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ELT Research Journal  
 Volume 10, Issue 2, December 2021

Dear Reader,

We, as the Editorial Team of the ELT Research Journal, are happy to announce the release of the second issue of 2021 volume. In this issue, the first article by Pınar Kahveci focuses on the relationship between digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy, which is likely to appeal to our readers interest due to the sudden shift to digital teaching environments. The findings indicate that digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy differ according to teachers' experience, involvement in ICT-training and the amount of time spent online but not according to gender and majors. The second article by Zeynep Bilki and Pelin İrgin examines peer comments in a blog-based interaction in an online academic writing course. The third article by Muhammed Fatih Gökmen presents findings of a study on the effects of extensive listening on metacognitive awareness of students. The fourth study by Yasemin Koyak and Eda Üstünel examines use of other-initiated self-repair patterns of adult learners in an English-speaking course. The fifth study by Oya Tunaboğlu, Onur Karasu and Sevim İnal attempts to investigate how teachers of English feel during 'controlled normalcy' period back at school. The last article of the issue by deceased Hüseyin Öz, Ulvican Yazar and Pelin İrgin aims to investigate the relationship between Internal Locus of Control and EFL learners' translation achievement. The findings suggest that the higher internal locus of control indicates better achievement in the translation course. Finally, we would like to express our thanks to the researchers who have contributed to the current issue of the journal with their invaluable academic work. We would also like to thank all editors, co-editors and reviewers of the ELT-RJ for their voluntary contribution to the journal by managing the review process.

Best Regards,

**Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL**

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## Language Teachers' Digital Literacy and Self-efficacy: Are They Related?

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Research Article

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### Abstract

This study focuses on the relationship between digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy and how foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy differ corresponding to teachers' gender, experience, major, involvement in ICT training and the amount of time spent online. Participants were 100 foreign language teachers who work at various Colleges of Foreign Languages across Turkey. The quantitative data was collected via two scales; i.e., Digital Literacy Scale (Ng, 2012) and Teacher Sense of Self-efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Findings indicate a significant positive correlation between digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy. In addition, digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy differ according to teachers' experience, involvement in ICT-training and the amount of time spent online. However, teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy do not differ significantly based on teachers' gender and majors. Implications and suggestions for further research are discussed.

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**Keywords:** Digital literacy; teacher self-efficacy; language teacher education; correlational study

### Introduction

The transformation of the 21<sup>st</sup> century classroom into a technologically well-equipped platform has brought about the need for integration of a new dimension into teacher pedagogical content knowledge: technology. This new set of skills and knowledge has been termed as 'technology, pedagogy and content knowledge' (TPACK) (Harris, Mishra & Koehler, 2009). Contextually speaking, the emergency remote teaching context spurred by

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the global Covid19 pandemic has highlighted the essential role of digital literacy skills in language education more than ever. All teachers have had to mainly rely on their ICT skills to do their job and train themselves to employ synchronous computer-mediated communication tools, e.g., Zoom, GoogleTeams, skilfully. Adopting digital tools such as GoogleDocs, Kahoot, YouTube and zillions of others have become a necessity rather than an extra activity since they make online teaching more interactive and meaningful. It would not be wrong to argue that having good digital literacy skills has become a must rather than an add-on for language teachers in the post-pandemic period. The world has moved into a new dimension, and online and hybrid models of teaching are still in practice, and it seems that they will stay in our lives longer than we have expected.

Within this framework, this study envisages that digital literacy, briefly defined as ‘survival skills in the digital era’ (Eshet-Alkalai, 2004), is an integral aspect of TPACK. Digital literacy involves ‘the awareness, attitude and ability to use digital tools’ (Martin & Grudziecki, 2006) which is the core of technology knowledge that teachers need to integrate into their pedagogical content knowledge. Moreover, teacher self-efficacy, defined as ‘teachers’ beliefs that they are capable of carrying out good teaching in the classroom’ (Christophersen, Elstad, Turmo, & Solhaug, 2016), is substantial predictor of a number of variables related to both students and teachers (Ross, 1998); e.g., ‘professional commitment’ (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007), use of innovative ideas (Fuchs, Fuchs & Bishop, 1992), ‘attrition from the teaching profession’ (Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Hong, 2012), students’ motivation and achievements (Guo, Connor, Yang, Roehrig, & Morrison, 2012).

### **Research Questions**

Based on the brief theoretical background discussed, the study aims to find answers to the following three research questions:

1. What is the relationship between language teachers’ self-efficacy and digital literacy?
2. To what extent does this relationship differ according to foreign language teachers’ gender, experience, major, involvement in ICT-based training and the amount of time spent online?

## **How is Digital Literacy Related to Language Teachers' Self- efficacy?**

Digital literacy is an overarching term which is closely related with multiple literacies; e.g., 'media literacy, visual literacy, information literacy, and computer literacy' (Eshet-Alkalai, 2004; Buckingham, 2015; Koltay, 2011). Ng (2012) also proposes a three-dimensional framework for digital literacy that involve technical, cognitive and socio-emotional dimensions. The cognitive dimension refers to skills to critically evaluate information, which covers being informed of and sensitive to legal and ethical issues about the use of digital tools and making intelligent choices about software that suits one's specific purpose and task. Ng (2012) suggests that socio-emotional dimension lies at the intersection of the two literacies and it involves "being able to use the Internet responsibly for communicating, socializing and learning by observing 'netiquette'" (p. 1068).

Language teachers of the Internet generation need digital literacy skills to be able to "guide them in their educational journey through digital media" (OECD PISA Report, 2010, p. 7). Ng (2012) also postulates that it is the teachers' responsibility to guide learners into exploiting the digital technologies that can contribute to their learning process. Therefore, that language teachers possess digital competencies is essential so that they can equip learners with the needed digital literacy which will help them function properly in the rapidly digitalizing world (Pianfetti, 2001).

Literature is rich in studies that focus on teachers' ICT self-efficacy (Hammond, Reynolds & Ingram, 2011; So, Choi, Lim & Xiong, 2012; Teo, 2014; Hatlevik, 2016, Hatlevik & Hatlevik, 2018) and its relationship with digital literacy and ICT integration into teaching practices (Hammond et al., 2011; Hatlevik, 2017, Hatlevik & Hatlevik, 2018); and teachers' pedagogical beliefs (So et al., 2012). Findings from these studies reveal a positive correlation between teachers' ICT self-efficacy and ICT integration into their teaching, which means that teachers with higher ICT self- efficacy tend to integrate ICT into their teaching more often. Similarly, Ekşi (2011) examined the impact of ICT training on EFL teachers' ICT self-efficacy and computer literacy. She found that gender and experience were not determinant of their ICT self-efficacy and computer literacy; however, ICT self-efficacy supported computer literacy and vice versa.

Based on their findings, Hatlevik and Hatlevik (2018) conclude that general ICT self-efficacy is a prerequisite for the development of ICT self-efficacy in using it for educational purposes. However, they also underpin the need for further research to reveal the

relationships between general self-efficacy and ICT self-efficacy that are termed as respectively teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy in this study. The departure point of this study; therefore, is to explain the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and their digital literacy as individuals rather than only focusing on teachers' ICT self-efficacy and its impact on their teaching practice. Scarcity of studies in the literature that deal with this relationship points to a gap in the literature that this study aims to address. Similarly, how teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy differ based on gender, experience, major, involvement in ICT-based training and the amount of time spent online has also remained largely unexplored despite studies which consider gender and experience as variables (Ekşi, 2011) in teachers' acceptance of technology (Teo, 2014) and teachers' past experiences as a variable in their willingness to integrate ICT into teaching (So et al. ,2012).

## Methodology

### Research Design

This study employs a cross-sectional, correlational research design based on the quantitative research paradigm. Teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy are continuous dependent variables whereas teachers' gender, experience, major, involvement in ICT training and the amount of time spent online are categorical independent variables.

### Participants

Participants of the study were 100 foreign language instructors who work at various Colleges of Foreign Languages across Turkey. The participants were determined via convenience and snowball sampling. The demographic information; e.g., gender, and profile information; e.g., the major, years of experience and amount of time spent online, related to participants is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: *Participants' demographic and profile information*

Gender		Years of Experience			Major						Time spent online (hours)				
Female	Male	1-5	5-10	10+	ELT <sup>a</sup>	ELL <sup>b</sup>	TS <sup>c</sup>	ACL <sup>d</sup>	Ling. <sup>e</sup>	Other	-1	1-2	2-4	4-8	12+
73	27	14	46	40	65	17	3	3	6	6	9	25	49	14	2
N (Total): 100		N (Total): 100			N (Total): 100						N (Total): 100				

<sup>a</sup> English Language Teaching  
Literature<sup>e</sup> Linguistics

<sup>b</sup> English Language & Literature

<sup>c</sup> Translation Studies

<sup>d</sup> American Culture & Literature

The number of the female participants was 73 while the number of male participants was 27. The reason for this imbalance between the number of female and male participants is the fact that the great majority of instructors who teach at Colleges of Foreign Languages around Turkey are female as indicated by the most recent statistics provided by Turkish Board of Higher Education (2019) in Table 2.

Table 2: *Statistics of foreign language instructors who work at Colleges of Foreign Languages around Turkey\**

	Male	Female	Total
N	1614	4065	5679

\* Retrieved online June 15, 2019 from <https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>.

The numbers specified in Table 2 reveal that the number of female instructors is nearly four times as high as the number of male participants. Similarly, the great majority of the participants had 5 to 10 years of experience (N= 46), followed by the participants who had more than 10 years of experience (N= 40). The number of novice instructors who had 1 to 5 years of experience was the lowest (N=14). The reason for the low number of novice participants may be the advantage of experienced instructors over novice ones in the employment process. It is understandable that administrators of Colleges of Foreign Languages in Turkey would rather hire experienced instructors than novice ones. In addition, the numbers reveal that more than half of the participants (N= 65) have English Language Teaching as their major, which is possibly due to the same reason as the higher number of experienced participants. Finally, the nearly half of the participants (N=49) spend at least 2 to 4 hours a day online while only 9 of them spend less than 1 hour. Therefore, it can be suggested that the great majority of participants in this study are active daily users of the Internet.

## Research Instruments

The quantitative data has been collected via two scales; i.e., Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A., 2001) and the Digital Literacy Scale (Ng, 2012). The short form of TSES that includes twelve items with scale points between 1 and 9 indicating the degrees of efficacy that teachers think they have for each item with 1 the lowest and 9 the highest. The scale also consists of three sub-scales; i.e., student attendance (engagement), teaching strategies (instruction) and classroom management. Details about the reliability scores of the TSES are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: *The Cronbach's alpha Coefficients of the TSES and Its Subscales*

	Long Form			Short Form		
	Mean	SD	Cronbach's alpha	Mean	SD	Cronbach's alpha
TSES	7.1	.94	.94	7.1	.98	.90
<i>Engagement</i>	7.3	1.1	.87	7.2	1.2	.81
<i>Instruction</i>	7.3	1.1	.91	7.3	1.2	.86
<i>Management</i>	6.7	1.1	.90	6.7	1.2	.86

In Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing and elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.

The Cronbach alpha co-efficient of TSES for the present study has been determined as 0.89 for this study. Similarly, the Cronbach alpha values for the sub-scales have been calculated as 0.84 for engagement, 0.88 for instruction and 0.87 for management for this study.

The second research instrument employed in the study which is Digital Literacy Scale (Ng, 2012) consists of 17 items with a four-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 4, which indicate the participants degree of proficiency for each item (1-not proficient, 2-somewhat proficient, 3-proficient, 4- very proficient). The scale has been validated by two experts in ICT education (Ng, 2012). The Cronbach alpha reliability co-efficient of the scale has been calculated as 0.86 for the present study which means that the reliability of the scale is high (Üstündağ, Bahçivan & Güneş, 2017).

### Data Collection & Analysis

Data was collected over a three-month period between March and June, 2019. While some participants responded to the scales online via Google Forms, some of them took the paper version. Oral or written consent of the participants was taken prior to the implementation of the scales. The quantitative data was processed via SPSS software. In order determine whether to conduct parametric or non-parametric tests, the data was checked whether it had a normal distribution or not. Among other normality tests; e.g., Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Shapiro-Wilk test, another way to show that the research sample has a normal distribution is to have skewness and kurtosis values that are close to 0- between +4 and -4 (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Accordingly, the skewness (for Teacher Self Efficacy (TSE)=0.713, for Digital Literacy (DL)= 0.459) and kurtosis (for TSE= 0.228, for DL=0.320) values for the research sample of the study are within the acceptable limits for a normal

distribution. Based on this finding that the research sample meets the criteria for normal distribution, parametric tests; i.e., Pearson Correlation and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), were run to test the hypotheses of the study. The skewness and kurtosis values of the research sample are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: *The skewness and kurtosis values of the research sample for teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy*

	TSE*	DL**
<i>N</i>	100	100
<i>Mean</i>	81.68	53.64
<i>Median</i>	82.75	53.8
<i>Mode</i>	80.00	51.00
<i>Skewness</i>	-.713	-.459
<i>Std. Error of Skewness</i>	.241	.241
<i>Kurtosis</i>	.228	-.320
<i>Std. Error of Kurtosis</i>	.478	.478

\*Teacher self-efficacy \*\*Digital literacy

The study hypothesizes that there is a positive correlation between foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and their digital literacy. Pearson Correlation test was run in order to examine the relationship between the two variables, which is the first research question of the study. This test is used to test the degree and direction; i.e., positive or negative, of the correlation between two continuous variables which are teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy in this study.

The second hypothesis of the study is that foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy differ according to teachers' gender, experience, major, involvement in ICT training and the amount of time spent online. Therefore, MANOVA test was run to examine whether foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy differ according to the above-mentioned variables or not. MANOVA test is employed when there is more than one continuous dependent variable, and it has the power to explain whether multiple dependent variables differ according to various independent variables, i.e. groups (O'Brien & Kaiser, 1985). The continuous dependent variables are teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy while independent variables; i.e., groups that represent different dimensions, are teachers' gender, experience, major, involvement in ICT training, and the amount of time they spend online. The data meets the essential conditions to run a MANOVA test. To begin

with, skewness and kurtosis values are between -1 and +1 for each group representing independent variables. The skewness and kurtosis values for each group are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: *Skewness and kurtosis values of the groups related to the independent variables of the study*

	Gender	Experience	Major	Involvement in ICT training	Time spent online	
Skewness values						
TSE	Male	-0.096	1-5 yrs* -.493	ELT	Yes -.484	1-2 hrs** .029
	Female	-.967	5-10 yrs -.335	Others	No -.690	2-4 hrs -.855
			10+ yrs -1.097			4-8 hrs -.583
DL	Male	-.233	1-5 yrs -.135	ELT	Yes -.485	1-2 hrs -.388
	Female	-.382	5-10 yrs -.286	Others	No -.361	2-4 hrs -.535
			10+ yrs -.211			4-8 hrs -.271
Kurtosis values						
TSE	Male	-.810	1-5 yrs -.913	ELT	Yes -.526	1-2 hrs -.024
	Female	.907	5-10 yrs -.588	Others	No .124	2-4 hrs .366
			10+ yrs 1.040			4-8 hrs -.271
DL	Male	-.605	1-5 yrs -1.037	ELT	Yes -.707	1-2 hrs .035
	Female	-.535	5-10 yrs -.345	Others	No -.414	2-4 hrs .348
			10+ yrs -.799			4-8 hrs -1.067

\*years \*\*hours

The second condition for running a MANOVA test is a significant linear correlation ( $r=0.371$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) between the dependent variables that are teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy in this study. A third condition is the non-existence of a significant difference between the dependent variables. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was used to check if there is a significant difference between teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy and the test did not indicate a significant difference (for gender:  $p=.147$ ; for experience:  $p=.377$ , for major:  $p=.281$ ; for involvement in ICT-training:  $p=.126$ ; for time spent online:  $p=.138$ ;  $p>0.05$ ). Similarly, error variances of dependent variables are homogenous. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was run to compute error variances and they are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Error Variances based on Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	Gender	Experience	Major	Involvement in ICT training	Time spent online
	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>
TSE	.794	.985	.799	.414	.356
DL	.151	.127	.085	.216	.085

$p > 0,05$

Finally, each data is independent from the other and Wilk's Lambda statistics were used to determine to run one-way MANOVA on the data.

