, are shorter than the other genres and the preparation for the poem may take relatively shorter time compared to short story, play and novel.

### **Conclusion**

The aim of this study was to find out the views of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers on integrating short story, poem, play and novel in their practice teaching presentations. The results revealed that although students experience various negative feelings such as prejudice, nervousness, anxiety and stress during the integration of literary genres in English Language Teaching, there is a consensus on the lessons being enjoyable for both themselves and students.

Surprisingly, among all four genres the pre-service teachers using poem indicated only enjoyment instead of the negative feelings stated above. However, this does not mean that one feeling experienced in one genre is not experienced in others. Even though students did not verbalize that feeling, they might have lived through it. Therefore, it is useful to keep in mind that the results here just reveal the issues explicitly stated in the reflection papers of these pre-service teachers.

An outstanding result emerged from the themes *problems* and *advantages*. The group integrating the novel stated fewer advantages and relatively more problems compared to short story and play, even though these three genres are more or less similar in terms of style and length. These results can also be affected from other factors such as personality traits of these participants, group dynamics, motivation, etc., instead of the factors related with the nature of novels. Furthermore, the pre-service teachers stated fewer problems and more advantages than other genres. As stated earlier, plays enable learners to practice spoken discourse by exemplifying the conversational use of the language (Lazar, 1992). Therefore, the integration of interactive activities into their lesson plays may have helped pre-service teachers recognize many benefits of plays. Again, these results do not show a clear cut distinction among genres, since these codes in problems and advantages may occur interchangeably in different classrooms with different contexts and texts.

Finally, the suggestions that these pre-service teachers offered for the ones who are going to integrate literature in their language classrooms are quite beneficial, since they are presented especially in a genre-based manner to elicit special requirements of each genre. However, it is useful to keep in mind that no matter what the literary text is, providing background knowledge, integrating language-related activities and choosing appropriate text for student' levels are necessary key points.

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## The Relationship Between EFL Instructors' Emotional Intelligence and Learners' Academic Achievement

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## Research Article

# The relationship between EFL instructors' emotional intelligence and learners' academic achievement

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## Abstract

With the growing interest in studying people's emotional information to guide thinking and behavior, the present study aimed at examining the emotional intelligence of EFL instructors and to find possible relations of instructors' emotional intelligence and their corresponding students' academic achievement. To this end, 20 EFL instructors were randomly selected from an Iranian language center (Academic Center for Education, Culture, and Research) and were asked to fill in the Bar-On EQ questionnaire, to be able to measure their emotional intelligence. In addition, 515 EFL students also participated in the study and their final exam score was used as an indication of their achievement level. SPSS (Statistical Package for Social sciences, version 21) was utilized to analyze the data and Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to determine if a relationship could be proven between the two variables. Conclusions and pedagogical implications are discussed at the end.

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# İngilizce öğretmenlerinin duygusal zekâ durumları ile öğrencilerin akademik başarıları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi

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## Öz

İnsanların duygusal durumlarının düşünce ve davranışlarını yönlendirmesi ile ilgili çalışmalar artış göstermektedir. Bu çalışma, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin duygusal zekâ durumları ile öğrencilerinin akademik başarıları arasındaki potansiyel ilişkiyi incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaçla, İran Dil Merkezi'nden (Akademik Eğitim, Kültür ve Araştırma Merkezi) 20 İngilizce öğretmeni rastgele seçilmiş ve duygusal zekâ durumlarını ölçebilmek için Bar-On-EQ anketini doldurmaları istenmiştir. Buna ek olarak, 515 İngilizce öğrencisi de çalışmaya katılmış ve final sınavı notları başarı seviyelerinin göstergesi olarak değerlendirmeye alınmıştır. Verilerin analizinde SPSS (Sosyal Bilimler İstatistik Paketi) programından faydalanılmış olup iki değişkenin arasında ilişki olup olmadığını belirleyebilmek amacıyla Pearson Korelasyon kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar ve pedagojik çıkarımlar tartışılmıştır.

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## Anahtar kelimeler

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## Introduction

Having past the post-method era in language teaching, and finding that there is no unique method in teaching English as a Foreign language (TEFL) that can bring about perfect results for all language learners, and that a combination of methods and activities are needed to get the desired results in classes, the field has entered a new realm, exploring the affective domains that influence language learning in classroom context. According to Fiske (2000), there are two main factors, influencing students' academic achievement: contextual factors (including socio-economic level of the community and the educational attainment of parents) and school-related factors (including length of school year, homework policies, availability of textbooks and teacher qualifications). Meanwhile, researchers "*hunt for the magic bullet* that enables instructors to measure student needs and make relevant connections, in order to better encourage and teach their students within the classrooms" (Rust, 2015, p. 2). At the same time, research has highlighted the importance of teachers and their effective teaching in students' learning (Block, Crochet, Jones & Papa 2012). Regarding educational success, lots of attention has been attracted to the connection between educational success and emotional and social competency by Goleman (1995), who suggested that "emotional intelligence is more important than IQ (Intelligent Quotient) in predicting success in life, including academic success" (Stough, Saklofske & Parker, 2009, p. 239). The meaning of emotional intelligence has developed during the previous years, by the amount of research projects and studies carried out on the topic. The most famous known scholars of the field include Peter Salovey, John D. Mayer, Daniel Goleman and Reuven Bar-On who have provided us with different definitions and domains of emotional intelligence, with their work originating from ideas of Edward Thorndike and Howard Gardner (1983).

After Howard Gardner (1983) who talked about multiple intelligences, the concept of emotional intelligence was mentioned by Salovey and Mayer (1990). The theory of multiple intelligences of Howard Gardner was not limited to one linguistic capacity. Gardner suggested that people possess different kinds of intelligences. In order to capture full range of abilities that people have, he suggested eight types of intelligence including: visual-spatial intelligence, linguistic-verbal intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, musical intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence and natural intelligence. Afterwards, in 1995, Goleman declared that people should develop emotional intelligence in order to overcome challenges in life. Goleman (1995) and Cooper (1996) mixed the ability to understand and process emotion with other parts of the personality in order to extend the meaning of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1995) classified five domains of EQ (Emotional Quotient): 1) knowing one's emotion, 2) managing emotion, 3) motivating oneself, 4) recognizing emotions in others, and 5) handling relationships. According to Goleman (1995), a person with high EI (Emotional Intelligence) should become happier, motivated, outgoing and optimistic. Similarly, Cooper (1996) identified five general attributes to EI in a measure called EQ-Map.

According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive precisely, evaluate, and express emotion, the ability to access and/or engender feelings when they assist thought, the ability to comprehend emotion and emotional knowledge and the ability to adjust emotions to stimulate emotional and intellectual growth. Bar-on (2007)

also believes that people who are emotionally and socially intelligent can better understand and express themselves, and can understand and communicate well to others, while they can also manage the demands of daily life more successfully. Serrat (2009) considers emotional intelligence as one of the important factors in human resources in terms of “planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, management development, customer relations and customer service, and even more” (p. 50).

In the last decades, there has been much attention to the effect of emotional intelligence on academic success (Elias, Arnold & Hussey, 2003; Saeidi & Nikou, 2012). Considering that emotional intelligence serves both internal mechanisms and external ones in the process of language learning (Goleman, 2001), many research projects studied EFL learners’ emotional intelligence and its effect on their learning achievement (e.g., Motallebzadeh, 2009; Zarezadeh, 2013). However, rarely did the studies consider the emotional intelligence of the instructors. As it is clear, one of the important factors in improving education is enhancing the efficiency of teachers (Wright, Hom & Sanders, 1997). Few studies (Frost & Harris, 2003; Gu & Day, 2007) report the influence of higher emotional intelligence level of teachers in their performance and students’ motivation. The importance of teachers become more outstanding when we consider Hamre and Pianta’s (2006) statement that if instructors are sensitive to students’ needs and therefore offer regular and consistent positive feedback, then students with major behavior problems in their first few years of education, will be less likely to have problems later in school. In addition, Rust (2014) cites Whitfield and Klug (2004) who consider teachers as healers in the classroom and emphasize that schools must employ those teachers that can improve success for all students. Though the critical role of teachers has already been emphasized in EFL contexts, enough attention has not yet been paid to teachers and teacher education courses (Brown, 2001). As Akbari and Tavassoli (2011) believe, more research is needed on teachers’ characteristics and the challenges they face. On the other hand, studies in recent years, have pinpointed the importance of emotional intelligence in identifying employees with affective skills who are able to motivate others (Othman, Abdullah & Ahmad, 2008). Therefore, considering the importance of the role that teachers play in learners’ motivation and achievement, this study aimed to measure EFL teachers’ emotional intelligence and to examine its possible effect on learners’ academic achievement. Specifically, the study seeks to answer the following research question:

Is there a relationship between the measured emotional intelligence of EFL instructors and academic achievement of true language beginners?

The answer to this question will be of high importance because it aims to determine whether the students of teachers with different emotional intelligence score differ in their academic achievement. The current body of research does not provide us with many findings on this issue. Therefore, the findings of the study will assist school managers and principals in better selection of effective teachers and teacher educators in focusing on influencing factors in terms of success in language classrooms.

## **Methodology**

### **Participants**

Twenty EFL teachers from a language center in Iran were chosen randomly from among 100 existing teachers in the center to participate in the current study. 515 EFL learners

who were taught by the corresponding teachers, and were all beginners in learning the language, were studied in this paper as well. The whole population of the beginners in this language center were above 1000 students.

### **Instruments**

An emotional intelligence questionnaire (Bar-On 1997), non-participant observation of classes, and students' final exam results were the main data collection tools of the study. The questionnaire which is also called emotional quotient inventory (EQ-I) is a self-report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behavior and is composed of 125 items, considering the evaluation and expression of emotions in oneself and others, the regulation of emotion and use of emotions in solving problems (Bar-On, 1997). EQ-I scales include Intrapersonal (self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, & self-actualization), Interpersonal skills (Empathy, Social responsibility, interpersonal relationships), Stress Management (stress tolerance, Impulse control), Adaptability (reality-testing, flexibility, problem-solving) and General Mood (Optimism & happiness) (Bar-On, 2014). The questionnaire has five-response Likert Scale. The participating instructors were asked to attribute the number between 1 to 5 that best describes them. Responses were scored using a five-point Likert type scale: 1) very seldom true of myself, 2) seldom true of me, 3) sometimes true of me, 4) often true of me, 5) true of me. Scale scores were determined by summing the items and taking an average for each teacher. There were several items that had to be reverse scaled (R). For reverse-scaled items, 1 = 5, 2 = 4, 3 = 3, 4 = 2, and 5 = 1. Samouei (2003) piloted the test against its reliability and validity in Iran. Based on Samouei's study (2003), the test has reliability and validity in Iranian culture and Cronbach's alpha was reported to be 0.93.

Non-participant observation of the classes was another tool to check the teaching methods, syllabus and teaching materials in the classrooms. Non-participant observation is an instrument in which the researcher observes participants without actively participating in the activities being done. It is used to understand a phenomenon, by entering the system and still staying separate from all the activities being performed in the system.

Finally, the students' achievement was judged based on their final exam scores. All the participants were chosen from one of the language centers of ACECR (Academic Center for Education, Culture, and Research) and were at the same level of language proficiency (true-beginners, they had no prior knowledge of the language before entering the course) and passed the course under the same curriculum, and attended the final exam session together. The final exam questions were prepared by ACECR committee, were checked against reliability, and all students of one level had the exam at the same time and under the same conditions. Therefore, considering the mentioned reasons, their final exam scores seem to be an appropriate criterion to compare their achievement. The ACECR which is the Academic Center for Education, Culture and Research in Iran, engages in research and developmental projects in different fields of study and has more than 3000 full time research and academic staff, with post graduate students contributing to the research projects on a part-time basis. As both of the authors are teaching language courses at this center, the data were specially gathered from one of the language centers of ACECR.

**Procedure**

All the teachers in this language center (N=100) were asked to fill in the emotional intelligence questionnaire during the semester. Then 20 questionnaires belonging to the teachers who taught for true-beginners (7-10 years old) were randomly selected to be checked for the study. One of the authors regularly observed the classes (non-participant observation) and through a checklist made sure that all the classes followed standard methodology and material. As the syllabus and the materials are planned by ACECR supervisor and committee before the beginning of the semesters and all teachers attend TTC (Teacher Training courses) before entering the language center, it can be concluded that the teaching methodology, syllabus, and teaching materials were standard in all the classes.

Finally, after 19 sessions of instruction (from 08 July to 13 September 2017, two sessions each week), the learners in beginner level (N= 515) were asked to take the final exam at a specific time and under the same conditions. The researchers attended the exam session also to make sure that all learners got the same instruction and guidance during answering the exam questions.

**Results**

To analyse the collected data of the study, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used. Descriptive data and results of the Pearson correlation coefficient analysis are revealed in the following tables.