### Findings and Discussion

In this section, the findings are presented along with discussions based in the literature. The two research questions are based on the following hypotheses that are either confirmed or falsified depending on the findings.

- H. 1. There is a positive correlation between foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy. (Research question 1)
- H. 2. Foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy differ according to teachers' gender, experience, major, involvement in ICT training and the amount of time spent online. (Research question 2)

### The Relationship Between Foreign Language Teachers' Self-efficacy and Digital Literacy

In order to discover the answer to the first research question of the study, Pearson correlation test was run on the data that revealed a positive significant correlation between foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and their digital literacy ( $r=0,371$ ,  $p<0,01$ ), which is in accordance with the findings from other studies in the literature that point to a positive association between teacher ICT self- efficacy and self-efficacy in using ICT in teaching (Hammond et al, 2011; So et al., 2012; Teo, 2014; Hatlevik, 2017; Hatlevik & Hatlevik, 2018). The related findings are presented in Table 7.



Table 7: *The correlation between teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy*

		TSE	Digital Literacy
TSE	Pearson Correlation	1	.371**
	<i>p</i>		.000
	<i>N</i>	100	100
Digital Literacy	Pearson Correlation	.371**	1
	<i>p</i>	.000	
	<i>N</i>	100	100

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

This finding reveals that teachers with higher sense of self-efficacy also possess higher digital literacy. The more self-efficacious a teacher is, the higher digital literacy they have; and, the higher digital literacy a language teacher has, the more self-efficacious s/he is. Therefore, the hypothesis one that there is a positive correlation between teacher sense of self-efficacy and digital literacy has been confirmed.

### **How Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Digital Literacy differ according to Gender, Experience, Involvement in ICT-based Training, Major and the Amount of Time Spent Online**

In order to find the answer to the second research question of the study, one- way MANOVA test, the conditions of which were discussed in detail in data analysis, was run for each variable. No significant difference with regard to gender was observed according the findings ( $F(2-97) = 1.995, p > 0.05$ , Wilks'  $\lambda = .960$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .040$ ). Relevant findings are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: *Difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy based on gender*

Dependent Variable	Gender	<i>n</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
TSE	Male	27	80	11.30	1-98	.820	.367
	Female	73	82	10.93			
DL	Male	27	55	7.01	1-98	1.692	.196
	Female	73	52	9.7			

In accordance with this finding, Ekşi (2011) also found no significant difference in foreign language teachers' ICT self-efficacy and digital literacy in terms of gender. However, the findings indicated a significant difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy corresponding to their experience levels ( $F(4-192) = 2.683, p < 0.05$ , Wilks'  $\lambda = .897$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .053$ ). Results from one-way MANOVA are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: *Difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy based on teachers' experience levels*

Dependent Variable	Experience	<i>n</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Teacher Self-Efficacy	1-5 years	14	82.71	10.93	2-97	.203	.817
	6-10 years	46	82.08	10.58			
	10+ years	40	80.85	11.75			
Digital Literacy	1-5 years	14	58.92	6.41	2-97	5.360	.006
	6-10 years	46	54.71	7.97			
	10+ years	40	50.55	10.23			

The findings did not indicate a significant difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy based on teachers' majors, either ( $F(2,97) = 2,459, p > 0,05, \text{Wilks}'\lambda = .952, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .048$ ). Majors other than ELT have been categorized as others which included majors, i.e., American Language and Culture Studies, Translation Studies, English Language and Literature, Linguistics and others. The study aimed to examine whether being trained as an English language teacher made a difference in teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy; however, the findings showed that it did not. Relevant findings are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: *Difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy based on teachers' majors*

Dependent Variable	Group	<i>n</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
TSE	ELT	65	80.38	11.01	1-98	2.60	.110
	Other	35	84.08	10.78			
DL	ELT	65	54.16	8.23	1-98	.617	.434
	Other	35	53.64	10.74			

One-way MANOVA was also run to determine whether teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy differed based on teachers' involvement in ICT training activities. Consequently, a significant difference related to teachers' involvement in ICT training activities was observed according the findings ( $F(2,97) = .8924, p < 0.05, \text{Wilks}'\lambda = .845, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .155$ ). The figures are presented in Table 11.

Table 11: *Difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy based on teachers' involvement in ICT training*

Dependent Variable	Group	<i>n</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
TSE	Yes	28	85.03	9.27	1-98	3.702	.057
	No	72	80.37	11.42			
DL	Yes	28	59.35	6.88	1-98	17.700	.000
	No	72	51.41	9.00			

Similarly, the findings revealed a significant difference based the time teachers spend online ( $F(8-186) = 2.370$ ,  $p < 0.05$  Wilks'  $\lambda = .897$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .093$ ). Relevant findings are presented in Table 12.

Table 12: *Difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy based on the time teachers spend online*

Dependent Variable	Group	<i>n</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
TSE	1-2 hrs	25	78.60	10.02	4-94	.982	.421
	2-4 hrs	49	82.16	10.63			
	4-8 hrs	14	85.50	9.71			
	12+ hrs	2	79.0	21.21			
	Less than an hour	9	80.66	15.14			
DL	1-2 hrs	25	51.56	8.15	4-94	4.407	.003
	2-4 hrs	49	54.12	8.79			
	4-8 hrs	14	59.85	5.36			
	12+ hrs	2	56.0	18.38			
	Less than an hour	9	45.33	10.39			

It can be concluded that foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy differ based on teachers' experience levels, involvement in ICT-training and the time they spend online; however, their gender and majors do not make a significant difference in their teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy. Therefore, it can be argued that ICT-based professional development activities and spending time online can foster foreign language

teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy; however, formal teacher training alone does not make a significant difference in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy. Similarly, the finding that teachers' experience levels make a significant difference in their self-efficacy and digital literacy may also imply that teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy are dynamic qualities which evolve and change over time rather than being fixed qualities that remain the same.

### **Conclusions and Implications**

This study focused on the relationship between foreign language teachers' digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy. Findings revealed a positive significant correlation between teachers' digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy, which means that higher digital literacy means higher teacher self-efficacy and vice versa.

This study also aimed to understand how foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy differ based on gender, experience, majors, involvement in ICT training and the amount of time spent online. Results indicated that foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy significantly differ based on teachers' experience levels, involvement in ICT training and the amount of time spent online. However, foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and digital literacy do not differ significantly based on their gender and majors. Time spent online was found to be determinant of teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy. In other words, spending time online makes a difference in their self-efficacy and digital literacy. This is probably a consequence of their increased familiarity with accessing, choosing and using digital tools and feeling more confident to use these tools in their teaching, which lead to greater self-efficacy.

In the light of these findings, a number of suggestions can be made for foreign language education policy-makers, administrators and teacher educators. To begin with, the emphasis on enhancing digital literacy can be increased in ICT-based teacher training programs by highlighting the role of spending online time in teacher self-efficacy and digital literacy. Secondly, school administrators may prioritize providing more space for teachers' access to the Internet and digital tools so that they can increase their level of digital literacy, and; thus, teacher self-efficacy. Finally, policy-makers can ensure that continuous support to engage teachers with the digital tools is provided both during pre-service and in-service foreign language teacher education so that teachers' digital literacy will catch up with the

rapidly changing digital world, which also ensures that teacher self-efficacy will also remain high.

The study also has its limitations. Firstly, this study was conducted with 100 participants from Turkey. Further research on the study variables and their relationship with digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy can be conducted with larger samples in geographically and culturally various research contexts, which may yield different results. Secondly, this study is a cross-sectional, quantitative study. Therefore, further studies could be conducted with longitudinal, qualitative research designs that may provide a more comprehensive account of the connection between digital literacy and teacher self-efficacy. These further studies may yield richer results related to the impact of ICT-training or teachers' majors and other variables. Finally, this study focused only whether the participants were involved in ICT-based professional development activities or not. Therefore, further research with more specific categories related to teachers' involvement in ICT-based teacher training could be designed so that the effectiveness of these ICT-based teacher training programs can be evaluated.

### **The Research and Publication Ethics Statement**

The author declares that data for the study was collected between March and June 2019 as also indicated in the study. Therefore, Ethics Committee Approval is not an obligation for this study.

### **The Conflict of Interest Statement**

In line with the statement of Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), I hereby declare that I had no conflicting interests regarding any parties of this study.

### **Contributions of authors**

The author has designed the research project and collected data via research instruments. Data analysis was carried out with the help of another colleague, Gülfem Dilek Yurttaş Kumlu.

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## Using Blog-based Peer Comments to Promote L2 Writing Performance

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### Abstract

This research aimed to understand to what extent 24 freshmen students registered in an online academic writing course provided peer comments in a blog-based writing setting and whether there was a significant difference in the proportion of L2 writer's peer comment types. Data included students' blog-based peer comments on their friends' written drafts produced in three different writing genres: expository, data-commentary, and argumentative. Frequency analysis and Chi-square test of independence and for goodness-of-fit were used to analyze peer comments. Results revealed that L2 writers provided online peer comments more on global areas than those on local areas across writing tasks and between the drafts in all tasks. There was a significant difference in the proportion of global and local areas of L2 writers identified in the first drafts of three writing tasks and a significant decrease in the provision of global and local comments from the first task to the final. This study provides implications for L2 academic writers and writing instructors concerning the use of blog-based peer comments and their types in the process of an academic writing course, where L2 writers experience blog-based academic writing and peer comment exchange in the light of training they have received.

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**Keywords:** Online peer feedback; blogs; L2 writing; peer comment

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## Introduction

In the context of higher education especially in English Medium Instruction settings, the use of peer and collaborative feedback is becoming widely popular in academic writing practices. Despite the practice of peer-feedback in writing courses, the wide use of technology and the context of the current global pandemic have recently changed the settings where students experience the L2 writing process. The use of web-based applications for peer-comments has brought a renewed attention to L2 collaborative writing (Elola & Oskoz, 2017) and online feedback exchange among writers. The traditional written feedback coming mostly from teachers and face-to-face peer-feedback have both taken on a new social dimension with the use of online writing settings such as blogs (Elola & Oskoz, 2017; Guardado & Shi, 2007).

There has been a growing body of research in the literature on peer-feedback primarily exploring different aspects of peer-feedback and its contribution to L2 writers' writing development (e.g., Chen, 2010; Hu & Lam, 2010; Ruegg, 2014; Zhao, 2010). There are studies as well that have been conducted to examine how peer-feedback works in the new online social settings (AbuSeileek & Abualsha'r, 2014; Ciftci & Kocoglu, 2012; Jin & Zhu, 2010). However, further research is required to fully conceptualize the nature of peer-feedback provided in online settings, how students experience peer-feedback in the online settings, and how peer-feedback affects L2 writers' revision process and written products (Leijen, 2017; Yu, Lee & Mak, 2016). In the writing practices where students are encouraged to employ peer-feedback, students are guided or trained by instructors on providing peer-feedback with the hope that peer reviewers could provide feedback in good quality that could help each other improve their writing content and accuracy. Peer-feedback or comment exchanges in an online collaborative setting as a new social writing environment is still new to instructors and students as well as researchers and thus, it is necessary to understand the nature and types of feedback provided by students in writing settings, whether the feedback provided by students changes during the training they have received or depending on their increased experience on academic writing (Pham & Usaha, 2016). A few previous studies (Pham & Usaha, 2009; 2016; Rahimi, 2013) that focused on the comment types (global or local areas) suggested further investigation of blog-based peer comment experiences of EFL learners in a distinct context with two purposes: to understand (1) the nature of online peer comment exchanges experienced by L2 writers, and (2) the effectiveness of the blog-based peer comment training in helping L2 writers in providing global comments in good quality.

In order to contribute to the growing body of knowledge corresponding to the use of web-based technology in providing peer-feedback and supporting the field in the effective use of peer-feedback by L2 writers, this study aims to investigate the nature of peer comments provided by peer-reviewers. The study specifically focuses on what types of blog-based peer comments, local (e.g., mechanics and word choice) or global (e.g. organization and content), EFL writers provided on their classmates' written drafts and whether the nature of the comments provided changed depending on the drafts they produced in three different writing tasks on three genres. The student writers of the present study have experienced academic process writing in online settings (blogs) and practiced academic writing in a culture where peer-feedback is not or rarely introduced in instructional settings before higher education. All of the participants in this study had their first experience in providing peer comments by using different feedback areas and doing this in an online collaborative setting. Therefore, the motivation and experience of students in using online peer comments as the result of the training they have received are substantial to explore and report.

### **Literature Review**

Peer-feedback in L2 writing has been considered as a salient feature of the process writing approach (Cao, Yu, & Huang, 2019; Hyland & Hyland, 2006) that shifted L2 writing from the finished text to the process in which writing is performed. Recent research in peer-feedback has primarily centered on exploring different aspects of peer-feedback such as instructional, sociocultural, and cognitive benefits of peer-feedback (Hu & Lam, 2010; Yu et al., 2016; Zheng, 2012) and the effectiveness of peer-feedback in L2 writing development (Chen, 2010; Ruegg, 2014; Zhao, 2010).

Despite the existence of these studies in the field that examined the effect of peer-feedback in L2 writers' writing development, the use of online peer-feedback in collaborative writing environments is still a growing trend that is believed to bring positive learning effects on L2 writing (Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Yu & Lee, 2016). Technological advances, specifically web-based technology, have changed the application of peer-feedback in the L2 writing context to be more accessible. In addition to sharing their writings with others in collaborative writing settings such as in blogs, L2 writers additionally have had the opportunity to interact with their readers by receiving e-feedback from them. Studies comparing online peer-feedback with face-to-face feedback reported the benefits of online peer-feedback in providing a less threatening environment that encourages more equal participation (Ho & Sauvignon, 2007) and providing students with

interaction (Chang et al., 2011; Micelia, Murraya, & Kennedy, 2010). Other relevant studies (AbuSeileek & Abualsha'r, 2014; Ciftci & Kocoglu, 2012) undertaking the impact of online peer-feedback on text revisions and students' writing performance reported that L2 writers demonstrated better writing performance compared to traditional peer-feedback. In their studies exploring students' motives and stances on peer-feedback in L2 writing, Jin and Zhu (2010) emphasized the motivating nature of online peer-feedback in enhancing students' awareness of the audience and the importance of revision by reducing their stress and cultivating positive attitudes toward writing.

Peer-feedback research in recent years has also addressed the role of training in the effective use of peer feedback and the effects of this training on students' revisions and writing quality (e.g., Hu & Lam, 2010; Rahimi, 2013; Yang & Meng, 2013). Some of these studies examined the effects of online peer-feedback training. To exemplify, in their studies exploring the effects of online peer-feedback training on EFL university students, Yang and Meng (2013) found that training in the use of peer-feedback helped especially the less proficient writers in improving their peer-feedback practice and writing skills. Similarly, Rahimi (2013) investigated the effects of online peer-feedback training on the quality of feedback, revisions, and writing in the long run. They reported that trained students shifted their attention from formal aspects of writing (e.g., mechanical problems) to global comments (writing organization and content improvement) after training. In the long run, these trained writers made significant improvements in their writing in terms of quality. In their studies in which they examined the differences between global and local comments of peer reviewers, Pham and Usaha (2016) confirmed the effectiveness of the blog-based peer comment training in helping peer reviewers to provide more comments on global areas than on local areas, however, the participants in this study made revisions mostly independent of peer comments. In the revised parts, they relied on the global peer comments revisions at higher levels rather than the local level of revisions.

Despite the existence of these studies emphasizing the prominence of peer-feedback training and to what extent blog-based peer response helps writers to improve their writing quality (e.g., Leijen, 2017; Nguyen, 2012; Pham & Usaha, 2016), future research is still required in exploring collaborative online writing settings and peer comment experiences of EFL writers in online settings to understand (a) the nature and types of online peer comment exchange and, (b)

the effectiveness of the blog-based peer comment training in helping L2 writers provide comments in good quality.

The literature also suggests that the exploration of this revision process should be described further considering the training and guidance L2 writers experienced during the academic writing process (Pham & Usaha, 2009; 2016; Rahimi, 2013). The previous studies (Pham & Usaha, 2009; 2016; Rahimi, 2013) that examined whether students provided more global or local comments during the peer response activities revealed that peer reviewers in online writing settings focused more on global areas in providing feedback than those on local areas in online settings. These relevant studies conducted with a specific group of EFL writers in a specific context suggest further investigation of blog-based peer comments experiences of EFL learners in a different context to understand the nature of online peer comment exchange followed by a blog-based peer comment training. Following these suggestions, this present study explores to what extent L2 writers provide comments by their types on their peer's written drafts in a blog-based writing setting supported by process-based academic writing and peer feedback training and whether there are any differences in the types of peer comments they provided. The study specifically aims to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent do L2 writers provide peer comments on global and/or local areas in a blog-based writing setting?
2. Is there a significant difference in the proportion of L2 writers' peer comments on global and local areas across three writing tasks?

## **Methodology**

### **Participants**

Our participants were 24 freshmen students registered in an online academic writing course offered in an English Language Teacher Education program in Turkey. The language proficiency level of students when they started their departmental programs was upper-intermediate (B2) according to the Common European Framework Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). All 24 students consented to participate in the study.

## Setting

This study was undertaken in an academic writing course offered in the English Language Teacher Education program at a university in Turkey in the second semester of the first year when all 24 students had already taken one semester of academic writing course, in which they practiced the fundamentals of writing such as paragraph analysis and writing. In the second semester 14-week long course, the course instructor employed a process-based writing approach by which students completed three writing tasks on three different writing genres following the linear writing procedure in Figure 1: data commentary, expository, and argumentative writing. In addition to the development of academic writing skills, this second writing course aimed to improve self- and peer revision skills with the use of digital blogging.

## Data Collection and Procedures

During the 14-week long academic writing course, L2 writers in this study completed three writing tasks in a blog writing setting. During each task, they produced three drafts for each writing genre (total nine drafts) but provided online peer comments only to their friends' first and second drafts written and revised for each task. Peer comments were provided under the blog entries in the blog setting. Data in the current study includes these peer comments students provided on the first and second drafts.

## Blog writing and peer response training

At the beginning of the writing course, the course instructor conducted a training session in which students learned how to set up their writing blogs via WordPress (<https://wordpress.com/>), practiced on blog entries and online peer feedback exchange in a blog setting. Before each online writing task, the students had a class meeting with the course instructor for 2 hours in which the instructor delivered explicit instructions on each writing task, genre and peer review process, and materials they needed to follow during the writing task.

The course instructor guided the students through the entire process to read and provide online feedback on their friends' written works. Figure 1 illustrates the linear procedure followed in the course to supply an online writing context and a collaborative peer revision. After the first drafts for the first writing genre (expository) were posted on the blogs (See Figure 2 for a sample blog post) for peer revision, students read their friends' drafts and provided online comments on the drafts they selected by using peer evaluation rubrics (See Appendix A) and a peer revision guideline (See Appendix B) designed by the course instructor. Following the online peer-feedback

they received from their classmates, students revised their papers and shared their revised drafts on their writing blogs to receive peer and teacher feedback one more time. This procedure was repeated for each writing task on the following two genres: data-commentary and argumentative (See Figure 1). The rubrics were structured under three categories referring to both global and local writing issues. The global areas refer to the content and organization of the drafts while the local areas are on mechanics, word choice, spelling, punctuation, transitional signals, and text citation and reference based on APA style. Supporting these items in the rubric, peer review guidelines included five questions for students to comment on during their peer revisions.

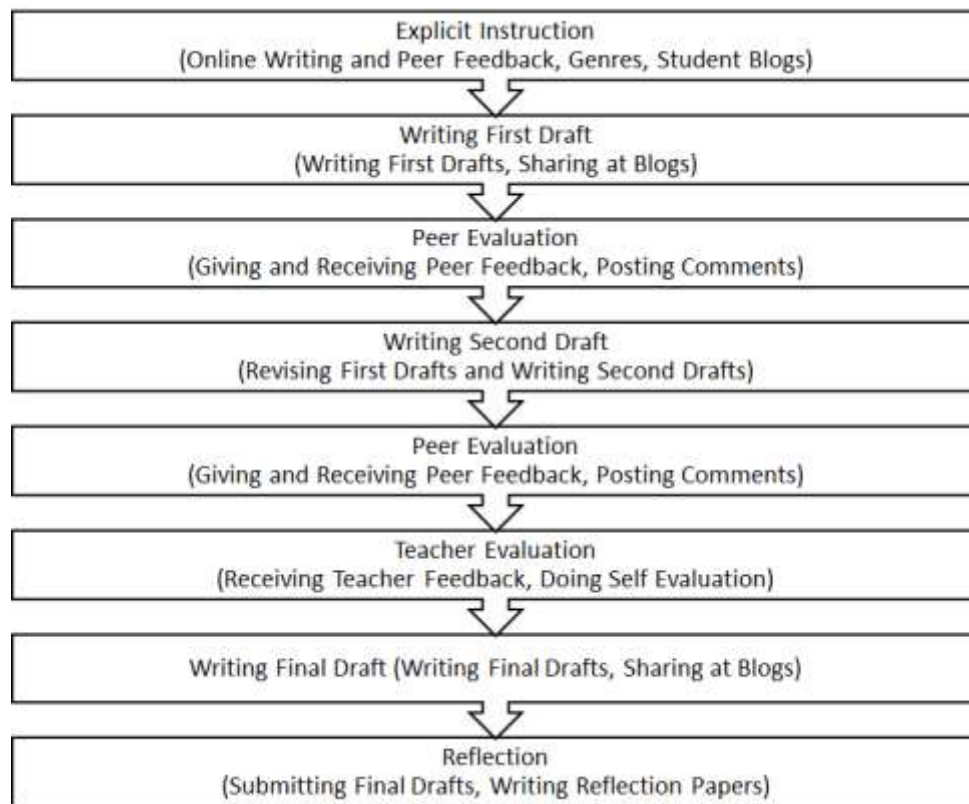


Figure 1. The linear writing procedure for each task.



Figure 2. Sample blog post.



Figure 3. Sample peer-comments in blogs.



## Data Analysis

To answer the research questions, quantitative analysis was performed. Concerning the first question, the number of peer comments by their types as global and local areas was counted (See Table 1 for the global and local areas in the coding of peer comments). Comments that addressed content and organization of the written drafts were categorized as global while comments addressing mechanics, word choice, spelling, punctuation, and transitional signals were categorized as local (Pham & Usaha, 2016). Each sentence in each peer comment submitted for first and second drafts was coded using the subcategories for each comment area, global and local (See Figure 4 for a sample coding of peer comments). Then, frequency analysis was run to get the ratios of peer comments across the local and global areas. To answer the second research question, the Chi-square test of independence for both categorical data, local and global areas in first and second drafts, and the Chi-square test for goodness-of-fit was calculated to compare the frequency cases found in two categories; first and second drafts of the essays separately.

Table 1: *Global and Local Areas in the Coding of Peer Comments*

Global areas	Local areas
(1) Content (sufficient background information, descriptions, exemplifications, details, counter arguments (if any) and support/evidence)  (2) Organization (displaying unity, progression, ad coherence)	(1) Mechanics (2) Word choice (3) Spelling (4) Punctuation (5) Transitional signals (6) APA style (in-text citation and references)

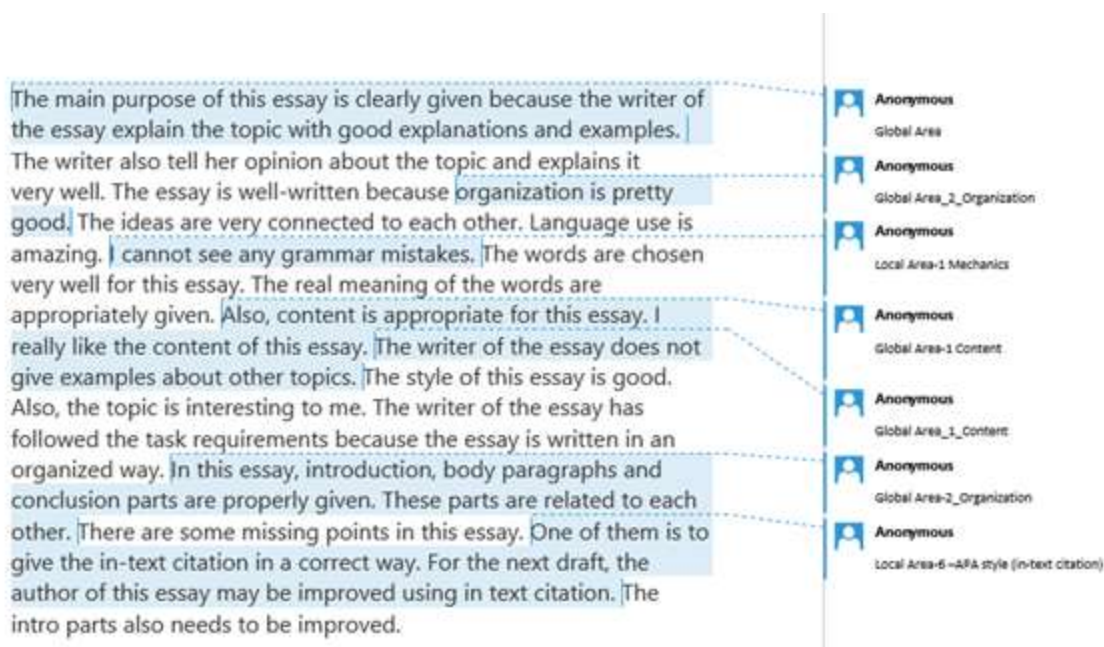


Figure 4. Sample coding of peer comments

## Results and Discussion

### Research Question 1

Research question 1 was intended to explore to what extent L2 writers provided peer comments by their types on their classmates' written drafts. As seen in Table 2, L2 writers provided comments both in global areas and local areas in the first and second drafts written in three genres (data commentary, expository and argumentative). They provided 625 peer comments in total on the data commentary drafts, the first genre in the peer commenting process. On the first and second drafts, there were 432 (69.1%) comments in total addressing global areas, and 193 (30.9%) comments to local areas. The students were able to provide more comments to both first and second drafts in the global areas compared to local areas. However, the total number of peer comments for the expository writing was 327, which was slightly above the half of the total comments in data commentary writing. Very similar to the total numbers in data commentary writing, the students provided more comments on global (271, 82.8%) than local areas (56, 17.2%) in expository writing. In the argumentative writing as the third and final genre of the writing cycle, the students provided 150 comments in total, which shows that there was a decrease in the total numbers of peer comments in both areas: 112 (74.6%) in global areas, 38 (25.4%) in local areas. To

summarize, L2 writers provided online peer comments more on global areas than those on local areas across writing tasks and between first and second drafts of all three writing tasks.

Table 2: Total Numbers and Percentages of Peer Comments

<i>Writing tasks on three different genres</i>	Peer Comments				
	Global Areas		Local	Areas	Total
<i>(1) Data Commentary</i>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	
First Draft	208	57,6	153	42,4	361
Second Draft	224	84,8	40	15,2	264
Total	432	69,1	193	30,9	625
<i>(2) Expository</i>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	
First Draft	134	82,7	28	17,3	162
Second Draft	137	83	28	17	165
Total	271	82,8	56	17,2	327
<i>(3) Argumentative</i>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	
First Draft	46	80,7	11	19,3	57
Second Draft	66	70,9	27	29,1	93
Total	112	74,6	38	25,4	150

Note: Global areas (content and organization); local areas (mechanics, word choice, spelling, punctuation, transitional signals, in-text citation and references based on APA style).

## Research Question 2

Research question 2 aimed to investigate whether there was a significant difference in the proportion of L2 writer's peer comment types provided in a blog-based writing setting. The Chi-square test of independence for both categorical data which were local and global areas in first and second drafts was calculated. The Chi-square test for goodness-of-fit was also employed to compare the proportion of both categories from a sample with hypothesized values. The Chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a significant difference in the proportion of global and local areas of L2 writers identified in the first and second drafts of data commentary essay, with the chi-square value  $\chi^2(1, n = 625) = 52.915, p < .001$  (significant  $p < .001$ ). The chi square test for goodness-of-fit was calculated to compare the frequency cases found in two categories; first and second drafts of the data commentary essays separately. The Chi-square value for the first draft of data commentary was  $\chi^2(1, n = 361) = 8.380, p < .004$ , which shows that there was not a significant difference between global and local comments provided for the first

draft of data commentary. However, there was a significant difference in the second draft with the chi-square value  $\chi^2(1, n = 264) = 128.242, p < .001$ .

The Chi-square test of independence indicated that there was no significant difference in the proportion of global and local areas of L2 writers identified in the first and second drafts of expository essay, with the chi-square value  $\chi^2(1, n = 327) = 0.0058, p > .001$  (significant  $p < .001$ ). The Chi-square value for the first draft of expository was  $\chi^2(1, n = 162) = 69.358, p < .001$ , which shows that there was a significant difference between global and local comments provided for the first draft of expository. There was also a significant difference in the second draft with the chi-square value  $\chi^2(1, n = 165) = 72.006, p < .001$ .

The Chi-square test of independence indicated that there was no significant difference in the proportion of global and local areas of L2 writers identified in the first and second drafts of argumentative essay, with the chi-square value  $\chi^2(1, n = 150) = 1.769, p > .001$  (significant  $p < .001$ ). The Chi-square value for the first draft of argumentative was  $\chi^2(1, n = 162) = 69.358, p < .001$ , which shows that there was a significant difference between global and local comments provided for the first draft of argumentative. There was also a significant difference in the second draft with the chi-square value  $\chi^2(1, n = 93) = 16.355, p < .001$ .