Table 1 demonstrates the collected data. Each row of the table belongs to one of the teachers who participated in the study. The number of students and the average mean score of students' achievement are also reported in the table. The scores are reported out of 35, which is the final score of learners at ACECR. The last column of the table reports the teachers' score on the emotional intelligence inventory.

**Table 1.** Collected data of the study

No	Teacher name	Number of students	Mean achievement score of students	Questionnaire score
1	Teacher A	77	30.55	460
2	Teacher B	21	31.07	406
3	Teacher C	14	33.57	439
4	Teacher D	38	30.5	484
5	Teacher E	37	29.30	483
6	Teacher F	19	26.52	456
7	Teacher G	19	31.81	458
8	Teacher H	18	30.61	452
9	Teacher I	20	30.92	442
10	Teacher J	27	33.1	474
11	Teacher K	20	31.37	411
12	Teacher L	19	30.78	494
13	Teacher M	9	33.5	437
14	Teacher N	59	31.61	393
15	Teacher O	13	33.34	419
16	Teacher P	21	25.57	522

17	Teacher Q	20	31.10	455
18	Teacher R	29	28.97	527
19	Teacher S	14	33.03	369
20	Teacher T	21	31.33	462

Having gathered the data, normality of the distribution is checked by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Table 2 shows significance value >0.005, that is, the distribution is normal and therefore Pearson correlation coefficient is used to compare the two variables.

**Table 2.** One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

		Ns	Ms	Qs
<b>N</b>		20	20	20
Normal Parameters <sup>a,b</sup>	Mean	25.750	29.550	452.150
	Std. Deviation	16.3896	6.5979	40.2182
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.314	.315	.103
	Positive	.314	.271	.103
	Negative	-.168	-.315	-.103
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.209	1.209	.462
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.061	.062	.983
a. Test distribution is Normal.				
b. Calculated from data.				

To answer the research question, Pearson correlational coefficient was run to examine the relationship between EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their students' academic achievement. According to the output table below (Table 3), as it is seen in the first row of the table [1], the Pearson Correlation Coefficient is 0.009, (which can vary between 1 and -1). The amount shows that there is nearly no correlation between the two variables. In addition, the obtained p-value here is 0.0969, which is higher than 0.05, thereby indicating no significant relationship between the two variables.

**Table 3.** Pearson correlation coefficient

		Average class	Questionnaire score
Average class	Pearson Correlation	1	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.969
	N	20	20



<b>Questionnaire score</b>	Pearson Correlation	.009	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.969	
	N	20	20

### **Discussion**

Education has reached a stage where experts wait for findings of the research to help them decide about the characteristics of successful teachers and how these qualities correlate with students' learning. Studying the relationship between language instructors' emotional intelligence and corresponding learners' academic achievement is a new one. Outside of the home environment, classroom teachers are reported (Darling, 1997) to have the most influential effect on learners' achievement. Considering the changes in teacher education courses worldwide and the significant importance of teachers in all academic plans and the importance that principals and managers give to hiring efficient and successful teachers, the study aimed at measuring the relationship between an emotional characteristic of teachers and students' academic achievement. Emotional intelligence, as a construct, with its five subcategories has the ability to predict the successful relationship between teachers and students, in other words, teachers with higher levels of emotional intelligence are predicted to better have the capability to interact with students and colleagues, and this ability of instructors leads to better academic achievement of their students. In a study by Mahmoodi and Ghaslani (2013), the researchers concluded that increasing EFL teachers' emotional intelligence, which has a reducing effect on their burnout can lead to increasing teachers' professional motivation and development and consequently improvement of learners' achievement. The analysis of the collected data in this study, however, represented a very weak and insignificant relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and EFL learners' academic achievement. In a study by Allen (2014), also there seemed to be a teacher with a high total EQ but the lowest student achievement scores, which seems to defeat a possible relationship between instructors' emotional intelligence and learners' achievement, supporting the findings of the current study.

### **Suggestions for Further Studies**

Certainly, additional studies are needed to determine the possible correlation of different subscales of teachers' emotional intelligence and students' learning. Regardless of teachers' score in emotional intelligence inventory, and as it is proved that raising teacher's quality is in fact a key instrument in improving students' achievement (Rockoff, 2004), improving teachers' emotional intelligence can be of significance in future years. It is worth citing Goleman (1995) who states that emotional intelligence can be studied and expanded as well. Thus, teachers can work and improve their emotional intelligence, which could provide useful information in students' learning in further studies.

Considering the limitations of this study, such as the restricted number of teachers (N=20), and the age range of learners (7-10), different conditions in each class, such as the number of students, different time of the day and educational space, it is recommended to

replicate the study with larger population and controlling the environmental variables to better generalize the findings. The study did not take into account teachers' years of experience either, which can be a variable in this topic. As Mahmoodi and Ghaslani (2013) found, experienced teachers have higher levels of emotional intelligence and feel more competent in their profession, therefore, considering instructors' years of experience can be of importance in future studies as well.

More research is recommended to make sure of the effect of teachers' years of experience, their personal demographics and trainings on the level of emotional intelligence. It is worth considering different subscales of the emotional intelligence and studying their relationships with students' achievement one by one. On the other hand, students' achievement is influenced by many other variables such as their own styles and strategies of learning. According to literature, besides a quantitative approach, a qualitative approach is also suggested to better describe teachers' emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence inventory reflects perceptions rather than objective measurement. Therefore, it is also suggested to re-conduct the study using various data collection tools besides the emotional intelligence inventory that can more efficiently and objectively assess instructors' emotional intelligence. Considering the criticism surrounding current measures of emotional intelligence, devising more efficient tools to measure the aforementioned construct is recommended as well. Another area of interest could be to determine the extent to which emotional intelligence can be enhanced and learned by instruction.

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## Avoiding the Use of L1 in Foreign Language Reading Comprehension Activities

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## Research Article

# Avoiding the use of L1 in foreign language reading comprehension activities

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### Abstract

This paper reports an action research study which aimed to avoid the use of mother tongue in reading comprehension activities. To this end, an action research study was designed and conducted with 30 elementary level students studying at the Preparatory school of Bařkent University. The study was conducted in the first term of 2016-2017 academic year. The related literature was reviewed and cognitive reading strategies were taught. Data were collected from three different sources which were students' answers to reading comprehension activities, feedback cards completed by the students and reflection sheets of the teacher researcher. The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data revealed that when the students were aware of the cognitive reading strategies and used them, the use of L1 could be avoided.

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## Yabancı dilde okuduđunu anlama etkinliklerinde anadil kullanımının önlenmesi

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### Öz

Bu çalışma, okuduđunu anlama etkinliklerinde anadil kullanımını önlemeyi amaçlayan bir eylem araştırması çalışmasıdır. Bu amaçla Başkent Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu'nda öğrenim gören ve temel İngilizce seviyesine sahip 30 öğrenci ile 2016-2017 öğretim yılının birinci döneminde bir eylem araştırması çalışması gerçekleştirilmiştir. Konu ile ilgili literatür taraması yapılmış ve bilişsel okuma stratejileri öğrencilere öğretilmiştir. Öğrencilerin okuduđunu anlama aktivitelerine verdikleri cevaplar, öğrenciler tarafından doldurulan geri bildirim kartları ve araştırmacı öğretmenin yansıma sayfaları olmak üzere üç farklı kaynaktan veri toplanmıştır. Verilerin nicel ve nitel analizi, öğrencilerin bilişsel okuma stratejilerinin farkında olduklarında ve bunları kullandıklarında, anadil kullanımının önlenebileceđini ortaya koymuştur.

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19 Nisan 2018

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**Anahtar kelimeler**  
eylem araştırması  
okuduđunu anlama  
anadilin kullanımı

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## **Introduction**

L2 reading has attracted a lot of attention up till now and the process of reading has been described in various ways. While some researchers describe it as a cognitive process of understanding a written linguistic message, others describe it as a passive skill in early accounts (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Despite the ongoing disagreement about the nature of the reading process, most researchers agree on some features such as having a purpose in mind while reading, and being familiar with the text. It is claimed that when a reader has highly developed prior knowledge of or experience on the topic that is to be read, it will be easier to comprehend it since during the reading comprehension process, all the linguistic knowledge, background knowledge, and the knowledge of the cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies are used by the readers (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Reading in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classes is a complex process. Nowadays, to ease the reading process, most EFL instructors implement the Grammar Translation Method and use students' mother tongue as a tool for conveying meaning in the texts. According to some researchers, the complete deletion of mother tongue while teaching a second language is not appropriate (Butzkamm, 2003). It is claimed that if the mother tongue is used appropriately, it can be very useful as Brown (2000) claims by saying that “first language can be a facilitating factor and not just an interfering factor” (p. 68). Similarly, the foreign language instructors are encouraged to use L1 in language classes to affect the dynamic of the classroom, and it is asserted that “starting with the L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners' lived experiences, allowing them to express and themselves” (Schweers, 1999, p.7). As some of the researchers suggest, the use of L1 may be helpful in EFL classes; however, in reading activities the use of the mother tongue may cause some problems. The main problem is being dependent on it. The students who use L1 in reading comprehension do not try to get the meaning from the context. They may misunderstand the message in given in text and express themselves within their limited command of the target language. To solve this problem, the use of L1 is to be avoided during reading comprehension activities and this can be managed by teaching and using the cognitive reading strategies, since reading in English requires the readers to be aware of the reading strategies that can improve their reading comprehension (Butzkamm, 2003).

In this action research study, to help the students understand the reading texts without using their mother tongue; reading lessons were restructured with cognitive reading strategies. The aim was to make the students be more active so they could make connections between the prior knowledge, and the new content. At first, students were expected to predict the content of the text by the help of visual aids, titles, and comprehend the texts by questions. What is more, they were expected to use their prior knowledge, and make predictions accordingly. Additionally, the instructors would model them by asking questions that would check their prior knowledge of the topic, help them to communicate their ideas and demonstrate their level of comprehension.

## **Review of Literature**

### **Language learning strategies (LLS)**

In general, language learning strategies are specific actions taken to accomplish a given task (Oxford, 2011). The aim of these strategies is to promote learner autonomy and to make

learning more effective. Different criteria and taxonomies exist for classifying language learning strategies. According to Cohen (2011), learners construct their meanings by using language learning strategies which affect learning directly. Oxford (2011) also provides a comprehensive definition: "...language learning strategies are specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability" (p.15).

Different definitions of language learning strategies are presented in a brief and well summarized table. As it seen in Table1, these strategies are mostly defined as "behaviours, processes which are consciously selected by learners, conscious or semiconscious thoughts, deliberate actions" to enhance learning.

**Table 1.** Definitions of language learning strategies

1	O'Malley& Chamot (1990, p. 23)	<i>"The special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information."</i>
2	Wenden (1987, p. 6)	<i>"Learner strategies [...] refer to language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to regulate the learning of a second language. These language learning behaviours have been called strategies."</i>
3	Cohen (1998, p. 4)	<i>"Learning strategies are processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall and application of information about the language".</i>
4	Cohen (2011, p. 278)	<i>"Strategies are specific behaviours that learners select in their language learning and use. Language learning is the conscious or semiconscious thoughts and behaviours used by the learners with the explicit aim of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language."</i>
5	Oxford (2011, p. 8)	<i>"Language learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning, easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations."</i>

As seen in Table 1, there is a change over time in these definitions. When the focus of previous definitions was on the product of learning strategies, the focus now is on the processes and the characteristics of LLS. All in all, as seen, different researchers use inconsistent basic terminology while defining and categorizing the language learning strategies. As a result, there are still some difficulties with definition and classification. After the description of what language learning strategies are, reading strategies will be discussed.

### **Reading strategies**

Reading strategies are defined as *"a range of tactics or actions that readers employ consciously in order to comprehend texts better"* (Paris et al., 1991). Due to the fact that reading strategies are conscious to the foreign language readers, their selection and use of these strategies are expected to be controlled by them. Strategies are not isolated actions; as a result, they are to be considered as a process since they are interrelated (Paris et al., 1991). Although



there are a large number of inconsistent classifications of reading strategies, in literature, the most common reading strategies fall within four categories which are cognitive, metacognitive, text-level, and word-level strategies (Yetgin, 2003).

*Cognitive strategies* which are used in reading comprehension consist of "guessing from context, analysing, skimming, taking notes, and summarizing" are defined as "*mental steps or operations that learners use to process both linguistic and sociolinguistic content*" (Wenden & Rubin, 1987, p. 19). Language learners tend to use cognitive strategies to set up relationship between the new and their existing prior knowledge and to operate on the new information to facilitate learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

*Metacognitive strategies*, which are used in reading comprehension consist of "monitoring, evaluating, planning, and arranging", are defined as "*higher order skills that help readers gain awareness of whether they comprehend a reading text or not.*" (Oxford, 2001). With the help of these strategies, readers have a chance to observe their reading process and themselves as learners. These strategies also help them to analyse resources, choose the most convenient resource, and set goals for the comprehension of the text (Oxford, 2001).