The Chi-square test of independence was calculated to see the difference across writing tasks in the provision of global and local areas. The Chi-square test of independence indicated that writing tasks and peer comment types were dependent on each other, with the chi-square value  $\chi^2(2, n = 1102) = 21.131, p < .001$ . The chi-square for goodness-of-fit value for global areas across three writing tasks was  $\chi^2(2, n = 815) = 188.467, p < .001$ , which shows that there was a significant decrease in the provision of global comments from the first writing task to final writing task. The chi-square for goodness-of-fit value for local areas across three tasks was  $\chi^2(2, n = 287) = 150.232, p < .001$ , which shows that there was a significant decrease in the provision of local comments from the first writing task to the final task.

Questioning what types of comments under global and local areas student writers mostly attempted to provide for the drafts, the frequencies of peer comments for each subcategory were calculated. As Figure 5 shows, the most frequent level of peer comments in total occurred at the content ( $n=228, 31.6\%$ ) in global areas, APA style (in-text citations and references) ( $n=197,$

27.3%) in local areas, and organization (n=190, 26.3%) in global areas, which included displaying unity, progression, and coherence. The mechanics (n=71, 9.8%) in local areas, and spelling (n=22, 3%) in local areas were among the peer comments which were less frequently provided by the students. However, punctuation (n=9, 1.2%), transitional signals (n=4, 0.5%) and word choice (non) were nearly the points that were disregarded by the students throughout the peer revision process.



Figure 5. Frequency of peer comments in global and local areas.

With regards to the percentages of the peer comments in global and local areas (Table 3), the most frequent comments in data commentary drafts on local areas were on mechanics (56.3%), spelling (63.6%), punctuation (33%), transitional signals (100%), and APA style (74%). The student writers did not put any comment on word choice in their peers' drafts in the blog setting. The frequency of the peer comments in global areas for data commentary essays were 44.7% on content, and 54.2% on organization. The frequency ratios of peer comments in expository drafts indicated that both global areas such as content (41.2%) and organization (39.5%), and local areas like mechanics (16.9%), spelling (31.8%), punctuation (55.5%), and APA style (17.2%) were highly reviewed by the students. The analysis revealed that students did not share any comment on local areas such as word choice and transitional signals. In the argumentative drafts, the students provided peer comments on content (14%), organization (6.1%), APA (9.1%), punctuation (11.1%) and spelling (4.5%) less than the peer comments in data commentary and expository writing.

Table 3: *Percentages of Peer Comments in Global and Local Areas*

Global and Local Areas	Peer comments in data commentary drafts		Peer comments in expository drafts		Peer comments in argumentative drafts		Total <i>n</i>
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	
Content	102	44.7	94	41.2	32	14	228
Organization	103	54.2	75	39.5	12	6.1	190
Mechanics	40	56.3	12	16.9	19	26.7	71
Word Choice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spelling	14	63.6	7	31.8	1	4.5	22
Punctuation	3	33	5	55.5	1	11.1	9
Transitional Signals	4	100	-	-	-	-	4
APA Style	145	74	34	17.2	18	9.1	197

*Note:* Frequency.

In Figure 6, the bar chart indicates the ratios of peer comments in data commentary drafts. The peer comments were on APA style ( $n=145$ , 74%), content ( $n=102$ , 44.7%) and organization ( $n=103$ , 54.2%) with high ratios but these ratios decreased in expository (Figure 7) and argumentative (Figure 8) drafts. In the data commentary as the first writing task, students were expected to produce an advanced level data commentary text critically analyzing a topic and synthesizing the information from different sources. This first experience might have encouraged the students to focus on the organization of the data and content as well as in-text citations and references. In the expository and argumentative drafts, as seen in Figure 7 and 8, there was a decrease in peer comments in local areas such as mechanics, spelling, and punctuation. This might be because when writing their drafts, L2 writers paid attention to local areas, which led to receiving less local comments from their peers.

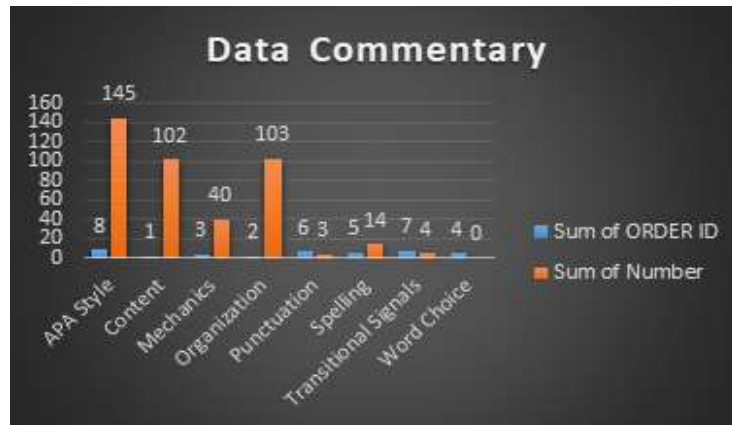


Figure 6. Types of peer comments in data commentary drafts.

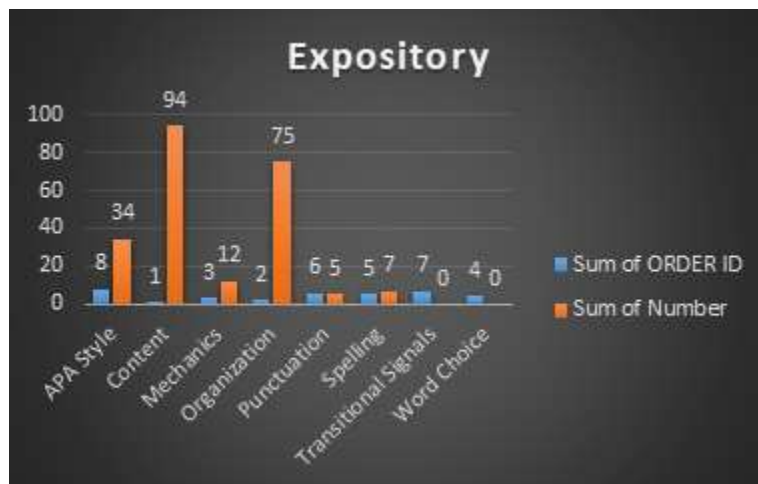


Figure 7. Types of peer comments in expository drafts.

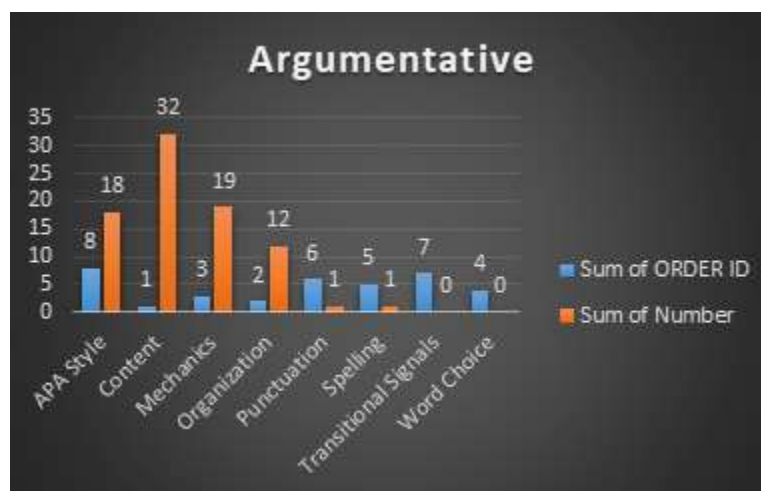


Figure 8. Types of peer comments in argumentative drafts.

To summarize, the quantitative analysis of the peer comments showed that there was a significant difference in the proportion of global and local areas of errors that L2 writers identified in the first and second drafts of the data commentary paper while there was a significant difference between local and global areas only in the first drafts in the following two writing tasks, expository and argumentative. There was a significant decrease in the number of both global and local comments from the first task to the final task. Although there was a decrease in both areas from the first task to the last, the analysis showed that students focused more on global areas than those of local areas during the blog-based peer review. This might be the effect of the writing task and guidelines provided to the students for the writing process. The peer-review rubrics might have led students to provide feedback on both global and local areas; however, referring to the main objective of the course and each writing task, students aimed overall to get familiar with the content of the writing genre and create a draft that meets the global areas of the writing task.

These findings are consistent with some findings of other relevant research (Min, 2006; Pham & Usaha, 2016) in which students also provided more global comments in their peer-reviews than local comments. In their studies, Pham and Usaha (2016) found that the students provided more comments on global areas than those of local areas and the significant difference of Draft 1 was higher than the Draft 2. They concluded that this might be an effect of the training given during the writing cycle similar to the present study. Similarly, in his study, Min (2006) claimed that the training L2 writers received on peer-review, writing task requirements, and peer-review rubrics students used might have led writers to focus more on global areas than on local areas. The process-writing and peer-review training our students received in our course and the guidelines and rubrics they have used to provide feedback might also have established a peer-review culture in this writing community, which contributed to the use of global comments substantially, as the global areas in the rubric such as content and organization had been emphasized more compared to the local areas and its subcategories.

Different from previous studies, this study showed that there was a significant decrease in the total numbers of peer comments in three different tasks in both global and local areas. This might be the result of L2 writers' increased experience in receiving and giving peer comments in a blog setting. As suggested by Min (2006) in his study, the training with the course instructor helped enhance the feedback culture of L2 writers who would not have known how to perform



peer review or refine their review comments. In this present study, the number of peer comments significantly and gradually decreased from the first task to the last one. Although the study does not examine the quality of revised student drafts, students could probably write well-organized academic essays even in their first drafts on the second and third tasks. Thus, they might have received fewer peer comments on both local and global areas. As they practiced the peer review several times for each task using peer review rubrics, this L2 writing and peer feedback procedure might have decreased the quantity of the peer feedback they provided and received.

Finally, the results showed that student writers less frequently commented on local areas including mechanics, spelling, and disregarded some other local areas such as punctuation, transitional signals, and word choice in the review process. Although student writers clearly stated the category of some local problems in their peer comments under the blog writings, this less frequent focus on local areas might be due to the nature of peer feedback experienced on online platforms such as blogs. Previous studies (e.g., Bilki & Irgin, forthcoming; Huang, 2016) investigating the effectiveness of blogs in writing and peer-feedback provision concluded that blogs provided writers communicative and creative platform to present themselves in a meaningful, collaborative, and authentic way; however, corresponding to providing peer comments, as seen in this present study, the blogs as online writing settings may have generated some limitations in providing comments in local areas compared to global areas. Blogs might have limited writers to leave their comments under the blog posts without making any in-text editing suggestions as usually experienced in a review on a Word document. Previous studies exist in comparing the provision of peer feedback in blogs versus on papers (Lira-Gonzales & Nassaji, 2019) and they conclude that both blogs and paper settings may inspire different types of errors, elicit different types and degrees of feedback, and lead to differences in subsequent revisions. However, there is a lack of research in the literature comparing the diverse writing platforms (e.g., blogs vs. Word documents) in terms of provision and efficacy of peer-feedback.

## **Conclusion**

This research examined to what extent 24 freshmen students registered in an online academic writing course provided peer comments by types as global and local areas in a blog-based writing setting and whether there was a significant difference in the proportion of L2 writer's

peer comment types. The quantitative findings of this research provided reassuring evidence that L2 writers gave and received peer-feedback in both global and local areas, and they learned how to provide blog-based peer comments in an online setting when they were provided proper training on it over a period of time, although they focused more on global areas than those of local areas in their peer-reviews. The results revealed that there was a significant difference in the proportion of global and local areas of L2 writers identified in the first drafts of three writing tasks on three genres and a significant decrease in the provision of global and local comments from the first task to the final.

The results of this research cannot be generalized due to the small number of students involved. However, it has significance in understanding the nature of peer comment provision in a blog-based writing setting, as it investigated the proportion of L2 writers' peer comment types in an online platform, which has recently gained increasing popularity in L2 writing practices. More research is required to examine to what degree L2 writers incorporate received comments into their revisions before and after training and whether the quantity and quality of received comments affect the quality of their writing and revision experiences in online settings. The comments incorporated into revisions were especially needed to be qualitatively investigated to understand why students attempted to focus on some feedback areas than the others and they selected to consider some comments for revision or not. The results of this study suggest that L2 writing instructors should be aware of the focus of the peer comment training process and should explicitly train L2 writers in the types and provision of comment areas in the writing practices experienced in a blog-based writing platform. This present study that presents a process-based writing procedure in an online setting can be an inspiration for writing instructors in building a blog-based writing course and peer review culture.

### **The Research and Publication Ethics Statement**

The ethics committee approval has been obtained from TED University (06/07/2020-1362).

### **The Conflict of Interest Statement**

In line with the statement of Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), we hereby declare that we had no conflicting interests regarding any parties of this study.

### **Contributions of authors**

Zeynep Bilki (Z.B.) and Pelin Irgin (P.I.) conceived of the presented idea. ZB and P.I. developed the theory and performed the computations. Z.B. and P.I. verified the analytical methods. Z.B. and P.I. contributed to the design and implementation of the research, to the analysis of the

results and to the writing of the manuscript. All authors discussed the results and contributed to the final manuscript.

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## APPENDIX A.

### Peer Evaluation Rubric

<b>Content, Organization &amp; Style</b>	<b>Extra</b>	<b>Good</b>	<b>Okay</b>	<b>Some</b>	<b>Lack</b>
The topic is explained and developed fully with sufficient exemplifications and/or details.	30	24	18	12	6
Information from different resources is critically analyzed, synthesized and integrated appropriately through quotations, summary or paraphrase.	20	16	12	8	4
Ideas are well-organized displaying unity, progression, and coherence.	20	16	12	8	4
Language is used effectively at an advanced level displaying various syntactic structures, appropriate vocabulary and only minor lexical and grammatical errors.	15	12	9	6	3
APA style is used accurately within both the text (in-text citations) and the references.	10	8	6	4	2
The file is named as required and the text has the required format.	5	4	3	2	1

## **APPENDIX B.**

### Guideline for Peer Comments on Writing Blogs (will be followed for each writing task)

1. Do you think that the main purpose of this essay is clearly given?
2. Have you found the essay well-written and understandable? If yes, what have you found particularly effective in the essay? (Content, language use, style, organization, etc.)
3. Do you think the writer of the essay has followed the task requirements?
4. Find at least three missing points in the essay that you think to be improved for better comprehension.
5. Write the possible missing points in the margins as areas for the writer to answer in the next draft.



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## **The Role of Extensive Listening in Raising Students' Metacognitive Awareness of Listening Skill**

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**Research Article**

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### **Abstract**

The triad purpose of the study was achieved via descriptive single case study with embedded units by using three data collection tools in phases. Preliminarily, the open-ended questionnaire collected from conveniently sampled 39 participants was administered to reach students' metacognitive awareness of listening skill. The initial analysis induced the researcher to employ podcasts as an extensive listening activity by having 4 voluntary students fill up reflective listening journals for each podcast with the aim of realizing the effect of extensive listening on learners' metacognition. Lastly, the focus group interview was conducted to solicit students' possible changing metacognitive views about listening skill in general and extensive listening in particular. As a result, students instructed on listening through the traditional way did not practice their listening outside the class. The dominant factors affecting listening comprehension respectively comprise scanty listening practice, unknown lexis, and unfamiliar background knowledge. The dominant strategies were identified as listening multiple times, raising concentration, taking notes, and looking up into dictionary. The participants also designated favourable metacognitive awareness towards the study per se, extensive listening, and general listening skill.

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**Keywords:** Foreign language listening skill; extensive listening; podcasts; listening journals; metacognitive awareness

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## **Introduction**

Listening skill, which is here typified as unidirectional or non-interactive listening to an audio-visual text, is one of the required abilities to achieve proficiency in a foreign language (FL, hereafter). In all the walks of life as in education, Brown (2007) claims listening to be the most effective medium of learning and schooling from birth through the years of formal education. Listening skill as a critical input would also cast a substantive influence in FL learning/acquisition (Dunkel, 1986; Krashen, 1995; Rost, 1994, 2002), which was corroborated with a positive connection of listening ability with general FL proficiency and oral proficiency skills (Feyten, 1991; Nord, 1977). However, Schmidt (2016) unravels that students have been rarely taught how to listen since teachers hold the assumption that listening can be acquired naturally, which does not happen as such. On the basis of its nature being implicit, variable, having blur word boundaries (Renandya & Farrell, 2010), transient and occurring within restricted working memory (Rost, 1994), requiring linguistic, sociolinguistic, and content knowledge (Call, 1985; Siegel, 2013), it is one of the least understood and probed area in language education and the most onerous skill for FL learners and instructors (Feyten, 1991; Thorn, 2009).

## **Literature Review**

### **Theoretical Framework**

Many studies and developments have emerged in the areas of cognitive and social/psychological dimensions of listening skill, methods of listening instruction compassing bottom-up or/and top-down processes, listening strategies, metacognitive knowledge and instruction, multimedia contours, academic listening, and listening assessment (Vandergrift, 2007). Out of the above foci of research, this research banks on the metacognitive perceptions of students on listening in light of three causes. Goh (1997) specified these causes as insights of students about problems and solutions in listening comprehension can affect their learning, getting their insights would provide their cognitive complexities, and eventually paucity of knowledge about the process of listening entails more investigations. The other research area is extensive listening (EL, hereafter) based on two theoretical underpinnings as symbolism and connectionism that underscore the frequent exposure of common linguistic items and implementations of linguistic norms on route to language acquisition, specifically listening comprehension (Hulstijn, 2003). Extensive listening can also be endorsed by skill learning theory. This theory has been thoroughly



discussed by DeKeyser (2007) who assert that slow and controlled bottom-up processing skills of linguistic components can be best automatized via recursive practice to engender “fully spontaneous, effortless, fast, and errorless” (p. 3) linguistic output. The value of extensive listening outside classroom has risen due to the growing trend attached to learner autonomy (Field, 2007), which is quite crucial in the global and digitalized, free, mobile, and self-accessed educational technologies to compensate instructional constraints as large classes, short class sittings, and institutional requirements not to mention political and survival issues of humanity as Covid-19 pandemic. Therefore, in the aftermath of the exploration of students' metacognitive awareness of listening, an intervention, that is extensive listening of podcasts, was employed to see a possible positive effect of extensive listening on students' metacognitive awareness of listening skill through reflective listening journals.

### **Review of Relevant Research**

A great number of studies can be categorized into two means of orientations; empirical and theoretical or pedagogical studies (Hasan, 2000). The descriptive works are imbued with explanations, theories, approaches, principles, and pedagogical assumptions about listening skill and listening lessons, yet these elucidations need to be examined and tested in the instructional settings. The empirical studies have handled learners' perceptions, comprehension approach, bottom-up activities, extensive listening, metacognitive listening strategies, teacher modelling (Siegel, 2013), factors affecting listening, strategies, background or prior knowledge (Hasan, op. cit.), academic listening, issues of listening pedagogy, phonological and lexical understanding (Field, 2008), and technological aids (Alm, 2013) This review of literature will outline the studies conducted on students' metacognitive awareness of listening including on problems and strategies and on extensive listening as an extra-curricular activity outside the classroom.

Learners' insights regarding their comprehension problems drew much attention in listening inquiries. Graham (2006), through questionnaire and interviews, explored that students' listening comprehension is the least achieved area in their language training due to the reasons of speed of the listening texts, notice of discrete words, and grip of the words. These results were also imputed to the students' low ability in listening and the intricateness of listening texts but not to the inadequate and inadvertent employment of listening strategies. Yagang (1994) associates the obstacles whilst listening to general sources as the message, the speaker, the listener, the physical contour, and process and task added by Rubin (1994). Out

of tens of micro-factors, the commonest specific factors can be aligned as speech rate, vocabulary, and pronunciation (Higgins, 1995). A study conducted in an ESL context via small group interviews and learner diaries reached the problems as vocabulary, prior knowledge, speech rate, type of input, and accent in order of mentioning frequency (Goh, 1999). Elsewhere, Goh (2000) detected 10 listening problems through learner diaries, small group interviews, and immediate retrospective verbalisations. Of these problems, forgetting what is listened, recognition of words, apprehending words but not the intended message, ignoring the remaining text when working on the meaning, and unable to construct mental images of words are the commonest listening problems. Moreover, both high-level and low-level listeners had problems in recognition of words and forgetting what is heard. However, while apprehending words but not the intended message was the third problem encountered by proficient listeners, low-level listeners experienced the problem of ignoring the remaining text when working on the meaning (Goh, *ibid.*). Likewise, in an EFL context via a questionnaire, Hasan (*ibid.*) evinced a number of problems at the levels of learner strategies, nature of the listening text, listening tasks, features of the speaker, and listener attitudes. Similarly, Flowerdew and Miller (1992) identified speed of delivery, new terminology and concepts, concentration problems, and physical vicinity as problems and pre- and post-lecture reading, peer or lecturer aid, raising concentration, note-taking, etc. as strategies.

As metacognition simply refers to one's reflectively thinking processes about cognitive processes (Flavell, 1979), metacognitive strategies, which are subsumed under learning strategies (Mendelsohn, 2006), are harnessed to control those cognitive processes (Goh, 2002). These processes involve *planning for listening, monitoring one's own comprehension, identification of comprehension problems and solving, and assessing one's comprehension* (Hinkel, 2006; O'Malley, Chamot, & Küpper, 1989; Vandergrift, & Goh, 2012). In a study conducted via listening journals and curated listening materials, Chen (2019) succeeded in helping students learn how to plan for their listening, monitor their comprehension, find solutions to listening problems, evaluate their approach and outcome. Furthermore, students in general had positive perceptions for listening journals, but some perceived keeping journals to be time-consuming. Goh (2002), in an exploratory study through retrospective verbalisations, brought forth forty-four listening tactics subsumed under cognitive and metacognitive strategies evenly. Elsewhere, Dunkel (1986) confers a number of theoretical principles rooted in comprehension approach and a set of pedagogical assumptions leant upon factors as listeners' prior knowledge and interests that can influence listening perception and consideration of needs in arranging listening activities. The significance of interest and world

knowledge led researchers to work on extensive listening that occurs outside the classroom in accordance with students' autonomous extra-curricular listening behaviours.

Extensive listening is tersely defined as an engagement into a lot of meaningful and comprehensible listening input for pleasure outside the classroom either by teacher directions or self-oriented (Renandya & Farrell, 2010). Extensive listening has been solemnly supported by Alm (2013), Chang & Millett (2014), Chen (2016), Gonulal (2020), Renandya (2012a, 2012b), Renandya & Farrell (2010), Renandya & Jacobs (2016), Ridgway (2000), and Schmidt (2016). To capsulize, Blyth (2012) adduces the views by alleging that EL provides experience to the learners and does not linger the time of improving comprehension; EL would not lead to fossilization of bad listening habits, implicit learning of listening skill would cultivate the autonomous and creative learners; and lastly, there is not any trustworthy data in favour of the instruction of explicit listening strategies. EL is deemed to be crucial in terms of technological developments and the presumption that language learning can only be achieved if it is directed outside the classroom to reach practical goal of any theorized practice of language practitioners as a reflection of practicality parameter in Gokmen (2020). Therefore, exhortation of the extensive listening outside the class via educational technologies deserves much attention, research, and improvement in this digital age and outside-the-classroom learning by keeping listening journals.

Internet embodies a wide range of audio-visual and written sources that help learning a FL in every topic and every level. Out of these MALL (Integrated Mobile Assisted Language Learning) materials, podcasting which is an audio or video RSS feed can be used as an efficient, flexible, portable learning tool that can outfit the language learners with authentic and prepossessing materials on a regular basis (Abdous, Camarena, & Facer, 2009; Schmidt, 2008; Stanley, 2006). Therefore, there emerged a number of studies on the usage and benefits of podcasts in language education (see Yeh, 2017). Of these studies, in a study conducted with 49 ELF students via log assignments, progress and proficiency tests, and questionnaire for a year to examine the potential of podcasting and vodcasting in furthering extensive listening, podcasts preferred more than vodcasting were discovered to be beneficial through extensive listening in promoting listening comprehension and specifically pronunciation skills and recognition of lexical items (Gonulal, *ibid.*). Inefficient usage of vodcasts in Gonulal (*ibid.*) led us to use podcasts in the current study. In an another research to entwine metacognition with EL via podcasts, Alm (2013), through personal blogs, a survey, and focus group interview documented on the usage of podcasts, blogs, and listening strategies, came up

with the conclusion that the blogs led students to guide their listening practice by having the freedom to select and order their listening materials in accordance with their listening experiences, interests, and needs which in return had a positive repercussion on their listening strategies. Similarly, Yeh (2017) investigated podcasts integrated into main course of English speaking and listening for extensive listening by means of questionnaire, podcast diaries, and observations of student project presentations. According to the results, students selected podcasts in concert with their interest and proficiency levels. They conceived podcasts to be useful and convenient in promoting language proficiency and world knowledge. Even though, they overall enjoyed the project due to the reasons of freedom of choice, meaningful practice, and integration with the syllabus, authentic input devoid of transcripts and fast delivery of speech were found to be problematic.

Another crucial tool in extensive listening and in metacognitive awareness is listening journals or diaries which are “an ongoing assignment through which students document their participation in out-of-class activities and reflect on how such participation helped them improve their listening abilities” (Gilliland, 2015, p. 13, quoted from Chen, 2019). Listening journals can be wielded as a pedagogical task and a research instrument to raise awareness in linguistic areas including Global Englishes as examined by Galloway and Rose (2014) and suggested by Goh (2000) as a third way of raising students’ reflective awareness of learning to listen. In another study, employing journals as a research and pedagogical tool to explore students’ material preference and listening problems, Chen (2016) explored that journals can serve as an efficient tool in understanding students’ extracurricular listening processes yet can also be completed inadvertently by less autonomous students.

### **Rationale of the study**

The knowledge about the process of FL listening and listening education are not sufficient despite the value granted on listening being one of the core lessons in FL education (Richards, 2005). By virtue of the conclusions drawn out of the studies reviewed above and more by Rubin (1994), further research needs to be conducted to detect and undergird the problems in both top-down and bottom-up processing and to discover newer strategies to promote strategy training, come up with more kinds of negotiations that ease comprehension. Following Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank’s (2008) surmise by getting support from Vann and Abraham (1990) that learners’ strategies need to be explored in a case study with a holistic lens by striving to answer the question of how and why students use strategies rather

than which ones and how many or often, we endeavoured to examine the usage of strategies by learners in a case study in the process of EL.

Two prime considerations have occupied the researcher. One is to explore the challenges in listening perception through learners' own conceptualizations and the other is to contribute to the students' listening achievement by raising their meta-cognitive awareness by means of extensive listening. Therefore, the objective of this study is to evaluate students' metacognitive awareness of listening skill before, during, and after the extensive listening of podcasts via listening journals.

## **Methodology**

### **Research design**

The theoretical background for the current study reposes on a case study which aims to explore a specific social or educational phenomenon such as an individual, a setting, a social group, an institution, a process, a program or an event (Duff, 2008; Yin, 2009). Considering the sheer focus of the current work leaning on describing extensive listening as a longitudinal process, this case study is descriptive single case with embedded units (Yin, 2009). The current study examining language learners' listening development through extensive listening embodies two-fold purposes which will respond to the following research questions:

1. What is the EFL learners' metacognition about listening skill including their listening challenges and strategies needed to handle in listening comprehension?
2. What are the participants' metacognitive perceptions about the extensive listening and its effect on listening development?

### **Setting and participants**

The setting of the current study is situated in the Translation and Interpreting (English) department in the School of Foreign Languages at a Turkish state university. Prospective participants were aimed to be language learners in this department yet excluding the last graders due to their proficiency level and intense workload in the last grade. In the incipient phase, the first three grades were selected as a population consisting of 172 students. Convenience voluntary sampling was opted for, and thereby 39 learners participated into the preliminary phase of the study. In the second phase, out of 39 participants, 4 intermediate-level second graders disguised by pseudonyms as Mütercim, GD, Witchxwin, and Princess were voluntary to proceed within the last stage. All these stages were conducted in the 2020-2021 academic year in the fall semester between 1<sup>st</sup> October and 30<sup>th</sup> December.

## **Data collection procedures**

As a result of review of criteria about the choice of research design and data collection tools (Siegel, 2015), out of many research tools as interviews, participant observation, target discourse analysis, surveys for needs assessment (Richards, 1983), and research journals and pre-/post-tests (Cross & Vandergrift, 2014), three data collection tools as open-ended questionnaire, reflective listening journals, and focus group interview were employed in the light of inextricable aspect of listening skill and the in-class or out-class activities; and to achieve the objectives of the study. Students had the choice of using either English or Turkish in all these data gathering tools. As a repercussion of mobile-assisted language learning, the usage of podcasts, reflective listening journals, and focus group interview via Whatsapp were all availed through either mobile phones or laptops.

### **Open-ended questionnaire**

The study was conducted in three phases. Preliminarily, as metacognitive perceptions cannot be observed directly, the open-ended questionnaires (see Appendix 1) were formed in a way of need analysis (Flowerdew & Miller, *ibid.*) to scrutinize learners' perspectives according to the factors as assessment of learner needs, isolation of micro-skills diagnostic testing, and formulation of instructional objectives (Richards, 1983). Six structured open-ended questions concocted as a corollary of the perusal of germane literature were inquired from 39 convenient and voluntary language learners so as to raise awareness in their self-assessments of their proficiency, their needs, interests, problems, their existent behaviour in listening, and their opinions for the listening lessons as an inspiration from Cross and Vandergrift (2014).

### **Podcasts**

On the basis of Rubin's (1994) research suggestion that research should be administered in longer periods as an inspiration of process-based listening by utilizing authentic listening sources, podcasts as extra-curricular listening activities were harnessed for 4 voluntary participants to listen extensively for 75 days. The audio texts from BBC channel can be subsumed under the sorts of authentic texts ranging from genuine, simplified, and elaborated texts (Rost, 2006). The podcasts "6-minute English" and "The English we speak" can be depicted as elaborated texts since a written transcript is provided and created for language learning (Rosell-Aguilar, 2007), whereas "Why factor" is a genuine audio text without any transcriptions or purpose of language teaching. The channels and topics were identified by the researcher so as to meet the three crucial criteria for EL: variety, frequency, and repetition

(Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) and Waring's suggestion (2008, quoted from Chen, 2019) that 90% of the content in extensive listening should be comprehensible. Only "Why factor" was between upper-intermediate and advanced above students' level which was aimed to meet i+1 principle.