*Text-level strategies*, which are used in reading comprehension consist of strategies such as "relating the text to one's background knowledge, predicting, using titles and illustrations, reading with a purpose, skimming, and scanning", are defined as "*top-down and text processing strategies*" (Barnett, 1988). Readers tend to use these strategies while approaching a reading text as a whole, from a holistic perspective (Barnett, 1988).

*Word-level strategies*, which are used in reading comprehension consist of strategies such as "guessing from the context, identifying grammatical category of words, using word families and word formation to understand the meaning of unknown words", are defined as "*bottom-up and word-processing strategies*" (Barnett, 1988). Readers tend to use these strategies to comprehend the smaller parts such as vocabulary, structure or details of the reading text. (Barnett, 1988).

It is also possible to categorize reading strategies into the stages which are pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading stages.

#### *Pre-reading strategies*

It is quite important to organize the readers before reading. Some researchers point out that the background knowledge is one of the most important components in the reading process (Koda, 2005). The knowledge an individual reader already possesses can be activated through specific activities such as brainstorming, mind or concept mapping, and the use of pre-questions and visual aids (Wallace, 1992).

Having a definite purpose and goal for reading a given text is another pre-reading strategy that can be used in this stage. This strategy helps the readers to stay focused and also become more attentive (Chamot et al., 1999). During this stage, instructors are expected to ask questions to facilitate the use of prior knowledge and help the students by providing them with overviews and introducing unfamiliar vocabulary items before they read the texts (Singhal, 2001). Overviews given by the instructors can take the form of outlines, class discussions, or visual aids, which are expected to help students to get ideas of what the texts are about before reading (Aebersold & Field, 1997). Other suggested pre-reading strategies that could be adopted

are making predictions based on titles or related photos, identifying the structure of the text and skimming for the general idea (Auerbach & Paxton, 1997).

#### *While-reading strategies*

It is important for the reader to give his utmost attention to the reading text while reading it. The understanding of the reader is to be continuously checked by asking questions (Chamot et al., 1999). When the reader is unable to comprehend what he is reading or faces an obstacle in comprehension, it may be necessary to adopt a strategy which helps to gain understanding. One such strategy is re-reading the material (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Another strategy which is to be used during reading is to use semantic, syntactic and graphophonic cues to get the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context (Wallace, 1992). By gaining understanding of key words from the reading material, the context becomes clear and this process helps the readers grasp the meaning of the material being read by using the ideas as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of translating into L1 (Aebersold & Field, 1997). Monitoring understanding by asking relevant questions to the readers during reading is another strategy. By asking questions while reading, the readers' minds can stay focused and this facilitates the reading comprehension process.

Synthesizing relevant information from a given text while reading is another strategic tool. Readers can benefit from reading by reflecting on what has been read and also by integrating new information with existing knowledge (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). Scanning to get a sense of the overall meaning is another strategy that helps readers comprehend the text and answer comprehension questions (Aebersold & Field, 1997).

#### *Post-reading strategies*

Post-reading is the stage to evaluate the comprehension of the text. If the set goal was achieved and understanding gained, the post-reading period is the time to summarize major ideas discovered (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). Post-reading activity period offers an opportunity for the readers to reflect upon what they have read. In this stage, the readers are expected to connect what they have read with their prior knowledge, make the text clear, and extend their understandings in critical and creative ways (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). Drawing conclusions and paraphrasing are other strategies suggested in this stage. By the help of these strategies, the comprehension of the text can be checked and the ideas are restated (Aebersold & Field, 1997).

In this action research study, all cognitive, metacognitive, text-level and word-level reading strategies were identified, introduced and their importance was explained to the students. These strategies were also practiced as pre-reading, while-reading and post reading strategies during the training session. Then, the students were asked to choose five of these techniques which facilitated their comprehension more. All reading strategies were written on the board and five of them were chosen according to their preferences. Then, in the action research process, those chosen strategies were used. Those strategies were; prior knowledge, prediction, modelling by asking questions, skimming and scanning.

#### *Prior (Background) knowledge*

According to the literature reviewed, readers' prior knowledge in form of schemata has a great role in the construction of the meaning of the text (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). Considering the fact that reading a text is an interactive process between the reader and his/her prior knowledge, a good reader can be defined as the one who constructs meaning from the text and his/her own prior knowledge. A good reader also monitors comprehension, makes inferences, uses text clues for comprehension (Anderson & Pearson, 1984).

### ***Prediction***

Another strategy used for reading comprehension is the prediction. As a strategy for enhancing comprehension, "*it helps the reader set a purpose for their reading*" (McKown & Barnett, 2007, p. 17). In pre-reading stage, "*Prediction activates prior knowledge, sets a purpose for reading, and engages the reader from the outset*" (Pesa & Somers, 2007, p. 31). Prediction can be prompted by talking about the title of the text, introducing related visual aids, and introducing key words (McKown & Barnett, 2007). In while-reading stage, prediction strategy helps readers to monitor their comprehension. Instructors are expected to ask questions to guide predictions (Pesa & Somers, 2007). In post-reading stage, prediction "*can help students to interpret, analyse, and deepen their understanding*" (Pesa & Somers, 2007, p. 32). All in all, readers may have difficulty in comprehension of a text without prediction strategy.

### ***Modelling by asking questions***

Modelling strategy facilitates comprehension and helps students understand the text while reading it words (McKown & Barnett, 2007). The instructors who use this strategy are expected to read the target text with students, stop at intervals, and ask related questions. Then, the answers of the questions are discussed as a whole-class activity so as to comprehend the text better (McKown & Barnett, 2007).

### ***Skimming and scanning***

Skimming and scanning are considered as the most common reading strategies which can help readers to get specific information from the text. Skimming is defined as getting "a quick gist" of a reading text, while scanning is defined as "reading quickly to locate specific information". It is necessary to teach the readers how to use skimming and scanning for comprehension (Pesa & Somers, 2007).

### **Reading comprehension**

Readers who have acquired reading strategies can comprehend what they have read by constructing meaning and combining information from the text with their existing prior knowledge (McKown & Barnett, 2007).

### ***The effect of using L1 in reading comprehension***

Although some researchers suggest the use of mother tongue as a facilitator of language acquisition, it causes a wrong habit of word-to-word translation (Baker, 2006). Despite the wrong habit formation, mother tongue is used a lot to comprehend the text as Kavaliauskienė and Kaminskienė (2007) claim "no matter how good the students are the majority keeps

mentally translating" (p.133). Similarly, Wechsler (1997) states that "learners cannot escape the influence of first language" (Wechsler, 1997) and even proficient readers use their mother tongue (Baker, 2006: 22). Regarding the mother tongue hidden in the readers' mind in variable degrees, the use of L1 in language classes offers various benefits and drawbacks.

## **Methodology**

### **Participants**

This action research study was carried out with a preparatory class at Başkent University in Ankara, Turkey with 30 students aged 19 to 22 and me as a teacher-researcher. The students were elementary level learners. The participant students enrolled in different academic majors have different language learning backgrounds and come from different parts of Turkey.

The study was conducted in the first term of 2016-2017 academic year. The action research lasted 3 weeks entailing 10 class hours of instruction and 5 hours of implementation. Training included the teaching of all cognitive, metacognitive, text-level and word-level reading strategies and the use of those strategies during reading comprehension activities. This study focused on how the learning of reading strategies by students facilitates the reading comprehension while avoiding the use of L1.

### **Method and data collection procedures**

This action research study implemented in five stages, namely, problem identification, literature review and discussions with colleagues, planning and implementation of strategies, data collection and analysis, and report writing.

#### ***Problem identification***

The first phase of this research was the identification of the problem. During reading classes when reading assignments were given, the students were trying to look up every difficult word in the dictionary. They lacked the abilities such as drawing inference or to guessing the meaning of unknown words. They were trying to use L1 to understand a text in target language. Additionally, the students were not aware of reading strategies. As result, they were not prepared to deal with reading texts in target language. To solve this problem, an action research which involves teaching reading strategies and avoiding the use of L1 in reading comprehension activities was designed.

#### ***Literature review and discussions with colleagues***

The reading lesson plans were carefully designed considering the needs of the students. They were developed through discussions with colleagues and the review of literature. All reading strategies were investigated through the review of literature and the reading courses were modified with the aim of avoiding the use of L1 and helping the students understand the reading texts by using chosen reading strategies.

#### ***Implementation of strategies***

All cognitive, metacognitive, text-level and word-level reading strategies were explained to the students and they were used in training session. Then five of the reading strategies, which facilitated the reading comprehension process more, were written on a piece of paper by the students. Then the papers were collected and the most preferred strategies were listed on the board. The most preferred strategies were prediction, using visuals, prior knowledge, previewing the text by skimming and scanning, and modelling, so in this action research, those chosen strategies were used and the reading lessons were planned accordingly. Procedure and strategies used in a reading lesson are summarized in Table 2 below.

**Table 2.** Procedure and strategies used in a reading lesson

<b>Stages</b>	<b>Procedure</b>	<b>Strategies</b>
Pre-Reading Stage	-Class discussion and talking about the topic, pictures and the title - Reading very fast to get the main idea of a text.	- <i>Prediction, using visual aids, activating prior knowledge</i> - <i>Skimming</i>
While-Reading Stage	-Dramatizing and discussing the content by asking questions to make the meaning clear. -Talking about the content and clarifying the meanings of the unknown words by using gestures and visual aids instead of translation. -Reading the text to get detailed information -Answering comprehension questions, completing missing parts	- <i>Modelling, question-answer technique</i> - <i>Using visual aids</i>  - <i>Scanning</i> - <i>Question-answer</i>
Post-Reading Stage	- Class discussions and answering inference questions	- <i>Inference</i>

### ***Data collection and analysis***

Data were collected qualitatively and quantitatively from three different sources: (i) students' answers to reading comprehension activities, (ii) feedback cards completed by the students, and (iii) reflection sheets of the teacher researcher.

#### ***Students' answers to reading comprehension activities***

Students' answers to reading comprehension activities were collected, and their answers were assessed by the teacher researcher. During training session, 7 elementary level reading texts were used. Then five more elementary level reading texts were used and the scores were evaluated.

#### ***Feedback cards completed by the students***

After each reading comprehension activity, the students completed a feedback card (as shown in Table 3) to express their opinions about the readings, strategies and ideas.

**Table 3.** Feedback cards

	YES	NO
Q.1. Were you able to answer the comprehension questions?		
Q.2. Did you understand the details in the reading text?		
Q.3. Did you use Turkish to understand the text?		
Q.4. Do you think the strategies we used helped you to comprehend the text?		
Q.5. Did you use the prediction strategy?		
Q.6. Did you use your prior knowledge?		
Q.7. Did you skim and scan the text?		
Q.8. Did the teacher help you to understand the text by asking questions?		
Q.9. What are your ideas about the reading strategies? .....		
.....		

*Reflection sheets of the teacher researcher*

The teacher researcher also took notes and wrote her reflections after each reading comprehension activity. These reflection sheets included the ideas on the effectiveness of using reading strategies and the performances of the students.

*Report writing*

The final phase was report writing. In this phase, how the implementation of the action research affected the students' learning was evaluated and how the results of the study could be generalized to similar populations was investigated. Conclusions with regard to the readers' growth were made and how these conclusions would impact the planning and the instruction for the other classes at Başkent University was reflected.

**Findings**

Data were collected quantitatively and qualitatively from students' answers to reading comprehension activities, feedback cards completed by the students and reflection sheets of the teacher researcher. The findings will be discussed according to them.

*Students' answers to reading comprehension activities*

According to the data collected from the students' reading performances and reading worksheets, it was found out that the reading comprehension of most of the students (n.27) improved, although the increase was slight. The collected data revealed that the performances of the students' in reading comprehension were partially affected by the different question types. The scores of the worksheets show that most of the students (n.27) comprehended the texts and answered all types of questions accurately while some of them (n.3) had problems with reference and vocabulary questions. During reading comprehension activities, the students were encouraged to use the target language and avoid the use of mother tongue. So, the definitions of the key words were clarified by the students by using gestures, pictures and

clarification. All students (n.30) answered most of the questions easily because they learnt how to use the reading strategies to understand the text.

### ***Feedback cards completed by the students***

Table 4 presents the results of the feedback cards completed after each reading comprehension activity by the students.

**Table 4.** Results of the feedback cards

	Text 1		Text 2		Text 3		Text 4		Text 5		TOTAL	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Q.1.	28	2	29	1	27	3	28	2	28	2	28	2
Q.2.	28	2	28	2	29	1	28	2	27	3	28	2
Q.3.	1	29	1	29	2	28	1	29	0	30	1	29
Q.4.	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0
Q.5.	29	1	28	2	29	1	30	0	29	1	29	1
Q.6.	27	3	28	2	26	4	28	2	26	4	27	3
Q.7.	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0
Q.8	20	10	25	5	15	15	18	12	22	8	20	10

As Table 4 shows, most of the students (n.28) could understand the general meaning and details of the reading texts easily without using L1. All of them accepted that using strategies helped them comprehend the reading text more and they thought that by the help of strategies such as prediction, prior knowledge, modelling and questioning, reading a text might be easier and unknown words could be predicted in the context.

The majority of students (n.29) used the prediction strategy more than the other strategies during reading. Most of the students (n.27) believed that making predictions before reading a text was a beneficial strategy for reading comprehension and it helped them to comprehend the reading texts without using their mother tongue. All of the students (n.30) also stated that skimming and scanning helped them to comprehend the text more. They (n.20) also found modelling technique very useful, since on feedback cards, some of them wrote:

*“...reading the text together with the teacher and clarifying the context by using visual aids, gestures and by asking questions helped us a lot to comprehend the texts.”*

They also stated that being aware of reading strategies helped them a lot, because they knew what to do and why to use the strategies.

### ***Reflection sheets of the teacher researcher***

According to the data collected through the reflection sheets developed by the teacher researcher, when the students learnt what the reading strategies were and how to use them, they became more successful in reading comprehension activities and they didn't focus on the unknown vocabulary in reading texts. Reading strategies let the students participate in the

reading process, because they actively took roles in this process by sharing their ideas, opinions, predictions and background knowledge. When the reading comprehension activities and strategies were assessed, it was realized that reading strategies enabled students to think more about the topic, to generate more ideas, to link them with their previous knowledge and to comprehend the text without using translation.

In conclusion, in this action research study, findings reveal the learners' development in the use of reading strategies without using L1. Through the emphasis on reading strategies and the importance of avoiding the translation technique during reading comprehension activities, the students achieved progress in reading comprehension without using L1.

### **Discussion and Conclusion**

In EFL classes, the use of L1 in reading comprehension activities is a big problem, as there is a great tendency to use the mother tongue when the students are faced with difficulties that may hinder their comprehension. While reading a text, to comprehend the text better and check their comprehension, the students tend to use L1. Moreover, L1 is used by the students when tackling vocabulary items in a text to confirm the meaning they get, or learn the exact meaning of an unfamiliar word. Seng & Hashim (2006) investigated in the use of L1 while reading second language (L2) texts in a collaborative situation among tertiary ESL learners. In their study titled; "Use of L1 in L2 reading comprehension among tertiary ESL learners", they identified reading strategies utilized by the subjects and discovered possible reasons for the use of L1 while comprehending L2 texts. Through reading strategies, it was found that the L1 was used by all the students in the study and that more than 30% of the total instances of strategy use involved the L1. The study also revealed various reasons for the students' use of the L1 while reading L2 texts particularly in the context of group reading. One reason was that the L1 facilitated resolutions of word-related and idea-related difficulties. Furthermore, using the L1 might have helped the students reduce affective barriers and gain more confidence in tackling the L2 texts. Similarly, in their study titled: "Reading Comprehension Strategies & Mother Tongue Use in Eap Courses in Israeli Academia", Gordishevsky & Slabodar (2015) stated that especially in the case of weaker students, the use of L1 will facilitate their understanding and internalization of various reading comprehension strategies. To this end, presentation of text-coping techniques using the students' L1, as well as initial exemplification of these techniques using an authentic academic text in the students' mother tongue are necessary.

Although the use of L1 is necessary for the reading comprehension in target language, it causes a wrong habit of word-to-word translation (Baker, 2006). In order to solve this problem and help the students comprehend the texts and vocabulary items without using L1, different reading strategies are to be taught and used. In her study titled: "Dictionary Use While Reading: The Effects On Comprehension and Vocabulary Acquisition for Students of Different Verbal Abilities", Knight (1994) stated that although students express reliance on dictionaries, teachers are expected to discourage the use of L1 and advise them to guess the meaning of a word from the context. She also stated that teaching cognitive reading strategies will help students comprehend the texts better. Similarly, the findings of this action research show that when the reading strategies such as activating prior knowledge, making predictions by using visual aids and titles, skimming-scanning and modelling by asking questions are



taught and used, the students do not need to use L1 to comprehend the text since these strategies help them understand better.

In conclusion, by teaching reading strategies, teachers can help EFL students to comprehend the reading passages (Robertson, 2008) and they can also avoid the translation into L1. In this action research, it is clearly seen that, when the reading strategies are taught and integrated into the reading lesson, the students' comprehension develops more and the use of L1 can be avoided.

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# Language Teaching and Educational Research

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**Mandarin Speakers' Perception of Accented L2-English: The Effects of Accent, Linguistic Experience, and L2 Proficiency**

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## Research Article

# Mandarin speakers' perception of accented L2-English: The effects of accent, linguistic experience, and L2 proficiency

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### Abstract

In much previous research, language listeners were found to perform differently when listening to a second language (L2) spoken in foreign/native accents. Influential factors have not been ascertained. This study aimed to gain new insights into this issue. 82 Mandarin speakers of different L2 (English) proficiency and different degrees of familiarity with Cantonese, Thai, and Yorkshire accent participated in the study. The stimuli were 40 English sentences with a noun as the last word (stimulus word). The stimulus words were gated with gate 0 revealing no phonological information, gate 1 displaying the first 40 ms of it, gate 2 having an additional 40 ms, etc., accumulating until the end of the word was revealed. The sentences were spoken in the accent of Mandarin, Yorkshire, Cantonese, and Thai. The participants were asked to write down the stimulus words each time after they heard a gated sentence. The results indicated that the participants required significantly less phonological information to correctly recognize the stimuli spoken in their own and Yorkshire accent than in Thai and Cantonese accent. Moreover, the participants' degree of familiarity with the accents and their L2-English proficiency both had a significant effect on their perceptual performance.

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# Mandarin konuşucularının aksanlı İngilizce algısı: Aksan, dilbilimsel deneyim, ve İngilizce yeterlilik düzeyinin etkileri

## Öz

Yapılan birçok araştırma dinleyicilerin yabancı bir dili yerli ya da yabancı bir aksandan dinlerken, dinleme performanslarının farklılık gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Ancak bu durumu etkileyen faktörler tam olarak ortaya konulamamıştır. Bu çalışmanın amacı bu duruma ilişkin yeni anlayışlar edinmektir. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak konuşan farklı yeterlilik düzeylerine sahip ve Kantonca, Tayca ve Yorkshire aksanlarına farklı düzeylerde yakınlığı olan katılımcılardan oluşan 82 Mandarin konuşucusu bu çalışmada yer almıştır. Uyarılar, son kelimesi *ad* (uyaran kelime) olan 40 adet İngilizce cümleden oluşmaktadır. Çalışma, söylenen kelimeleri tanımaya ilişkin süreci irdeleyen *gating paradigm* yöntemine göre tasarlanmıştır. Cümleler Mandarin, Yorkshire, Kantonca ve Tayca aksanlarında konuşulmuştur. Katılımcılardan bir *gated* cümle duyduktan sonra her seferinde uyaran kelimeleri yazmaları istenmiştir. Araştırma sonucunda, konuşmacıların Kantonca ve Tayca aksanlarında söylenen cümlelere nazaran kendi aksanlarında ve Yorkshire aksanında söylenmiş uyarıları doğru bir şekilde anlayabilmeleri için çok daha az fonolojik bilgiye gereksinim duydukları ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca, katılımcıların bu aksanlara olan yakınlıkları ve yabancı dil olarak İngilizce yeterlilik düzeylerinin, algısal performanslarında anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır.

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**Anahtar kelimeler**  
algı  
aksan  
İngilizce  
Mandarin  
Kantonca  
Tayca

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## **Introduction**

Foreign-accented speech refers to non-pathological speech that is different from native speakers' pronunciation in some noticeable respects (Munro & Derwing, 1995). Due to the influence of their native language (L1), non-native speakers are frequently found to speak a second language (L2) with foreign accents (Best, 1994; Best & Strange, 1992; Flege, 1992a, b). To accurately perceive foreign-accented speech, particularly unfamiliar foreign-accented speech, listeners must be able to contend with speech productions that differ from their previous experience in terms of segmental and/or suprasegmental features (e.g. Clopper & Smiljanic, 2015; Clopper, Psoni, & de Jong, 2005; Sereno, Lammers, & Jongman, 2016). Differences between native and non-native speakers' phonetic perception of speech signals suggest that adult L2 learners may often employ their L1 phonological system in the perception of L2 sounds (Best, 1994; Bent & Bradlow, 2003; Flege, 1992a, b; Iverson et al., 2003; Leather, 1999; Major, 1999; Werker, 1994). Consequently, they may have difficulties or display increased processing time in the perception of phonetic segments, words, or larger units of foreign-accented speech (Flege, 1988; Munro & Derwing, 1995).

Leikin, Ibrahim, Eviatar and Sapir (2009) tested L2-Hebrew listeners' ability in the perception of Hebrew words spoken with an accent like their own, a native Hebrew accent, and foreign accents. It turned out that the listeners required significantly more phonological information for the perception of the stimuli spoken with other foreign accents than with an accent like their own. Similarly, Hendriks, Meurs and Groot (2015) investigated 178 adult French, German and Spanish speakers' perception of a text spoken in French, German, and Spanish by native speakers of the languages and by Dutch speakers with strong and slight Dutch accent. The data revealed that the degree of accentedness had a significant effect on understanding the stimulus text. Furthermore, a speaker with a strong Dutch accent in French, German or Spanish was evaluated as less friendly and less competent than a speaker with a slight Dutch accent. However, some studies hold different views regarding the impact of accents on listeners' perception of speech sounds. In 1970, Gimson argued that accurate production of English consonants is more essential to comprehension than native-like production of English vowels. Findings from Munro and Derwing (1995) also failed to reveal a relationship between strength of accent and the time required to process accented speech. It was also found that listeners could both adapt rapidly to unfamiliar speakers and accents (Clarke & Garrett, 2004; Bradlow & Bent, 2008; Sidaras, Alexander & Nygaard, 2009). Moreover, Lee, Vakoch and Wurm (1996) investigated Cantonese, Mandarin and English speakers' perception of Cantonese and Mandarin tones. Although both Cantonese and Chinese speakers performed better at discriminating tones of their own language, almost no difference was found between Mandarin and English speakers at discriminating Cantonese tones, despite the fact that Mandarin and Cantonese share some features in their tone systems (Lee, Vakoch & Wurm, 1996). Similarly, Li (2015) revealed that both English and Thai speakers had very similar degrees of difficulty in the perception of Tone-2 and Tone-3 in Mandarin, though the tone systems of Mandarin and Thai are similar to each other.

The inconsistent findings discussed above may, to some extent, be explained by the listeners' linguistic experience. Typically, listeners' linguistic experience with a foreign accent predictably facilitates their recognitions of L2 sounds (Hanulíková & Weber, 2012). For

instance, Adank, Evans and Stuart-Smith Scotti (2009) compared 24 adult native English speakers' processing time in the perception of English sentences, which were spoken with a familiar accent, an unfamiliar native accent, and a non-native accent. A semantic verification task was carried out. The results indicated that the response time was modulated by the relative familiarity of the participants with the native accent. The processing time associated with the non-native accent was larger than with the unfamiliar native accent (Adank et al., 2009). In Leikin et al. (2009), the stimuli spoken with native Hebrew accent were found to require similar amount of phonological information to stimuli spoken with the listeners' own accent. It was explained by the listeners' language experience with native Hebrew accent (Leikin et al., 2009). Similarly, the English and Thai participants in Li (2015) had no linguistic experience with Mandarin. More similar findings are available from Rogers, Dalby and Nishi (2004), van Wijngaarden (2001), Schmid and Yeni-Komshian (1999), Munro and Derwing (1995, 1999), Adank and McQueen (2007), and Floccia, Goslin, Girard and Konopczynski (2006). Moreover, language listeners' proficiency level of a foreign language may also play a role in their perception of the language spoken with native accents. Unfortunately, there is a lack of research findings on this issue.

Prior studies on foreign language perception in general suggested that greater proficiency is positively associated with better perception of foreign language (Vandergrift, 2005; Best & Tyler, 2007). On the whole, the influence of the presented accents, linguistic experience, and proficiency level of the target foreign language on their perception of the accented speech, which is theoretically and practically significant for phonological development, has not been ascertained.

In the present study, the participants with higher L2-English proficiency levels, according to Oxford Quick Placement Test results, were predicted to perform better than those with lower proficiency levels in the perception of accented English. Therefore, the study addresses three research questions to gain new insight into the influence of accent, linguistic experience, and English proficiency on their perception of accented English.