### **Reflective listening journals**

In our study, during the process of extensive listening, the participants performed writing reflective listening journals (see Appendix 2). As listening journals should be provided with more structured template including questions to guide students in filling the required prompts (Schmidt, 2016; Wilson, 2003), listening journals were organized in agreement with this suggestion. Students were supposed to complete two sections for each podcast; challenges they encounter during listening and the strategies they employ to overcome those problems (Cross & Vandergrift, 2014). Problems and strategies being on the same report is of great significance since specific strategies cannot be deemed as independent of specific problems resulting into the usage of a particular set of strategies (Field, 2008).

### **Focus group interview**

In correspondence with the last data collection tool, out of numerous types of interviews, focus group and structured interview was consulted in a digital instant chatting platform as Whatsapp so as to have an interchange of ideas, questions, and suggestions in the discussions of overall findings, evaluation of the study, and perceptions of the listening skill with a holistic view. Whatsapp chatting program was preferred so as to save time of transcribing in case of audio-recorded interviews. The interview (see Appendix 3) was not administered in one-shot time but in a process subsequent to the analysis of the questionnaire and reflective journals.

### **Data analysis**

To ensure triangulation as it is required in a typical qualitative research (Stoynoff, 2004), three data gathering tools were utilized. The data and its interpretation were justified as such; the codes, in the first place, were determined in the responses as a result of multiple readings and underlining key words, phrases, or statements; and later these codes were matched to the issues in the literature according to their frequency of mentions to reach the adaptive emerging themes (Schreier, 2012). As a final step, two independent coders reanalysed the data and its interpretation and some minor changes were made.

Findings were presented by describing and interpreting both numerical and textual data, say quantitative and qualitatively, retrieved from the extracts from the questionnaire, the

reflective journals, and focus group interview. Frequency of mentioned problems and strategies in each section was aggregated quantitatively and content analysis of the pertinent statements was generated for qualitative data analysis so that we can reach either a convergence or divergence with the extant metacognitive inventories of problems and strategies in the literature.

The existing themes in the literature were later reformed in line with the emerging themes in the retrieved responses (see Appendix 4). The emerged overall metacognitive themes as a consequence of the above analysis encapsulate metacognition with regard to top-down/bottom-up skills and extensive listening as a listening strategy which were produced by following the inductive data analysis procedures proposed by Cross & Vandergrift (2014) and Thomas (2006, cited from Chen, 2019), that is, from raw data to themes through reiterative readings.

## Results

Findings elicited from the three data gathering tools were illustrated by describing the data devoid of any interpretation or convergence of codes into themes. The emerging themes in the findings will be conferred in the discussion part by referring to the relevant studies.

## Questionnaire

39 language learners attended the incipient part of the study and granted their responses to the open-ended questions. These responses were presented by the statistical and anecdotal outcomes. Tables show the incidences of responses to the questions by the participants.

Table 1. *Which skill (reading, listening, speaking, or writing) do you feel inadequate?*

Response patterns	N	%
Inadequate in speaking and listening	23	58,97
Inadequate only in speaking	6	15,38
Inadequate only in listening	6	15,38
Inadequate in reading and writing	3	7,69
Proficient in all skills	1	2,56
TOTAL	39	100

With respect to the first question about students' self-assessment of their proficiency in language skills as observed in Table 1, 23 students reflected they felt not proficient in speaking and listening skills. 12 students wrote that they were not proficient enough at either speaking or listening skill. 3 students wrote that they were not quite proficient in reading and writing skills. One student did not consider himself as bad in four skills. This designates that most of the students expressed not to be so expert in listening and speaking skills. This outcome justifies the value of the focus of this study on listening ability.



Table 2. *At which level do you think you are in listening skill? Elementary, intermediate, or advanced.*

Response patterns	N	%
Intermediate	29	74,35
Elementary	3	7,69
Advanced	2	5,12
Other intermediary levels	5	12,82
TOTAL	39	100

As indicated in their self-assessments in Table 2., 29 students identified their level in listening comprehension as intermediate, whereas 3 students estimated their level to be at elementary. Only 2 students considered their listening comprehension as advanced. Moreover, 5 students scaled their listening levels apart from the levels of listening ability in the question. The data retrieved from this question reflected that approximately 75% of participants defined their level in listening comprehension to be at the intermediate level, which is entailed to be raised and thus values the worth of the present study to a higher rung.

The third question was “How did your teachers instruct on listening courses?” which was rendered in an anecdotal narration. The responses can be rendered as such that listening lessons progressed in a way that teachers have students listen or watch audio-visual texts and then answer the questions, fill in the blanks, and write about the text. The texts which are conveyed on distinct topics as science, health, leisure time, etc. were provided by language practitioners with an increase in levels. Those courses also proceeded in an integrated way with speaking skill including presentation of students. 6 students evaluated this course not to be adequate due to excessive focus on speaking skill through presentation, and 8 students added that more extensive practice is needed on the part of students' own efforts. On the other hand, 2 students specified the course to be effective to contribute their professional development in listening since the course was dealing with all accents and dialects to recognize the words and the sounds. The all above views were assented by almost half of the students. The upshot above demonstrates that lessons flow in a traditional way and even in an integrated way with speaking skill, i.e., listening to audio texts and doing the comprehension questions, and hence confirms the assumption that listening lessons would not be effective and also justifies the involvement of EL into this study necessitated by one fifth of the participants.

**Table 3.** *What do you think about the factors behind the success or failure in listening comprehension?*

Response patterns	N
Lack of practice	19
Phonological issues	13
Unfamiliar words and topic	8
Concentration	7
Speech pace	5
Semantic knowledge of words	5
World knowledge	3
Other factors	9
No problems	4

As a caveat, the numbers in the table indicate the frequency of mentions rather than the number of participants. Therefore, percentage values were not displayed. 19 students ascribed the failure in listening only to a lack of listening practice regularly. 13 students more or less remarked that they have problems in recognizing the words precisely in terms of their pronunciation, which decreases their overall level of comprehension. 8 students prioritized both bottom-up and top-down factors in listening proficiency. That is to say, in terms of top-down factors, they denoted that the topic can be so complicated or boring that they can lose attention; and as for the bottom-up factors, discerning the accents, phonological matters, pronunciation, hearing the words, and recognizing the lexical chunks in the audio texts are problematic. 7 participants cannot and even lose concentration during listening activity. One of them even mentioned that “I understand the first three minutes, but later I lose both understanding and concentration”. Further, the speed of speech also affects students’ listening perception, e. g., 5 students noted that some speakers, specifically native speakers, speak so fast that it makes the text more incomprehensible since they cannot latch on to words all which are heard as conjunct. Only 5 students attributed the proficiency in listening skill to semantic factors as deficiency of lexical competence and recognising the words without amiss. 3 participants allegedly conferred that they did not perceive everything in the listening text especially due to the lack of real-world knowledge. Other 9 students identified some other factors as ability, memory, speaking and other skills, dialectical variety, syntactical complexity, education system, abroad residency, paying attention to topic in the audio text rather the words, and getting bored of listening. 4 participants also came up with outstanding comments, e. g., while one student stated to have no problem in listening, 3 of them did not know the problem in their listening and added that though they strived to improve it, they could not see any progress.

Overall, the data denotes while paucity of listening practice is the most pivotal factor, bottom-up factors as recognizing words in the spoken forms serves as a secondary agent in

achieving success in listening comprehension. Other factors especially a combination of unfamiliar lexis and world knowledge are also crucial and reflect the idiosyncratic factors that might depend on each individual. However, paucity of listening practice should be probed more from the participants and thus two more questions were also asked of them as demonstrated underneath.

Table 4. *What kinds of texts do you listen as an extensive listening?*

Response patterns	N	%
Movies, TV shows, series, programs, music	19	48,71
Various sources	18	46,15
Not listening	2	5,12
TOTAL	39	100

With regard to the fifth question displayed in Table 4, about 19 students avail of movies, TV shows, programs, and series, and music. However, the others with differing weight listen to various sources as documentaries in National Geographic, BBC radio for news, Ted talks, Youtube, etc. 2 students do not have any kind of extensive listening behaviour and even another student surprisingly thinks that watching movies have not contributed into her listening comprehension. The topics that students prefer to listen or watch have a vast range of topics from space to educational texts. To precis, almost all the students listen to materials out of their curiosity and interests both in terms of genres and the topics, which might be guided with an instructional purpose by the language practitioners.

Table 5. *How much time do you spend listening to audio-visual texts per diem?*

Response patterns	N	%
3-4 hours	4	10,25
1-2 hours	6	15,38
40 minutes	7	17,94
20 minutes	7	17,94
10 minutes	7	17,94
Less than 10 minutes	8	20,51
TOTAL	39	100

As demonstrated in Table 5, while 6 students notified that they practice their listening skill between 1-2 hours daily, 4 participants spend between 3-4 hours of their daily time in listening. This data evinces that only 10 students spare more than one hour to listening activities. The other 21 students have less than one hour of listening time. To give details of these numbers, 7 students have approximately ten minutes of listening practice, another 7 learners expend circa 20 minutes of their daily time in listening, and finally, again 7 language learners allot 40 minutes at large to their listening development per day. As a rundown of this data, it can be inferred that approximately 75% of the participants spend less than 40 minutes of their daily time to listening practice. Considering this finding with the other findings in the

previous questions, it underscores the shortage of meaningful listening time outside the listening instruction in the classrooms which possibly cannot contribute into listening development.

## Reflective Listening Journals

In reflective listening journals, students' problems and strategies were examined. In the illustration of the findings elicited from the journals, each student's journal was assessed separately by consulting the study by Yeldham and Gruba (2014) because we do not focus on these individuals, rather on the EL as a process that can be researched for a case study (Yin, 2009). Data were interpreted as a whole without rendering any details due to space limits.

Table 6. *Problems and strategies that participants confronted and utilized.*

		Frequency of mentions				
		Mütercim	GD	WitchXwin	Princess	TOTAL
Problems	Unfamiliar spoken forms of words	8	6	3	28	45
	Unfamiliar written forms of words	7	12	9		28
	Unfamiliar topics	10	9	1	3	23
	Speed of delivery	1	5	11	5	22
	Environmental factors			13		13
	Dialectical variants		5	6		11
	Multiple speakers	3				3
	Unknown metaphorical phrases	3				3
	Sentential structures				1	1
Strategies	Iterative listening	26	9	23	31	89
	Raising concentration		21	8		29
	Taking notes	13			4	17
	Looking up into dictionary		9	4		13
	Research topic	5	2	2		9
	Guessing the unknown words	4		5		9
	Raising or lowering the audio			5		5
	Stopping the audio-text while listening	3				3
	Peer aid			1		1
No problems	27	26	19	46		

### Participant Mütercim

Overall, Mütercim had both inadequate top-down and bottom-up micro-skills, and commonly employed listening multiple times as strategies. As corroborated by the quotes by Mütercim (27 times of mention), the familiarity of topics and recognition of spoken and written forms have a great influence in the comprehensibility of the texts:

*I could not recognize the words. As their spoken forms resemble to the words I know, I could give any meaning.*

*I did not have any difficulties because the texts embody familiar phrases and concepts.*

*While listening to audio texts, I had a familiar background knowledge regarding the topic at issue so I more or less guessed the content of the text.*

### **Participant GD**

All in all, the participant had adversities with employing both top-down and bottom-up skills and employed strategies as raising concentration, looking up into dictionary, and listening multiple times. Further, the participant did not have any problems in comprehension of 26 podcasts, and hence no exerted strategies. She mentioned 5 times that the text was comprehensible due to the familiar topic to her as can be seen in her statements as follows;

*It is a current issue. Therefore, it can be understood when listened carefully.*

*It is an interesting and always up-to-date topic. It was easy to understand.*

*This is an interesting topic, that's why I can easily understand it.*

*There were so many words I didn't know. Therefore, it was a little difficult to understand listening.*

### **Participant WitchXwin**

In general, the problems as environmental factors, speech pace, and unfamiliar words were dominant and listening multiple times, raising concentration, and guessing were amongst the strategies employed. In 19 mentions, he remarked not having comprehension problems. The reasons he purported for unproblematic comprehension were familiar topics (2) discussed in the podcasts and being accustomed to podcasts as stated in his quote “*I did not come across any problems probably due to being accustomed to podcasts*”.

As a sample quote to the problems encountered, he imparted “*even though the podcast was a well-constructed text and about a familiar topic, I had difficulty in perception due to the words that I could not understand*”. As an effect of the employed strategies, he disclosed that “*after listening the text twice, I realized that the text was not difficult at all*”.

### **Participant Princess**

In sum, the participant had complexities in recognizing spoken forms of words and listening multiple times as a strategy. However, she did not detect any problems as stated in 46 mentions due to familiar topic and words. For instance, she noted “*The speed of speech and pronunciation were good, I had no problems*”.

## Focus group interview

The questions in the interview sought the participants' views about the study, the possible contribution into their listening ability and general language proficiency, problems and strategies during listening acts, the future utilizations of EL and use of podcasts and reflective journals.

All the participants displayed favourable dispositions towards the study. Two of them have concurred that they would join such a study again in case of chance given. All the participants expounded that the study contributed a lot into their listening development and overall language proficiency. For example, WitchXwin reported that he virtually learnt multifarious words in various topics, not to mention the pronunciations of words.

The first and foremost problems and strategies in the listening comprehension were also inquired of the participants. Concerning problems, they mentioned of *speed of delivery*, *unknown written and spoken forms of words*, *unfamiliar topics*, *dialects and accents*, and *environmental factors*. With reference to strategies, GD, Princess, and Mütercim assented to use *iterative listening*. WitchXwin invariably preferred to use *dictionaries for unknown words*. As a quite summarizing quote, Princess notified that in case of a great number of unknown words in a text, she sticks to those words and thereby she misses the rest of the text, and as a solution she listened more than once, and again if the text is not clear, she made use of dictionaries as a last resort.

As the main goal of the study was to make students accustomed to EL and improve their comprehension. The question was: What sources would you avail of for daily listening activities if you continue EL? WitchXwin would do his listening daily and exploit IELTS mobile application. Princes would make use of BBC channel. GD cannot do this for some unknown personal reasons. Mütercim watches or listens TEDx talks. When the use of podcasts was inquired, all the participants continue listening to podcasts though not regularly.

Corresponding to their future use of extensive listening, they remarked that they would continue doing likewise in the years coming. For instance, Princess explained that the study was quite helpful, she realized her inadequacies, and she knows what to focus from then on. However, in terms of listening journals, WitchXwin would not prefer due to his workload, whereas GD, Mütercim, and Princess would utilize journals because they find them beneficial in terms of comprehending the texts and self-development.

The question "Which did you find most useful in the development of listening skills: listening lessons or extensive listening and why?" was also sought from the participants. All

the participants concurred on the efficiency of EL as opposed to listening lessons because extensive listening activities are test-free, less anxiety inflicting, more meaning-based, interest-oriented, motivating, without time limits, and beneficial.