1. What effect does accent have on the Mandarin speakers' perception of accented L2-English?
2. What effect does the Mandarin speakers' linguistic experience with the target accents have on their perception of accented L2-English?
3. What effect does the Mandarin speakers' L2-English proficiency have on their perception of accented L2-English?

### **Methodology**

This study investigated L1(Mandarin) of L2(English) speakers' accuracy in the perception of accented/nonaccented English speech with a gating paradigm. The sentences were spoken in the accent of Mandarin, Yorkshire, Cantonese, and Thai. The participants were asked to write down the stimulus English words of Mandarin, Yorkshire, Cantonese, and Thai accents, in order to gather the amount of phonological information that the participants needed in the perception of different accented English words.

## **Participants**

82 university students with normal speech and hearing aged from 18 to 22 years volunteered to participate in the study (mean age=18.44; 48 female; 34 male). All of them were L1-Mandarin or L2-English speakers. They were non-English majors but doing English for extra credits. The background information of the participants, such as English proficiency levels (measured by Oxford Quick Placement Test), degree of familiarity with Cantonese, Thai, and Yorkshire accented English were collected with questionnaires.

## **Procedures**

A questionnaire partially adopted from Li (2017) was employed to gather the information on the participants' language background, such as years of L2-English learning, degrees of familiarity with Cantonese, Thai, and Yorkshire accents.

The stimuli were similar to those used in Leikin et al. (2009). Specifically, 40 English sentences were prepared for the perception test. The sentences were constructed such that the last word was a noun (e.g., When Mary left for, her mother asked her to bring the ..... puddings/bins/pens/bears). Each sentence was paired with four different ending words—the gated words, which were equated on their predictability<sup>1</sup>. The stimulus sentences were recorded by a native Mandarin, Cantonese, Thai, and English (Yorkshire accent) speaker, with 10 sentences in each of the four accents. The reason to choose Cantonese and Thai accent was because there were many international students from Hong Kong, Thailand and Europe at the university where the study was carried out. Thus, it was assumed that some of the participants would have some experience with these accents. As for Yorkshire accent, it is quite close to Received Pronunciation (RP), or what is called Standard English pronunciation. The stimuli were recorded using a high quality recorder (Roland-05) with the settings: 16-bit mono channel and 44.1 KHz in a sound treated room. The recorded sentences were digitized with Avaaz Inovations, Inc., CSRE4.0. Following Grosjean (1980), each sentence was constructed with gate 0 revealing no phonological information of the stimulus word, gate 1 having the first 40 ms of the word, gate 2 revealing an additional 40 ms, etc., accumulating until the whole word was revealed. The stimuli were presented using a laptop with a speaker at a comfortable loudness level.

Ten native English speakers (5 male, 5 female) who were doing their Master's degrees in the UK were asked to identify the accent type (Cantonese, Thai, and Mandarin) and to indicate the accent degree of the speakers with a 5 Likert scale (0=no foreign accent, 5=very strong accent) as well as voice characteristic (0=very unpleasant, 5=very pleasant). Because of their learning environment, all the listeners reported to have the experiences of dealing with Cantonese, Thai, and Mandarin speakers. A repeated measures ANOVA did not reveal a significant main effect of identification of accent type, accent degree, or voice characteristic ( $p>0.05$ ). Moreover, the accent type of all the stimuli were correctly identified without significant main effect of group.

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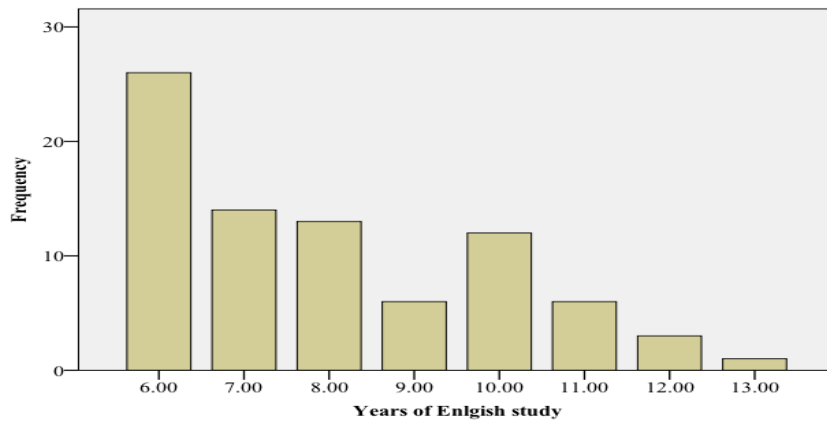
<sup>1</sup> A pilot study was carried out to help choose the gated words of equal predictability.



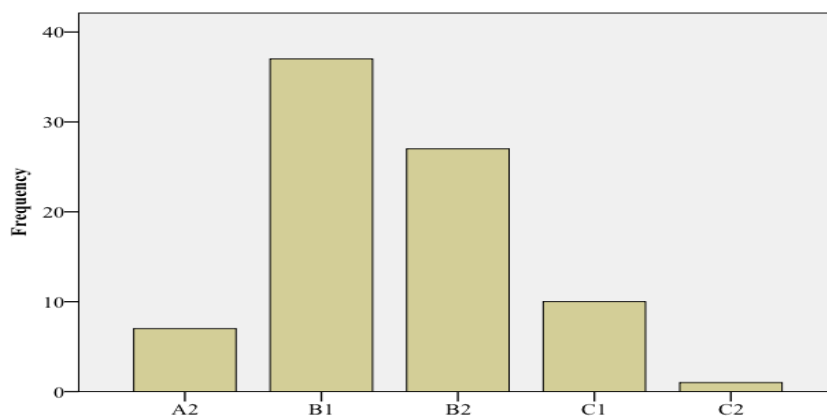
One week before the perception test, the participants were asked to do an Oxford Quick Placement Test for the purpose of finding out their English proficiency levels<sup>2</sup>. The test was carried out at the beginning of a lecture (English literature) in a quiet classroom. The students were told that they could drop out at any time during the study if they wanted (none of them dropped out though). They were asked to do a perception test by listening to the recordings and write down the last word of each gated sentence on an answer sheet, even by guessing. After the perception test, the students were asked to complete the questionnaire, which were collected after being completed.

### Findings

As shown in Figure 1, Figure 2, and Figure 3 below, the participants had been learning English as a foreign language for 6 to 13 years. The majority of their English proficiency levels were lower intermediate (B1, n=37) and upper intermediate (B2, n=27). There were more participants reported to be familiar with Cantonese and Thai accents than those with Yorkshire accent.

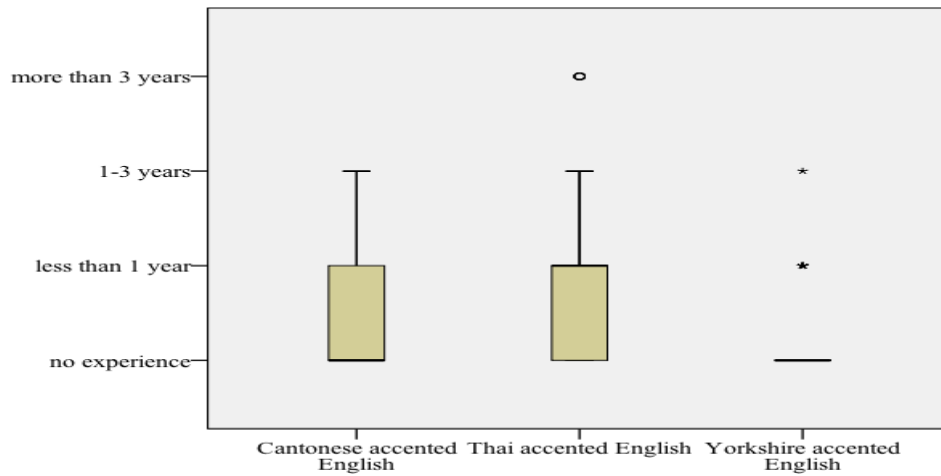


**Figure 1.** The participants' years of English learning (in years)



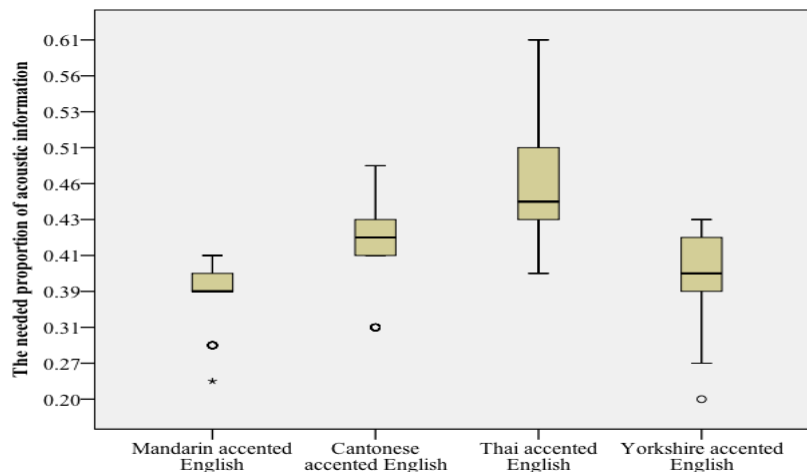
**Figure 2.** The participants' levels of English proficiency (in percentage)

<sup>2</sup> English proficiency levels: A1=beginner, A2=elementary, B1=lower intermediate, B2=upper intermediate, C1=advanced, C2=very advanced



**Figure 3.** The participants' experience with Cantonese-, Thai-, and Yorkshire-accent

The proportion of the phonological information from the stimulus word that was needed to identify it correctly three times in a row (in ms) was calculated in this way: (the value of the gate at which the target word was recognized correctly the third time)\*40 ms/(the total length of the word). As shown in Figure 4 and Table 1 below, the participants needed the largest amount of phonological information in the correct recognition of Thai-accented English (average=0.46 ms), while comparatively less in the correct recognition of Cantonese-accented English (average=0.42 ms). Much less phonological information was required for the perception of Mandarin-accented (average=0.38 ms) and Yorkshire-accented English (average=0.39 ms).



**Figure 4.** The proportion of phonological information that the participants needed for the correct identification of the stimulus words

**Table 1.** Estimates of the phonological information that the participants needed for the accurate identification of the stimuli

Presented accent	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mandarin	.376	.05	.367	.386
Cantonese	.417	.18	.404	.430
Thai	.463	.16	.452	.475
Yorkshire	.389	.07	.378	.399

**Table 2.** Post Hoc test results of the participants' perceptual performance

(I) accent	(J) accent	mean difference	Sig
Mandarin	Cantonese	-0.041	<b>0.000</b>
	Thai	-0.087	<b>0.017</b>
	Yorkshire	-0.013	0.341
Cantonese	Mandarin	0.041	<b>0.000</b>
	Thai	-0.046	0.218
	Yorkshire	0.028	<b>0.021</b>
Thai	Cantonese	0.046	0.218
	Mandarin	0.087	<b>0.017</b>
	Yorkshire	0.074	<b>0.015</b>
Yorkshire	Thai	0.074	<b>0.015</b>
	Cantonese	-0.028	<b>0.021</b>
	Mandarin	0.013	0.341

Repeated measures ANOVA was carried out to detect the effect of the presented accents and other relevant factors on the participants' perceptual performance. The accent of English in which the stimuli were presented (Mandarin, Cantonese, Thai, and Yorkshire) was coded as a within-subjects variable. The participants' degree of familiarity with the target accents, for how long they had been learning English, levels of English proficiency, age, gender, as well as their levels of English proficiency were coded as between-subjects factors. The amount of phonological information that the participants needed for the correct recognition of the gated words were coded as the dependent variable.

According to the results mentioned above, the accent of English in which the stimuli were presented (*accent* thereafter) had a significant effect on the participants' perceptual performance ( $F(3, 189)=57.31, p<0.001$ ). As mentioned above, the participants needed larger amount of phonological information for the correct perception of Thai- and Cantonese-accented English than Mandarin- and Yorkshire-accented English. Further analysis with *Post Hoc Test* (Table 2) indicated that the significant mean differences lied in Mandarin-Thai, Mandarin-Cantonese, Yorkshire-Thai, and Yorkshire-Cantonese. The rest of the mean differences turned out to be nonsignificant.

Given that Mandarin was the participants' L1, their degree of familiarity with Mandarin was coded as "more than 3 years" for statistical analysis on the association between

the participants' degree of familiarity and the amount of phonological information they needed for the accurate perception of the stimuli. Chi-square test in Crosstabs indicated that the association was nonsignificant ( $p=0.072$ ). This finding seemed to be at odds with Figure 3 and Figure 4. Considering that the text books (including recordings) used in China followed British English, the participants would be quite familiar with RP. It is generally accepted that Yorkshire accent is close to RP. Therefore, we excluded data on the participants' degree of familiarity with Yorkshire accent, and conducted Chi-square test again with data on the participants' degree of familiarity with Mandarin, Thai, and Cantonese accents. It turned out that the association was significant ( $p<0.001$ , *Symmetric Measures*=0.615).