### **Summary of the findings**

As a synopsis of all these findings, the predominant skills that students feel inadequate are speaking and listening. In terms of listening skill, the participants identified themselves to be at the intermediate level. The listening lessons, which about half of the participants were not gratified, were also progressed in a way of listening to texts and doing the pertinent follow-up exercises in integration with other skills. Commencing with the first research question, the most widespread problems that were confronted by the participants result from paucity of listening practice preceding inadequate bottom-up skills as unfamiliar spoken and written words and later top-down listening processes as unfamiliar world knowledge or topics. Other problems mentioned derive from concentration, speech pace, environmental factors, dialectical variants, etc. To overcome the challenges above, participants most frequently utilized iterative listening. The other strategies can be concatenated as raising attention, taking notes, usage of dictionary, research, and guessing unknown words.

All these findings as intermediate level listening proficiency, inadequate listening lessons, a broad range of problems in listening perception, and paucity of meaningful listening practice overall justifies the worth and involvement of EL into this study with the objective of improving listening comprehension which takes us to the response to the 2<sup>nd</sup> research question. EL, which is both lacking in students' listening behaviour and used as a strategy for listening growth, contributed into their listening proficiency along with students' favourable perceptions. Though not so interested in using listening journals, participants would continue listening extensively by means of podcasts. As an outside listening life, the language learners who predominantly made use of movies, music, TV shows, and other audio-visual recreational activities as an extensive listening before the study would continue listening extensively to more meaningful and teaching language-oriented audio-visual texts.

### **Discussion**

As an abstract of the findings, the fact that the participants have bottom-up processing as a primary problem and top-down processing as a subsidiary problem in listening and use of the replaying strategy more than other numerous strategies is the corollary of the traditional way of listening teaching in an intensive way in which listening practitioner invariably lets students listen to the text several times for a neat comprehension. Therefore, in light of the

triangulation of research methods, multiple readings of the findings, and the relevant outcomes in the literature, the data was converged under two metacognitive themes as metacognition about intensive listening embodying top-down/bottom-up skills and strategies and EL.

### **The first theme: Intensive listening**

As for the primary theme, it was discovered in the current study that the overriding skills that students think of themselves as insufficient are speaking and listening, and their listening proficiency was considered at intermediate level as a result of most of the students' self-assessments, which is in concert with the findings of Flowerdew and Miller (*ibid.*) whose participants self-rated their listening proficiency as 'good'. Even though such self-evaluation can be questioned, this self-assessment can indeed encourage students to delve into evaluation of their progress and bolster autonomous learning (Ross, 2005) not to mention the reliability of self-rating as so ascertained in recent studies (Dupuy, 1999). Learners' inadequacy in listening results from listening courses in which the participants conveyed that the listening lessons were implemented through the stages of listening to texts and doing the relevant follow-up exercises in integration with other skills. The secondary reason behind learners' inadequacy derives from the complexity of listening skill which learners conceive listening as a laborious skill (Graham, 2006) since a vast range of knowledge as linguistic and non-linguistic cues is entailed in listening comprehension (Buck, 2001) besides the required listening strategies.

While linguistic cues as sounds, words, clauses, and sentences are analysed in bottom-up processing to reach meaning in an audio text (Rost, 2002), top-down processing is administered by listeners via their knowledge of topic, overall knowledge of the world, generic comprehension of the text to achieve apprehension of the text (Buck, 2001). Our participants' being at the intermediate level and indicating the dominant focus on bottom-up information yet also use top-down sources as a secondary resource is in concert with the axioms of Field (2004), Lund (1991, quoted from Field, 1999), and Renandya (2012a). They assert that it is much believed that low-proficient listeners initially cling to bottom-up processes and cannot make use of top-down skills. However, indeed students frequently utilize top-down information including world knowledge and prior contextual clues for inferencing as a compensatory strategy in a possible breakdown of bottom-up understanding syntactical or lexical signals (Goh, 2002; Hasan, *ibid.*). Students might utilize top-down processing skills as a first and foremost strategy probably after going beyond threshold level



of proficiency which might be at the intermediate level (Renandya, 2012a) which the current participants hold. The focus on bottom-up skills in the current study can also be substantiated with the traditional focus on top-down processing as schema building in the listening lessons underrating the value of bottom-up processing of words, and sounds (Thorn, 2009). However, as a caveat, pre-set schema formed out of top-down processing should not diverge off the comprehension of the main idea of the text due to lack of recognition of words or phrases. Therefore, bottom-up processing skills are quite crucial in apprehending an audio-text which might serve as an instructional content in the listening lessons, and thereby the specific factors affecting comprehension will be discussed below.

Students' level of listening was predominantly and generally attributed to the paucity of listening practice as such found in Graham (2006) preceding micro-skills as recognizing the words as confirmed by the current finding in this study. Of the countless specific factors found in the germane literature, vocabulary knowledge, familiarity of topics, speed of delivery, loss of attention, environmental factors, dialectical variants of language, and type of input were found to be stated more in frequency in the present study, in Higgins (1995), and Goh (1999). This result can be best explained by listeners' dominant indulgence in the bottom-up, i.e. textual, processing while listening. The outcome of this study that vocabulary knowledge is one of the key factors in listening comprehension also complies with the studies as Chen (2016), Goh (2000), and Goh (1999) who also refers to some other studies as Boyle (1984), Buck (1990), and Kelly (1991). Similarly, Mecarty (2000, cited from Vandergrift, 2007) found that vocabulary appeared to serve as a substantial predictor of 14 % of FL listening skill. More, the benefit of EL can be best observed in pronunciation skills and recognition words as so found in the current study as well as in Gonulal (op. cit.). The possible effect of world or prior knowledge to assist listening perception was also adduced by the current study as well as some other authors as Chiang and Dunkel (1992), Dunkel (1986), Field (2004). Long (1990), and O'Malley et al. (1989). However, as a caveat, prior and world knowledge need to be differentiated since the former one alludes to the background knowledge within the text and the latter connotes to the knowledge of the world around us. Speed of delivery of listening texts were also identified as a problem for some students in this study as well as in Gonulal (op. cit.), Flowerdew and Miller (ibid.), Chen (2016), and Yeh (2017). The other specific factor that was encountered in this study is attention or concentration problem which is not researched adequately yet counted as one of the agents in influencing listening as so asserted by Flowerdew and Miller (op. cit.), Chen (2016), Goh (2000), and O'Malley et al. (1989). For instance, O'Malley et al. (1989) couches an anecdote

that while proficient listeners can reorient their attention when they lose, low-proficient listeners cease listening in case of unfamiliar words or phrases. The problems as poor environmental conditions and dialectical variants found in this study were additionally faced in studies conducted by Graham (2006) and Hasan (op. cit.).

Hereafter, strategies to overcome problems will be discussed. The four participants' utilizations of mentioned strategies as iterative listening, raising concentration, taking notes, using dictionaries, etc. were appointed as tactics under metacognitive strategies as selective attention, directed attention, comprehension monitoring, real-time assessment of input, and comprehension evaluation excluding pre-listening preparation (Goh, 2002). However, iterative listening might not help in recognizing words as found by Chen (2019). Chen (2019) and Yeh (2017) also contend that participants used dictionaries to look up unknown words after multiple times of listening, which corroborates the current findings.

### **The second theme: Extensive listening**

On the whole, it can be extrapolated that the confronted problems and wielded strategies are by large incongruent with the findings in the literature. Nevertheless, these all above strategies are not without critiques (Field, 1998). As cited in Chamot (1995) and Rubin (1994), a kind of strategy training of listening skill has not been corroborated by favourable evidence in the studies heretofore. In addition to this, these strategies need to be clarified whether they focus on communicative meaning or learning new structures in English. The influence of learner individual differences on the usage of these strategies also question the role of strategies in listening skill, which brings forth the value of EL, the second theme. This second theme was also formed since the problem was found to be scanty listening behaviour and more listening as a strategy to overcome the problems in listening. Therefore, listening skill which entails a breadth and depth of exposure might be provided to students extensively.

The paramount role of practice or extensive listening found in this study corroborated Alm (2013), Blyth (2012), Chang and Millett (2014), Gonulal (op. cit.), Renandya (2012a, 2012b), Renandya and Farrell (2010), and Ridgway (2000). Speaking theoretically in favour of EL, the problems as lack of practice and unfamiliar lexical patterns specified in this study and in Gonulal (ibid.) and the common strategy to use iterative listening substantiate the conceptual importance of frequent exposure to linguistic items and rules as an inspiration of connectionist view of language learning to achieve fluent listening (Hulstijn, 2003). Therefore, extensive listening can compensate the problems of recognizing words and lack of background knowledge which were detected as core problems in listening comprehension in

this study. As for recognizing words, Brown (2007, p. 15) alleges that EL can increase “automaticity of recognition of words in their spoken form, in turn leading to improved aural fluency and thus improvement in overall comprehension”. Elsewhere, Elcin and Sahinkarakas (2021) concluded in a study that extensive vocabulary activities also contributed a lot to learners’ vocabulary acquisition process in which class-free activities conducted by learners themselves helped greatly to overcome some negative feelings like boredom and stress which were the main components of metacognitive control in the study. In terms of background knowledge, Wang (2016, p. 84) who quoted one of the participants’ statement who apprised that “I need to enlarge my background knowledge by extensive listening, as well as listening. This is important.”. Further, in practice, as can be noticed from the journals, participants listened to podcasts in the same way as supposed by Hulstijn (2003) who uncovered the stages of students’ typical listening as listening, reflecting, replaying, checking confirmation, and replaying. The frequency of iterative or replaying listening was found to be utilized by other students in other studies as stated in Renandya (2012a) and Yeh (2017), which add to listening fluency. Similarly, Dupuy (1999) investigated Narrow Listening, meaning iterative listening of an audio text, by means of a survey with beginning and intermediate college students of French language. Results evinced that students overall found Narrow Listening interesting and useful in enhancing their listening comprehension proficiency, fluency, vocabulary, and raised confidence or low anxiety due to paucity of testing processes and time limits. Overall, students’ positive attitudes towards podcasts integrated into extensive listening was found in this study which is consonant with the findings in Yeh (2017).

Elsewhere, Chen (2016, 2019), who aimed at seeing the effect of listening journals and curated listening materials on metacognitive awareness in EL, succeeded in helping students learn how to plan for their listening, monitor their comprehension, find solutions to the listening problems, evaluate their approach and outcome. More, students in general felt positive perceptions for listening journals, but some perceived keeping journals to be time-consuming. This study and Chen’s (2016) study reached a consensus in students’ espousing journals for future utilizations. The sources for extensive listening that students exploited before and after the intervention are quite various, which is not consistent with the findings in Chen (2016) and Yeh (2017) who found TED talks to be dominantly listened.

In the discussion of EL or listening strategies, Renandya and Farrell (2010, p. 56) support EL by conferring that “Practice is the most important thing. The more listening the better, and the subskills will take care of themselves as they become automatized”. Therefore,

EL is one of the salient solutions. Chang and Millett (2014) suggest that EL should be employed by practising consistently with ample exposition to audio texts so as to achieve success. As the idea and research on EL is new, more work needs to be done on its theoretical background and more approvable data in favour of its positive effect on listening development (Chang & Millett, 2014). In this sense, the positive influence of EL on listening comprehension was attained in this study and Gonulal (op. cit.) and on enriching background knowledge and listening perception in Yeh (2017).

## **Conclusion**

### **Educational implications**

It can be abridged that listening courses can incorporate both EL and intensive listening with their vantages to train learners about the processes of listening and to put this instruction into more practice (Siegel, 2011). Not to get preoccupied with such a dichotomy as top-down (focus on meaning) or bottom-up (focus on form) processing of listening comprehension and ongoing discussion in the literature (Rubin, 1994), application of both forms of processing in a listening activity might be more rational in an amalgamation of top-down and bottom-up processing in listening. Accordingly, an improvement in bottom-up listening can lead to better top-down listening (Wilson, 2003). Even, Field (2000) compromises between strategy-based intensive instruction and EL by asserting that EL is a natural cultivation of strategy training rather than an alternative to it in the case of listening skill. Similarly, Richards (2005) suggests language instructors to keep a proportionate balance in the lessons between the views as listening for comprehension and listening as a tool for linguistic proficiency. Tersely, listening lessons should be supported with listening outside the classroom.

### **Further research**

For further research, the effect of intensive and extensive listening onto listening development can be investigated in a comparative study. The impact of extensive listening onto the lexical and grammatical development can be inquired. Metacognitive instruction can be incorporated into the listening lessons and its influence can be researched. Other areas of listening research can also be added as variables into a study. The choice of listening materials can be left to participants who can make us of other channels, vodcasts, and topics of interest. As analysed holistically in the current study, the problems and strategies can be analysed to the last detail in the follow-up studies. More quantitatively experimental studies can also be conducted to explore an effect of any intervention. Other research tools as think-aloud, stimulated recall, close-ended questionnaires, listening tests, and personal interviews

can be harnessed. Journals can be elaborated with more prompts to attain more information as proposed by Schmidt (2016).

## **Epilogue**

An agreement based on research data has been reached amongst academics and instructors about the substantive role of audio input in language learning which contributes to students' word recognition competence, vocabulary repertoire, development in speaking and reading, and generic proficiency in FL. Therefore, aural input deserves more attention in language education as undergirded by Harmer (2003, p. 29) in his statement as; "Students need to be exposed to the English language if they want to learn it, and one of the best ways of doing this is through listening (p. 29)." This listening skill needs to be taught in class but practiced outside the class extensively via technological possibilities with the guidance of practitioners under the framework of CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) and MALL (Mobile-Assisted Language Learning) in this digital, information, and mobile epoch in which education and in particular language education necessitates listening for understanding and saving the world suffering from anomic pandemics.

## **The Research and Publication Ethics Statement**

The Ethics Committee/Board approval for this study was obtained from Siirt University Ethical Committee in 06/18/2020 by No BE8430N76. No ethical considerations were violated in this study.