Moreover, the participants' levels of English proficiency ( $F(3, 34)=10.94$ ,  $p=0.003$ ) and its interaction with the presented accents ( $F(4, 34)=9.54$ ,  $p=0.004$ ) were both found to have had a significant effect on the participants' accurate perception of the gated words. The rest of the factors and their interaction with each other, however, because of the participants' perceptual performance ( $p>0.05$ ).

So far, the three research questions were answered with the findings above. That is, the accents in which the stimuli were produced, the participants' linguistic experience with the target accents, as well as their English proficiency all had positive strong association with their accurate perception of the accented L2-English speech.

### Discussion

The first finding of the present study was that the variable *accent* displayed a significant effect on the participants' perception of L2-English. Specifically, the participants required the least amount of phonological information for L2-English perception when it was spoken in Mandarin accent. This finding was consistent with the prediction that L2 listeners may employ L1 phonological system for L2 perception (Best, 1994; Bent & Bradlow, 2003; Flege, 1992a, b; Iverson et al., 2003; Leather, 1999; Major, 1999; Werker, 1994). Consequently, less processing time was required when it is spoken in their L1 accent than it was spoken in other foreign accents. Nonetheless, Lee, Vakoch and Wurm (1996) and Li (2015) found that even if a foreign language shares some features with listeners' L1, the listeners still present some difficulties in the accurate perception of the foreign-language-accented speech of an L1. What makes the two studies different from the present one is that these studies mentioned above highlighted only the perception of tones. However, as the target L2 in the study, English is not a tonal language.

The second finding was that there was not a significant difference between the amount of phonological information that the participants needed to accurately perceive Mandarin-accented and Yorkshire-accented English. It was similar to the finding in Leikin et al. (2009) in which native-accented speech did not pose any additional difficulties for perception. Nevertheless, it was at odds with some previous studies, which suggested that speech perception of L2 would be easier for L2 learners when its phonemic features are similar to that of their L1 than when they are native-like (e.g. Best, 1994; Iverson et al., 2003; Major, 1999). However, the English textbooks used in public schools/universities and the majority of private English learning schools in China are following the British syllabus. Therefore, even if the majority of the participants reported to have little/no exposure to Yorkshire accent, their

experience with RP might have facilitated their perception of Yorkshire-accented English. In fact, this conjecture was confirmed with Chi-square test on the strong association between the participants' degree of familiarity with the target accents and the amount of phonological information they needed for L2-English perception. As shown in Figure 4, the participants needed the largest amount of phonological information in the correct recognition of Thai accented English, while comparatively less in the correct recognition of Cantonese accented English. Much less phonological information was required for the perception of Mandarin-accented and Yorkshire-accented English. Given that Mandarin was their L1, there would be doubts on their familiarity with Mandarin-accented English. Their familiarity with Yorkshire accent would be attributed to their learning experience with RP. There were 50% more participants reported to be familiar with Thai accent than with Cantonese accent. As shown in Table 1, the participants required comparatively larger amount of phonological information for the perception of Cantonese-accented English than Thai-accented English, even though the mean difference turned out to be nonsignificant. Nevertheless, this finding was inconsistent with findings in some previous studies (e.g. Munro & Derwing, 1995; Clarke & Garrett, 2004; Bradlow & Bent, 2008; Clarke & Garrett, 2004; Bradlow & Bent, 2008; Sidaras et al., 2009), which claim that listeners could both adapt rapidly to unfamiliar speakers and accents, thus they do not require additional processing time for the perception of accented speech. The inconsistent findings might be attributed to two reasons. First, the testing material of the present study was not sufficient for the participants to adapt to the foreign accents. Second, the majority of the participants' English proficiency levels were intermediate rather than advanced, which may have limited their quick adaption to unfamiliar foreign accents.

Moreover, the participants' English proficiency level and its interaction with the presented accents were both found to have had a significant effect on accented L2 perception. Not much evidence is available from previous studies concerning the influence of L2 proficiency level on listeners' perception of accented L2. Assumably, advanced L2 learners are more capable of perceiving the speech sounds of L2 than the less advanced (Vandergrift, 2005; Best & Tyler, 2007). It seems this assumption applies to the perception of accented L2.

Another interesting finding was that the variable *the years that participants had been learning English as an L2* did not play a significant role on the participants' perceptual performance. Although the findings in Leikin et al. (2009) were similar to the one in the present study, the participants in Leikin et al. (2009) began their L2 study after puberty. In the present study, however, some of the participants started L2-English learning since their childhood (-7 years old, whereas others began learning English at the age of 13+). Unexpectedly, there was not a significant difference among them concerning the amount of phonological information that they needed for accented English perception.

### Conclusion

The present study investigated factors that may have influence on language listeners' perception of accented L2. L1-Mandarin of L2-English speakers' perception of English sounds in Mandarin-, Thai-, Cantonese-, and Yorkshire-accent was tested. According to the findings, the presented accents, linguistic experience with the target accents, and proficiency level of the target foreign language all had significant effects on their perception of the accented speech.

One of the deficiencies of the study was that the participants' response time was not recorded. Thus, it was not clear whether the participants needed more time in the perception of one accented English sounds than others. Future studies on this issue may take it into consideration, which may help to gain further insights into this topic.

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## Review Article


# Scientific production in children's literature through the Web of Science

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## Abstract

Children's literature has raised the interest of different disciplines and has strongly emerged not only in society but also in school and university curricula. This paper aims to analyse production in children's literature and determine the discipline's scientific activity published in international scientific journals indexed in the Web of Science. A total of 1,558 papers published in 474 journals were retrieved. The results show an increase in the number of papers on children's literature over time. Document typology was highly diverse, scientific articles and book reviews accounting for more than 85% of the total production. *Lion and the Unicorn*, *Children's Literature In Education*, and *International Research in Children's Literature* were the journals with the highest production. The journals analysed were classified under 96 different subject categories, *Literature* and *Educational research* being the areas with the largest number of publications.

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## Web of Science veri tabanında dizinlenen dergilerde çocuk edebiyatına ilişkin eser üretimi

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### Öz

Çocuk edebiyatı birçok farklı disiplinin ilgisini çekmiş ve hem toplumsal alanda hem de okul ve üniversite programlarında önemli bir yer tutmuştur. Bu çalışmanın amacı çocuk edebiyatındaki eser üretimini incelemek ve Web of Science veri tabanında dizinlenmiş uluslararası bilimsel dergilerde bu alanda yayımlanmış bilimsel çalışmaları belirlemektir. 474 dergide yayımlanmış olan toplam 1,558 çalışma incelenmiştir. Bulgular, zamanla çocuk edebiyatı alanında yapılmış çalışmaların sayısında bir artış olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, alandaki çalışmalar çok fazla çeşitlilik göstermekle beraber üretilen çalışmaların %85 ini bilimsel makaleler ve kitap incelemeleri oluşturmaktadır. *Lion and the Unicorn*, *Children's Literature in Education*, ve *International Research in Children's Literature* dergilerinin en çok çalışmanın yayımlandığı dergiler oldukları tesbit edilmiştir. Analizi yapılan dergiler 96 farklı konu başlığı altında sınıflandırılmış olup, *Edebiyat* ve *Eğitim Araştırmaları* bölümleri en çok sayıda yayının sınıflandırıldığı başlıklar olarak öne çıkmıştır.

### Gönderim

15 Ocak 2018

### Kabul

20 Mayıs 2018

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### Anahtar kelimeler

çocuk edebiyatı  
bilimsel üretim  
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Web of Science

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## Introduction

Approaching children's literature<sup>1,2</sup> from the viewpoint of scientific production over time requires initially defining what we mean by children's literature and contextualising it within its scope of action, dissemination and acceptance. Díaz-Plaja and Prats (1998), Hunt (1999), Etxaniz (2008) and Lorente (2011), described the problems encountered by children's and young adults' literature in being accepted by university academicism. It is worth remembering this to better appreciate the fact that a research and study line on children's and young adults' literature has only recently been developed within literature studies, one that finally needs no justification and is now booming in universities around the world.

Children's literature must be understood as the discipline that studies books for children. As such, to make progress as a discipline, it requires research in its specific area. The abovementioned line is intended to prove that the potential of this literature is to teach children to read competently, to enjoy reading, and to delve into culture. The basis for analysis must be literature studies, but beyond the studies proposed by Philology, studies on children's literature should consider the acquisition, development, and communicative variability of literary texts and their contribution to reading competence (Mendoza, 2010). Children's literature is currently accepted as an art object or product of an aesthetic nature but one with commercial and economic dimensions too. It has also generated a prolific and relevant research field in literature education, more particularly in language and literature didactics (Díaz-Plaja, 2009; Ballester, 2015).

It is in this context that children's literature has developed, raising the interest of different disciplines (psychology, history of literacy and culture, school education, language and literature didactics between other disciplines). Over the past twenty years, it has strongly emerged not only in society but also in school and in university curricula of former and new teacher training degrees for infant, primary and secondary education in Spain.

Likewise, over the last twenty years, children's literature in Spain has become consolidated, giving way to different types of research work: historic compilations of children's literature with a new approach to children's and young adults' literature in Spain (García-Padrino, 1998, 2004; Garralón, 2001); characterisation work or sector analysis in literature for children and young adults, i.e. studies based on reading ages (Durán, 2005; Colomer, 2008; Jover, 2008), or genre-focused studies: theatre, illustration, album (Tejerina, 1998; Durán, 2007; Silva-Díaz, 2006); works that place children's literature in literary education from the assumptions of the construction of the reader through the analysis of the literary components that modulate it and conform it (Colomer, 1998; Mendoza, 1999; Lluch, 1998); works about

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<sup>1</sup> Although finding a definition of the object of study was not easy, when referring to Children's Literature in the paper we will use the definition by Díaz-Plaja (2016): "A set of texts –including oral tradition– that children enjoy and consider their literature. It may include texts not initially targeted at them, or adaptations of works for adults. It is basically divided into three literary genres: narrative, poetry and theatre.

<sup>2</sup> Within this framework, it must be noted that the origin of children's literature is in the 18<sup>th</sup> century, when children started being considered specifically and the need to educate them prompted the adaption and creation of texts specifically targeted at them. Some examples are *Robinson Crusoe* (1719) by Daniel Defoe; *Alice in wonderland* (1865) and *Through the looking glass and what Alice found there* (1871) by Lewis Carroll; *Treasure island* (1883) by Robert Lous Stevenson. Children's literature did not exist as such at the beginning. Children used to read and listen to what was written by and for adults, and whatever they had access to from popular literature. Slowly, with schooling and the formalisation of education, a major change took place: they stopped being workers and started going to school to learn. A new category appeared –childhood– becoming an object of study itself.

textual analysis, illustrations, or organisation of reading activities that help to choose books for children, or to analyse images (Colomer, 2002; Durán, 2007); inter alia.

The growth of science production in children's literature has boosted the development of bibliometric studies that offer an interesting view of scientific activity, providing quantitative and objective information to evaluate the results of such an activity. Scientific production is an indicator that allows us to determine the growth of science through the number of published works and the different bibliographic elements in them, of researcher production, of a country or an institution, and of their collaboration.

The usefulness of bibliometric studies in the analysis of scientific activity and as a complement to other indicators has been largely accepted. Bibliometrics analyses scientific publications, the structure and dynamics of the groups producing and consuming them, and the information they contain. The bibliometric analysis of the production and impact of documents by area of knowledge is the best quantitative and qualitative indicator of the research activity carried out in a field (Verbeek, Debackere, Luwel & Zimmermann, 2002).

Bibliometrics has become widespread as an essential methodology for the evaluation of scientific production and all the phenomena linked to science communication. It is considered a fundamental tool in building and knowing the present and the history of research in different scientific domains. Since bibliometric methodology was first introduced in Spain in the 1970s (López Piñero, 1972), some scientific disciplines such as medicine and psychology have used it extensively. But its application is growing in the study of other fields or disciplines from humanities or social science: journal analysis (Kirk & Nylander, 2014; Fernández-Quijada, 2010); PhD dissertations (Curiel-Marín & Fernández-Cano, 2015; Moreno-Fernández & Moreno-Crespo, 2016); institutions (Maz-Machado et al., 2012); disciplines (Nikleva & Cortina, 2014); reviews (Sorli, Mochón & Martín-Carretero, 2011), information use (Haba, Peredo & Osca-Lluch, 2014; Osca-Lluch, Veyrat & Morales, 2013).

This paper gives an overview of international scientific activity in Children's Literature. The objectives are: 1) to study the evolution of scientific activity in this field; 2) to analyse document typology; and, 3) to identify the journals in which research on children's literature is published.

### Methodology

This bibliometric study used as main source of research the information included in the databases of the Web of Science (WoS), produced by the company Clarivate Analytics. These databases are those that are universally used in bibliometric studies to include the best journals according to criteria of scientific and formal quality, and recognition by the scientific community. These are multidisciplinary databases, which include the names of all the signatories of the works as well as their places of work. They also offer information on the bibliographic references that appear in the documents analysed.

With the purpose of knowing the evolution of scientific production in this subject, a search was conducted using the terms *Children's Literature*, *Didactics of Children's*, *Teaching of Literature*, and *Teaching of Language and Literature* in the "Topic" field, combining them with *Child* and *Kid*, because they are the keywords used to recover papers dealing with children's and young people's literature.

To analyse the evolution of scientific production in a certain area, it is necessary to know the number of published works in a given period of time. In this case, in order to know the evolution of the published works on children's literature in the Web of Science (WoS), all the documents included in this database were searched until October 2016, when the search was concluded. In this case, the "year of publication" field was interrogated without limiting any period of time in order to retrieve all the documents included in this information source.

Once the documents were found in the database we analysed the documentary typology of the works, that in this case were: article, book review, proceedings paper, editorial material, review, meeting abstract, bibliography, correction, biographical item, letter, news item, item about and individual, and film review.

Finally, to identify the journals, the field "publication title" was revised, which is the one that includes the title of the publications included in the Web of Science (WoS) database, where the works are published. Bibliometric indicators related to the documentary typology, the temporal evolution of the production, the language, the publication journals and the thematic areas of the journals in the Web of Science (WoS) were used. The bibliometric indicators are data obtained from scientific publications that serve for studies that focus on the results of research activity of a particular country or countries, scientific institutions, authors or research topics based on the premise that scientific publications are the essential result of an activity (Osca-Lluch et al., 2002).

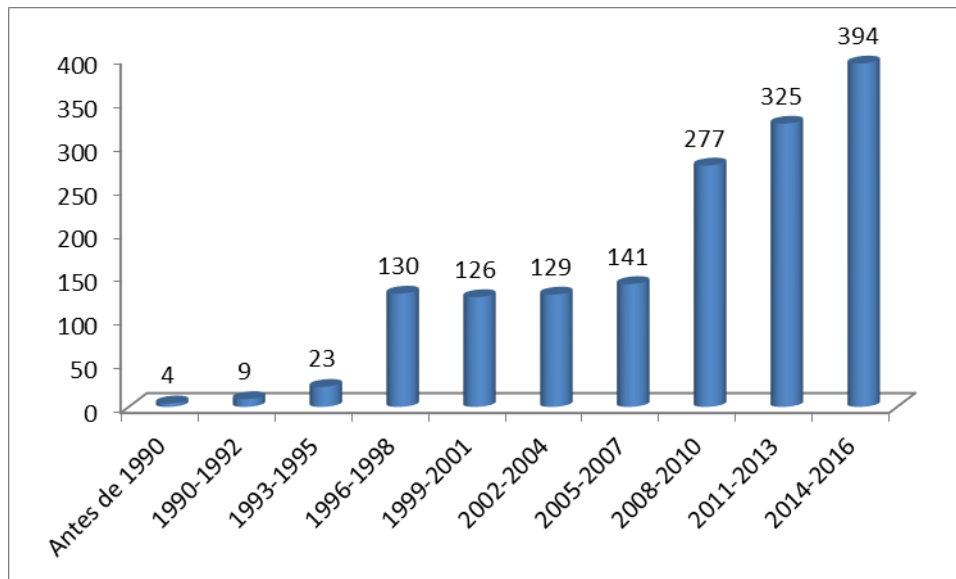
Once all the production was collected, data were processed using Ms Excel 2007 and Ms Access 2007. A database was created where all data were included, and different indicators were obtained.

## **Findings**

A total of 1,558 papers related to children's literature published in international journals indexed in the Web of Science (WoS) were retrieved.

### **Evolution of production over time**

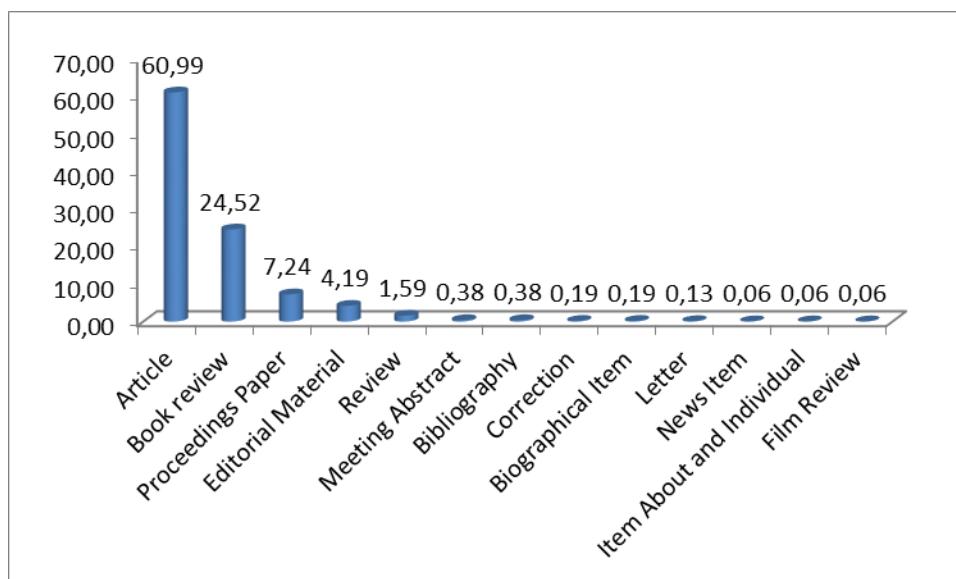
The time coverage designed in the search strategy did not begin with a specific year so that all the documents included in the databases could be retrieved. The first document found - a review paper of *The illustrated treasury of children's literature*, by Paul Zankowich- dated back to 1956. After this paper, production rates were steady but it was not until 1996 that a clear increase in publication of children's literature research took place. As of 2005, the growing trend remained constant (Figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Evolution of production over time

### Document typology

The document typology of the works is most diverse (Figure 2). 13 different document types were found, but scientific articles (60.99%) and book reviews (24.52%) stood out, followed by proceedings papers (7.24%), editorial materials (4.19%), and review papers (1.59%).



**Figure 2.** Document typology

### Publication languages

Papers on children's literature were published in 16 different languages (Figure 3). Most of the production was written in English (1,391 papers, 89.28%) and Spanish (43 papers,



in only 42 journals (8.86% of the total). Table 1 shows the relationship of those 42 journals that have published more than half of all scientific production in children's literature during the whole period analysed, together with the number of published works and the thematic category in which the journal has been classified in the database consulted.

**Table 1.** Most productive journals, published works and subject categories

Journals	Number of works	%	Subjects in WoS
<i>Lion and the Unicorn</i>	152	10,43	Literature
<i>Childrens Literature in Education</i>	142	9,75	Literature
<i>International Research in Childrens Literature</i>	105	7,21	Literature
<i>Reading Teacher</i>	88	6,04	Education & Educational Research
<i>History of Education &amp; Childrens Literature</i>	27	1,85	History
<i>Meta</i>	21	1,44	Language & Linguistics
<i>TLS-The Times Literary Supplement</i>	15	1,03	Humanities, Multidisciplinary
<i>Neohelicon</i>	14	0,96	Literature
<i>Library Journal</i>	13	0,89	Information Science & Library Science
<i>Perspectives-Studies in Translatology</i>	13	0,89	Language & Linguistics
<i>Library Trends</i>	12	0,82	Information Science & Library Science
<i>Sex Roles</i>	11	0,75	Psychology, Developmental; Psychology, Social, Womens Studies
<i>Archiv fur das Studium der Neueren Sprachen und Literaturen</i>	10	0,69	Language & Linguistics; Literature
<i>Cadernos de Traducaao</i>	9	0,62	Language & Linguistics
<i>Journal of Adolescent &amp; Adult Literacy</i>	9	0,62	Education & Educational Research
<i>Victorian Studies</i>	9	0,62	Humanities, Multidisciplinary
<i>World Literature Today</i>	9	0,62	Literature
<i>Ariel-A Review of International English Literature</i>	8	0,55	Literature
<i>CLCWEB-Comparative Literature and Culture</i>	8	0,55	Literature
<i>Environmental Education Research</i>	8	0,55	Education & Educational Research; Environmental Studies
<i>Library Quaterly</i>	8	0,55	Information Science & Library Science
<i>Literacy</i>	8	0,55	Educational & Educational Research; Linguistics
<i>PMLA-Publications of the Modern Language Assocationa of America</i>	8	0,55	Literature
<i>African American Review</i>	7	0,48	Literature, American
<i>English Teaching-Practice and Critique</i>	7	0,48	Educational & Educational Research; Linguistics



<i>Journal of Literacy Research</i>	7	0,48	Educational & Educational Research; Psychology Educational
<i>OCNOS-Revista de Estudios sobre la Lectura</i>	7	0,48	Education & Educational Research
<i>Reading Research Quarterly</i>	7	0,48	Education & Educational Research; Psychology, Educational
<i>Young Children</i>	7	0,48	Education & Educational Research
<i>Bilig</i>	6	0,41	Area Studies
<i>Hispania-A Journal Devoted to Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese</i>	6	0,41	Linguistics; Language & Linguistics; Literature, Romance
<i>Libri &amp; Liberi</i>	6	0,41	Literature
<i>Modern Language Review</i>	6	0,41	Language & Linguistics; Literature
<i>Target-International Journal of Translation Studies</i>	6	0,41	Linguistics
<i>American Literature</i>	5	0,34	Literature, American
<i>Anglia-Zeitschrift fur Englische Philologie</i>	5	0,34	Language & Linguistics; Literature
<i>Bookbird-A Journal of International Childrens Literature</i>	5	0,34	Literature
<i>Canadian Literature</i>	5	0,34	Literature, African, Australian, Canadian
<i>Intervention in School and Clinic</i>	5	0,34	Education Special
<i>Jeunesse-Young People Texts Culture</i>	5	0,34	Humanities, Multidisciplinary
<i>Reading Research and Instruction</i>	5	0,34	Education & Educational Research
<i>Wasafiri</i>	5	0,34	Humanities, Multidisciplinary
20 journals	4	5,49	
30 journals	3	6,18	
86 journals	2	11,81	
296 journals	1	20,32	
<b>Total journals: 474</b>		<b>100</b>	

### Subject categories

The journals included in the databases of the Web of Science (WoS) can be classified thematically in one or more of the 96 categories that are used by this database, which is currently managed by the company Clarivate Analytics. Please note that a journal could be included in more than one subject category, as was the case with *Archiv fur dar Studium der Neueren Sprachen und Literaturen* -simultaneously classified in the categories *Language & Linguistics* and *Literature*, for example. The number of papers published in journals classified under Literature and Education & Educational Research represented 48% of the total. And the number of works in journals indexed under *Language & Linguistics* and *Humanities, Multidisciplinary* came to 124 and 78 documents, respectively (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Most frequent subject categories

WoS Subjects	Number	%
Literature	575	32,16
Education & Educational Research	284	15,88
Language & Linguistics	124	6,94
Humanities, Multidisciplinary	78	4,36
History	70	3,91
Linguistics	69	3,86
Information Science & Library Science	53	2,96
Psychology, Educational	28	1,57
Psychology, Developmental	24	1,34
Literature, Romance	23	1,29
Psychology, Social	22	1,23
Women's Studies	22	1,23
Literature, American	19	1,06
Rehabilitation	18	1,01
Literary Reviews	17	0,95
Area Studies	16	0,89
Folklore	15	0,84
Literature, Slavic	15	0,84
Literary Theory & Criticism	14	0,78
Religion	14	0,78
Sociology	14	0,78
Literature, German, Dutch, Scandinavian	13	0,73
Social Sciences, Interdisciplinary	13	0,73
Communication	12	0,67
Environmental Sciences	12	0,67
Literature, African, Australian, Canadian	12	0,67
Psychology, Multidisciplinary	12	0,67
Psychology, Experimental	11	0,62
History of Social Sciences	10	0,56

The results of the study show that children's literature research in the WoS databases up to 2016 covers a 60-year period, and display an upward trend, with a more pronounced increase in the last 8 years. Although the document typology of the papers published in WoS journals is varied, the most frequent format is a scientific paper written in English. English is the language used in 89.28% of the works, followed by Spanish with just 2.76%.

As for the journals of publication, wide dispersion is found in their number, although three -*Lion and the Unicorn*, *Children's Literature in Education* and *International Research in Children's Literature*- stand out for their high publication rates, with 27% of the total papers.

One of the most interesting aspects is the cross-cutting dimension of the discipline, reflected by the vast array of subject categories of the journals publishing the works. As expected, the category with the highest number of journals is *Literature* (the three journals with more papers fall under this category). However, a great many papers are published in journals classified in categories belonging to other disciplines or scientific areas, such as *Education*, *Language* or *Psychology*, to mention just a few, which points to the links between literature and other scientific disciplines.

### Discussion and Conclusions

As a conclusion, we can state that once the data of this study was analysed it is observed that the evolution of scientific production in children and youth literature is increasing throughout the whole period studied. Therefore, it can be said that children's literature is also increasingly important in education, as the presence of children's and young adults' literature in all educational levels has steadily grown over the past two decades. Gradual acceptance and inclusion of children's literature in higher education has resulted in abundant bibliography, which reflects the development and progress of different research lines and the dissemination of children's literature. Children's and young adults' books have a value of their own; they are semiotic entities of an aesthetic category, and their functionality is not necessarily a secondary path towards Great Literature; Rather, it should be noted and qualified that they contribute to developing the individual as a reader precisely because the semiotic qualities of (*great*) literature are already in them (Mendoza, 2010). In this educational process, children's literature plays an essential role. On the one hand, children's books project and preserve values, structures, and references in culture (Colomer, 2010); on the other, the peculiarities of discourse and literary genres are based on re-elaborating models and structures present in literary tradition. In Mendoza's account (2010), these two functions give way to the remaining eight<sup>6</sup> in the construction of literary competence.

In this context, it is important to emphasise that the role of teachers in infant, primary and secondary education is essential to being able to work with children's literature and developing the skills needed to become a good mediator. This situation occurs when an adult facilitates access to children to the literary message and its decoding. Teachers are indispensable as text providers (oral, iconic, audio-visual texts, and of different genres); they put children in contact with books that will help them develop their reading and literary skills. As the child grows up, the teaching-mediating function shifts from providing texts to sharing exchange situations intended to collaborate in the construction of the meaning of the texts and

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<sup>6</sup> According to Mendoza (2010), the functions are as follows: 1) Projecting and preserving values, structures and culture. 2) Observing that the peculiarities of discourse and literary genres are based on re-elaborating models and structures present in literary tradition. 3) Appreciating the literary fact as an exponent for the permanence of literature as a cultural exponent. (4) Forging the reading habit, as a means for the progressive development of reading experiences that are integrated into one's literary competence. (5) The development of literary competence is linked to reading promotion, as it deals with shaping a literary habit through which the progressive development of reading experiences integrated in literary competence as particular knowledge is ensured. (6) Determining the model (or implicit) reader as the ideal receiver of the literary work, as envisaged by the author. Boosting the receiver's cooperation or interaction, as a basic function to work on educational aspects for the reception, construction of meaning, and interpretation. (7) Identifying the features of literary discourse. (8) Establishing intertextual connections to relate literary productions and link them as exponents of a genre, a topic, or an ideology.

to suggest and guide readings that shape the receivers' reading pathway and develop their competence (Díaz-Plaja, Prats, and Mendoza, 2011). As mediators, teachers need to consult and access information and recommendations previously studied by children's literature experts.

It is observed that the documental typology of the works published about children and youth literature included in the databases of the Web of Science (WoS), are mainly articles (60.99%) and book reviews (24.52%). While the most used language by researchers is English (89.28%).

Teachers and researchers are interested in knowing the state of the art of a particular discipline or scientific area. The evolution of scientific publication parameters and academic career demands in many countries -like Spain- require adaptation to new research challenges and quality improvement in scientific production. This study is the first approach to the state of research in children's literature today, and offers some insights into international scientific journals used by researchers through the production of works included in the Web of Science (WoS) for the dissemination of their research.

The substantial increase in scientific production in this discipline can be considered the outcome of the gradual inclusion of children's literature in different university degrees, primarily education or teacher training ones but also library science and documentation. Moreno and Sánchez-Vera (2000; as cited in Ballester, 2015) have summarised the situation and evolution of children's literature in higher education. 1971 was the beginning of its progressive incorporation as a subject in all Spanish universities, under the generic name of 'children's literature'. But the key year was 1991, for two reasons: First, thanks to the 1991 curriculum, children's literature started being included as a core course in Spain's teacher training degrees, in the infant education speciality, under the descriptor 'Children's literature and its didactics'. In the same year, new third-cycle programmes were implemented in many universities, including children's and young adults' literature in PhD studies. It was precisely in the third cycle that the courses devoted to this subject increased. The trend has continued to this day, as children's literature has consolidated and expanded into specialisation courses, postgraduate studies, PhD theses, continuing education, summer courses and so on.

In addition to the increase and dissemination of children's and young adults' literature in teaching degrees, a recent turning point must be underlined: the introduction and implementation of degrees in the European Area of Higher Education (EHEA). In all teacher training degrees of Spanish universities, the curriculum includes -as a core course- Didactics of Children's (and Young Adults') Literature in the infant and primary education specialities. This was first implemented in academic year 2010-2011, following Royal Decree 1393/2007 of 29 October, and Order ECI/3857/2007 of 27 December, which lay down the requirements for the validation of official university studies qualifying graduates as infant and primary education teachers.

The course "Didactics of children's literature" is intended to prepare future teachers to develop, in pupils, skills related to children's literature. The course has given rise to professional expectations in students, who approach children's literature willing to use it with their class (Díaz-Plaja, 2009). This has brought out a noticeable improvement and assurance that all future teachers in pre-school and primary education would have heard about children's literature and its teaching in one of the four years of the degree. Despite the fact that children's literature is a core course, the debate about contents and skills is not yet settled and requires

further assessment (Amo, 2003, 2009; Cerrillo et al. 2005). However, progress has certainly been made; the situation of the course in the former undergraduate studies differed greatly across Spanish universities, each specific degree having its own curriculum.

Gradual acceptance and inclusion of children's literature in higher education has resulted in abundant bibliography, which reflects the development and progress of different research lines and the dissemination of children's literature. In Anglo-Saxon countries, the works of Sadler and Knoepfelmacher (1992), Watkins (1996), and Butler (2006) are well-known compendiums of the teaching and research activities carried out in English-speaking universities, and an excellent sample of the types of courses offered at various educational levels.

Based on the bibliometric study conducted, we can conclude that children's literature research is an increasingly relevant object of study, as a significant increase in the number of papers published in international journals specialised in different scientific disciplines was found, though the vast majority of works were in the area of Language and Literature Didactics. Many papers seem to be intended to provide the course and the teachers with concepts and resources on children's and young adults' literature to be applied in the classroom. Other works are more related to the epistemological status of children's literature in connection with the reader, or as the basis of literary education through a formative canon. Other texts are related to teaching and learning methodology in different communicative, social and linguistic contexts, as understood by the growing number of professionals from different disciplines who use children's literature as a tool for teaching and learning foreign languages, which explains the dispersion and large number of journals and subject areas in which these are classified.

We also found research related to not only knowledge acquisition or skill development but also to the learning of ideological and moral values -a concern with many teachers and one that has given rise to selected collections, titles, and bibliographies on current issues (civility, democracy, multiculturalism and so on). According to Colomer (2016), in 2014-2015 research studies on children's literature achieved continuity and thematic consistency with topics in new times. Readers, image, literature on a screen, and some social changes in personal and family domains have drawn the attention of Spanish researchers. Therefore, we can say that the subjects present in children's literature research continue being the fascination with links between image and text in the album genre, and the treatment of gender, sexual orientation or family models.

This study can be useful from different perspectives. Firstly, it can be useful to teachers, researchers, and/or mediators, as it offers objective data extracted from the Web of Science which provide quick and valuable bibliometric information about international journals and scientific activity in children's literature. Secondly, it will be interesting to analyse future contributions and potential applications of children's literature as well as its relationships with other scientific disciplines, which will allow us to further explore this area.

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## Book Review: The Factors Effecting Student Achievement: Meta-Analysis of Empirical Studies

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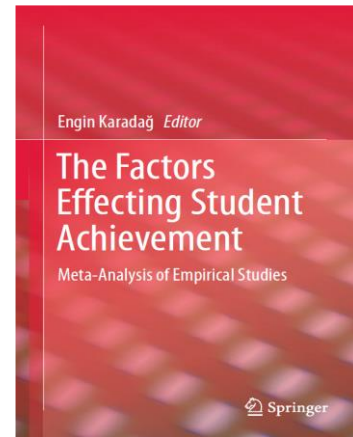


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## Book review: The factors effecting student achievement: Meta-analysis of empirical studies

*The Factors Effecting Student Achievement:  
Meta-Analysis of Empirical Studies, 1<sup>st</sup> ed. (2017)*

Engin Karadağ (Ed.)  
Springer  
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Pooling the findings of independently conducted individual scientific studies and analyzing them as a whole enable more valid assessments as to the subject being researched. Meta-analysis is a way of doing this since it produces results representing immense populations by synthesizing the findings of individual studies. In accordance with this notion, *The factors effecting student achievement: Meta-analysis of empirical studies* (ISBN: 978-3-319-56082-3), edited by Engin Karadağ, was published in 2017. Student achievement is an intensively addressed issue in the literature with respect to a number of variables. This book examines the impact level of the predictors of student achievement by analyzing the relationship between student achievement and 18 variables. To this end, 2138 correlational research studies consisting of publications available on ScienceDirect, ProQuest and EBSCO academic databases, and dissertations from American and Canadian universities, were included in the analysis, representing a sample of 2.292.720 people. The book consists of 20 chapters, 18 of which report the relationship between student achievement and various variables.

The first chapter, the introduction part, offers a detailed explanation of meta-analysis. In this chapter, meta-analysis is clarified with historical background and information as to the main concepts of meta-analysis, including effect size and types, effect size in dichotomous data, average effect size between groups for continuous data, correlational effect size for continuous data, choice of model, publication bias, sub-group analysis and moderator analysis, is provided with examples. These explanations endow readers with a base to understand the analysis methods and processes in the following chapters.

The following chapters, written by 16 different authors from Turkey, cover the analysis results regarding the effects of educational leadership, motivation, attitude, anxiety, self-efficacy, self-concept, self-regulation, locus of control, socioeconomic status, school culture, school climate, collective teacher efficacy, expectation, self-esteem, social adjustment, parent involvement, goal orientation, learning types/styles on student achievement respectively. These chapters are formed in line with a well-defined structure, which includes introduction with explanations as to the related variable based on a brief literature review and hypotheses to be tested as well as method, findings and conclusion sections. The method section contains study design, review strategy and criteria for inclusion /exclusion, coding process, statistical processes, moderator variables and publication bias. Based on the findings section, the results of the meta-analysis are discussed with other studies in the conclusion section.

Following the 18 chapters reporting the effects of the variables on student achievement elaborately, the conclusion chapter summarizes the results of the analyses in a holistic manner but offers a table featuring specific results of correlations as well. Analysis of moderator variables such as type of publication, year of publication, the culture in which the study was conducted, the course subjects examined in the study, the level of school in which the study was conducted is also provided in this chapter as well as limitations of the study.

It was found out in the meta-analyses that the variables which have low impact on student achievement are motivation, self-regulation, anxiety, parent involvement, goal orientation, learning types/styles and self-esteem; the variables which have moderate impact on student achievement are self-efficacy, attitude, school climate, school culture, self-concept, expectations, the leadership behaviors of school principals and collective teacher efficacy; the variable which has high impact on student achievement is socio economic status. It was also

found out that anxiety has a negative impact on student achievement while social adjustment and locus of control have no impact on student achievement (Karadağ, 2017, p. 325).

This book is a worthy source for both researchers and practitioners. For researchers, it offers a wide literature review regarding student achievement and related variables, and puts forth the correlations between them, which enables readers to scrutinize the literature on student achievement. Furthermore, it clearly defines the predictors of students achievement in terms of their correlation level and this asset of the book has the potential to guide future research on student achievement. Researchers may plan their studies based on the findings presented in this book. Additionally, the book also serves as a reference guide for novice researchers regarding meta-analysis. Beside the introduction section informing readers on meta-analysis, the following chapters exemplify the process of meta-analysis, which poses a model for researchers.

The book also addresses practitioners in the education sector in that it provides readers with clear-cut results as to the predictors of student achievement based on extensive literature. Individual research studies may not mean a lot to practitioners as they are swamped with conflicting results of research studies and they do not have the chance to access, read, analyze and comment on the results of countless individual studies. Herein, practitioners have the chance to make use of the overall results of the studies on student achievement, which is the main goal to achieve for practitioners. They can reflect on the variables that have moderate or high impact on student achievement and try to implicate them in their teaching practices, for instance. In addition, practitioners can focus on a variable of their interest and dwell on detailed findings and discussion in the related chapter.

Despite being a reference guide for both researchers and practitioners, the book has also limitations just like any other scientific study. The research studies available on certain databases and dissertations in certain countries were included in the meta-analyses based on inclusion criteria and they are all in English, which may yield cultural bias and publication bias. Therefore, more meta-analyses on this issue are needed with different samples, which can lead to a meta-synthesis and put forth more valid and comprehensive results.