## **Declaration of Conflicting Interest**

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

## **Contributions of author(s)**

The author holds the authorship of all the stages of the current study.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1. Open-ended Questionnaire

- 
1. Which skill (reading, listening, speaking, or writing) do you feel inadequate?
  2. At which level do you think you are in listening skill? Elementary, intermediate, or advanced.
  3. How did your teachers instruct on listening courses?
  4. What do you think about the factors behind the success or failure in listening comprehension?
  5. What kinds of texts do you listen as an extensive listening, meaning listening at your will or outside the class?
  6. How much time do you spend listening to audio-visual texts per diem?
- 

## Appendix 2. Organizing Queries in Reflective Journals

- 
1. The name and theme of the listening text:
  2. Write the problems that you might have encountered while trying to comprehend the listening text.
  3. Write the strategies you employed to overcome such obstacles above.
- 

## Appendix 3. Questions in focus group interview

- 
1. What do you think about the value and the possible contribution of this study into your listening development?
  2. What are the key problems and strategies to overcome in your listening?
  3. Which sources do you avail of for extensive listening in the future?
  4. What do you think about the possible usage of podcasts and reflective journals in the imminent future?
  5. Which did you find most useful in the development of listening skills: listening lessons or extensive listening and why?
- 

## Appendix 4. Emerged codes, themes, and example statements.

Codes	Themes	Example Statements
Inadequate listening lessons, Intermediate level listening, Traditional way of listening instruction including comprehension exercises, Recognizing words in listening, Background knowledge, The effect of problems on overall understanding	Intensive listening Sub-categories: Listening lessons Two main listening processing as top-down and bottom-up	My problem is speed. My listening skill is intermediate. I think listening lessons are inadequate for us. Not knowing enough words. I can't understand pronunciation words. I can't catch the words.
Lack of listening act as a problem More listening practice as a strategy, Exploiting other sources on the net, Listening to English songs	Extensive listening Sub-categories: Listening Journals Podcasts	I don't listen something every day. It is the biggest problem. It should be practised so often. I would join such a study again Extensive listening contributed a lot



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## The Use of Other-Initiated Self-Repair Patterns by Adult Learners in an English-Speaking Course

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### Abstract

This study aims to investigate the use of other-initiated self-repair patterns of adult learners in an English-speaking course. In this study, twelve academicians who were the adult learners attended the B1 level English-speaking course in the spring semester of 2019 at Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University. In terms of the instruments and data analysis, 16-hour video-based data were obtained, transcribed with Transana 2.10 and Word 2016, and analysed by the method of conversation-analysis. Moreover, semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven volunteer learners and analysed regarding the content analysis. In conclusion, results of the study demonstrate that the adult learners are able to repair the troubles in English spoken conversations in order to prevent the communication breakdowns once the trouble source is initiated by either the recipient adult learners in the classroom or teacher by means of specific strategies such as upward intonation, repetition or asking –WH questions. Furthermore, the adult learners concentrate on the meaning rather than the linguistic features of the language to provide the negotiation of meaning and intersubjectivity for the conversation's maintenance.

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**Keywords:** Conversation analysis; other-initiated self-repair; repair organisation

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## Introduction

English is considered as a lingua franca that provides a 'contact language' among the people who share no common language or culture (Firth, 1996, p.240). As all languages, English also comprises two fundamental categories, which are named as 'receptive and productive skills'. Concerning the productive skills, speaking is a significant agent to convey the message to the other generations (Laver, 1994). Furthermore, speaking English is appraised as a tool which provides social interaction among people (Jenks, 2014, p.7).

Through social interaction, the interactants utilising English as a foreign language (EFL) may confront specific problems relevant to the mispronunciation, grammatically incorrect sentences, not being able to negotiate the meaning or the lack of vocabulary knowledge. At that point, the scaffolding method, defined as 'assistance from the adult to the child or novice', is applied to facilitate the particular learners to accomplish the utterances in an English spoken interaction (Wood et al., 1976, p.90). Otherwise, the interaction might comprise certain troubles that are required to be modified for the maintenance of the conversations. Concerning the interactions, several sequences of talk might be attained and analysed by a method that is Conversation Analysis (CA). In accordance with Seedhouse (2005), CA is the method to analyse the interaction in speaking that arises naturally. When considering the troubles in a conversation, the repair organisation of CA is employed to analyse the problems in the study of Schegloff et al. (1977). Furthermore, it is stated that repair is an essential agent to comprehend the troubles of people in a conversation and how the interlocutors overcome the problems (Liddicoat, 2007). Relevant to the repair, Schegloff et al. (1977) have grouped four repair types that are titled as 'self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated self-repair'.

In addition, other-initiated self-repair (OISR) is that "a recipient initiates repair, e.g., with what? and the trouble-source turn speaker resolves it." in accordance with Bolden (2011, p.238). In this study, several articles were researched in the branch of organisation of repair with the method of CA due to the fact that this study fundamentally focused on the OISR. Nonetheless, it is considered that the interactional patterns of the adult learners in an English-speaking field by the use of OISR organisation of CA and the techniques that are utilised are insufficient in the literature. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the OISR patterns of the adult learners in an English-speaking course.

With reference to the importance of the study, OISR that is performed by adult learners professionalising as academicians have not been investigated in an English-speaking

interaction in the field of repair organisation of CA in Turkey once the literature is reviewed. Therefore, it might be beneficial to ascertain why adult learners should utilise the OISR in English conversations. Besides, the categories that are revealed by the learners during the conversations may be a means of enlightenment for the researchers to discover the techniques used to initiate and repair the trouble. This study implemented to the adult learners in the branch of OISR of CA may provide instructors to what sort of words or statements lead the adult learners to both initiate and repair the trouble.

### **Literature Review**

Other-initiated self-repair concerns such cases through which the recipient does not hear or comprehend what has been uttered by the speaker in the previous turn and allows the speaker to be aware of the problem. Therefore, the speaker fixes the trouble in the turn which is the following pattern of initiation. Besides, this indicates that the learners who speak English as a foreign language may have the realization of their incorrect statements and step into the action to repair the trouble to impede misunderstanding. In other words, the significance of OISR is to enable the trouble source (TS) speaker to discover the trouble and repair the outcome generated to provide an understandable conversation atmosphere with the recipient who presents the trouble source (Wagner & Gardner, 2004, as cited in Aleksius & Widiati, 2021). In connection with this, OISR is regarded as evidence of learning in all probability (Yalçın, 2019, p.19).

Considering the OISR, several formats of studies have been analysed. In the view of Drew (1996), OISR including the open-class repair initiation (e.g. ‘huh?’ ‘what?’) in a conversation occurs in two different ways. The first initiator class is related to the shift in a topic that exists abruptly. Also, inconvenient or disaffiliated responses of the speaker lead the recipient to use the initiator of open-class repair (e.g. child: come here, mother: what?). Besides, a study by Schegloff (1997) indicates that certain same words such as ‘oh’, ‘what’ used in conversations have distinct meanings and positions. Therefore, the words might lead the recipients to start the initiation or cause the speaker to start the TS which leads to the “breakdowns in communication” due to certain factors (Schegloff et al., 1977). Different from those, the words might have the standard meaning as well. In another study of Schegloff (2000), once ‘others’ initiate repair, it is noticed that the other-initiation might be delayed although there is a general term that initiation occurs after the trouble. In relation to the explanation of Schegloff, it is indicated in the study of Yasui (2010) that repair is employed in three stages by

the native and non-native speakers of Japanese in English interactions. In that case, the first stage is the TS, it is followed by the repair-initiation subsequently, and the final stage is the repair for the Japanese learners. Also, the initiation regarding the trouble may be multiplied with several questions which lead the conversation to be expanded. Allied with the formats of other-initiated repair studies, Hoa and Hanh (2015-2019) implement repair strategies to the B2 level learners in order to teach the English-speaking skills in interaction. The strategies constituted by Schegloff et al. (1977, p.361- 382) are integrated into the classes. It is realised that question words (e.g., where, why) are utilised predominantly. Besides, partial repeat of TS and a question that is followed (e.g., The who?), judging ideas related to the speakers' utterance (e.g., you mean homework?) and a partial repeat of the prior talk with upward intonation (e.g., A: I arrive home at 10, B: ten?) are the other strategies of repair in the process of initiation of the TS. Similarly, Atar and Seedhouse (2018) focus on certain techniques of clarifications led by teachers to the students of L2 classrooms. It is understood that the teachers employ the action of clarification by utilising the specific type questions (e.g., why, where) mostly, partial repeat of the former talk and question (e.g. school what?) and open-class initiations (e.g. "sorry", 'huh?'). Likewise, it is also noted in the study of Boström (2021) that contributors in the study utilise a larger proportion of open-request questions by initiating and allowing the speaker to notice the trouble for repair due to the technical problems on the radio program. In another study, Rossi (2015) specifies that Italian participants implement the strategies such as question words, repetition, interjections, and rising intonation to fix the trouble once confronted with problems of hearing or misunderstanding in an interaction.

From a discrete perspective, Benjamin and Mazeland (2013) signify that an adjacency pair consists of initiation and repair in OISRs. Moreover, second language learning and OISR organisation has an interconnection with certain ways to initiate the trouble that are repeating, replacing, reformulation and expanding off syntactically. Another study which intended to explore the timing of OISR in conversation indicates that overlapping additionally leads the recipient to initiate the trouble of the speaker and the speaker repair the trouble without delay when compared to self-initiated repair (Kendrick, 2015). Furthermore, a study of Gerassimenko et al. (2004) analyses the information dialogue calls performed in Estonia to solve the communication problems based on OISR. Although this study is implemented with regard to a distinct field, results designate that the officer initiates the trouble of the clients with the strategies of repetition, reformulation and clarification in order to provide the clients to repair the trouble. In the study of Plejert (2004), it was explored that the difference between

non-native and native speakers in the classroom in relation the use of OISR is that the native speakers initiate and non-native speakers repair the trouble once warned. The Non-native speakers employ the repair especially when the trouble is about linguistic knowledge such as not knowing words or creating the utterances.

Considering the OISR, it is obvious that the studies might be compounded with sub-skills of English. For instance, Plug (2005) shares the observations of the phonetics of repetition in OISR sequences which are translated into American English from Dutch. In accordance with the results, it is clear that upgraded data that expands the questions to make it meaningful (e.g. “what do you mean?”) has louder and longer pronunciation whereas non-upgraded data (e.g. “huh?”) is sounded quieter and shorter. In relation to the study of Liu and Wang (2018), it is noticed that the learners of Chinese repair the trouble by themselves once the TS is initiated by the others in the classroom. However, it is discovered that the proportion of the OISR organisation increases in primary stage of the target language whereas the proportion of OISR repair decreases in the advanced stage of the language. On the other side, in the study of Hamid (2016), code-switching among the students and teacher indicates that the use of OIR indirectly related to the TS emerges with repetition in order to provide the students to discover the trouble in their talk.

When reviewing the literature review relevant to OISR organisation, it is obvious that the OISR is utilised in different situations with people in divergent age groups. Nonetheless, it is noticed that the English spoken interaction of the academician-adult learners based on OISR is insufficient to get informed that is from books and articles. Besides, there has been no study generated in Turkey before. Therefore, this study investigates the interaction of adult learners in speaking English on the basis of OISR organisation.

### **Research questions**

This study attempts to answer the following questions:

- (1) What categories of troubles in other-initiated self-repair organisation are utilised by the support of the adult learners or teacher mostly?
- (2) What are the reasons and thoughts of the adult learners about repairing trouble in interaction concerning the interviews?
- (3) Regarding the analysis of the interviews, what answers do the learners state about the repair and challenges they have had in English?

## **Methodology**

### **Research Design**

Owing to the fact that the data was based upon the conversations of the learners and analysed with the help of conversation analysis method, this study required qualitative data analysis. Besides, the data-driven approach was favored in order to provide further data analysis for the CA.

### **Participants & Setting**

#### **Adult Learners**

In this study, twelve adult learners (4 female, 8 male) who were the academicians in different departments at Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University took the B1 level English-speaking course to develop their academic speaking skills in the spring semester of 2019. The age range of the participants was between 28 and 62. The course was executed between February and May 2019 in a class of the School of Foreign Languages of Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University.

#### **Teacher**

The teacher was the researcher of this study and a postgraduate student of English Language Teaching department at Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University. Due to the fact that the essential focus of this study was OISR patterns, the fundamental role of the teacher was to facilitate learners to learn and discover the troubles by giving clues or using specific strategies.

### **Instruments**

#### **Video-Recorded Data**

Researchers who favour the approach of CA in the studies gather and utilise the qualitative data in general. With respect to examples, Dastjerdi and Shahrokhi (2015) investigated how Iranian EFL students communicated in Non-English-speaking communities by using story-retelling and what repair strategies were employed by the students to cope with the communication breakdowns. In order to collect data for verbal and non-verbal communication, the researchers used a digital recorder that recorded the audio of the students' interactions in the classroom as well. In another study accomplished by Fotovatnia and Dorri (2013), the utilisation of repair strategies by the genders was investigated. Throughout the research, the classes were recorded with a digital camera to be able to transcribe and analyse the patterns in the following phases. In addition to these studies, Watanabe (2016) engaged a research study to explore the development of novice students in the after-school programmes throughout four years. The interaction between the learners was recorded audibly and visually which was 450 minutes in total to analyse by virtue of the approach of CA.



Concerning the present study, the class was not recorded in the first week of the B1 level English -speaking course since the adult learners were informed about the study and the procedure. However, a video recorder was set at the corner of the classroom once the consent letters were gathered from the adult learners in the second week. Although the course encapsulated ten weeks, the interactions of the adult learners in the first and last week were not recorded owing to the week of information or an inadequate number of the participants in the class. Besides, the video recorded data were utilised as qualitative data corresponding to the CA approach. The video recordings that embraced the English-speaking interactions of adult learners provided the researcher to have 16 hours of data in eight weeks to be able to analyse the remarkable patterns about the related topic. The duration of the speaking classes was between 1 hour 50 minutes and 2 hours 10 minutes.

### **The Reason for Using Video Recordings**

As mentioned above, the CA approach is data-driven that this occasion leads the researchers not to be able to determine the research questions in advance. The researchers might estimate the problems related to the study, yet genuine research questions are not probable to be generated before analysing the patterns particularly.

Starting from this, it is safe to exert that the data of conversational analysis are attained by video or audio recordings of the classes. The recordings of the classes provide the researchers to save the data permanently, listen and analyse more than once by replaying to have reliable data for reasonable patterns of the interactions. In addition, Goodwin and Heritage (1990) indicate that the data recorded audibly or visually create an opportunity for researchers to use the data for comparative analysis of the interactions in the following studies.

It is required for the conversation analytic approach that several data should be collected in order to analyse and make an interpretation about the research questions that are determined for qualitative studies. Therefore, it should be reminded that the quantitative studies may not enlighten both researcher and readers in detail whereas the qualitative data such as video/audio recordings and interviews might provide elaborative information relevant to patterns formed by the learners in an English spoken interaction. Moreover, the video-recorded data enable the researcher to discover the nonverbal communication of the learners and their reactions to handle certain circumstances.

### **Semi-Structured Interviews**

Interviews may not be straightforwardly observable for researchers to capture the data (Tanveer, 2007, p.35). With reference to this study, semi-structured interviews were applied to seven adult learners as a means of voluntary-basis selection. Initially, the participants were informed about the process by the teacher. Once the adult learners were ready to launch the interview, the teacher started the interview by utilising the voice recorder application on the phone. In the interview sessions, following questions were directed to adult learners:

- (1) Which main skills and sub-skills do you have difficulty in English?
- (2) Which type of activities (individual, pair-work, group) would you prefer to be assigned during the English-speaking classes?
- (3) Who would you prefer to repair your trouble and mistake?
- (4) What are the difficulties that you have had in English-speaking class?

The adult learners were required to respond to the open-ended questions that were prepared beforehand. Besides, the teacher reflected them elaborative questions corresponding to their answers. Hence, the learners elaborated certain questions by providing adequate information for the research. Considering the duration of each interview, the session took approximately fifteen minutes.

### **Procedure**

In the first lesson of English-speaking course, the teacher informed participants that the course would take ten weeks from February till May 2019 and each class would take 2 hours with varied speaking activities. Furthermore, the teacher remarked that the fundamental aim of the course was to encourage the participants to speak and demonstrate to them that they could succeed in speaking well with communal interactions. In the final minutes of the first class of the English-speaking course, the adult learners were informed about the study, which would investigate adult learners' interaction in speaking English. Besides, it was indicated that the classes would be recorded with a camera in order to analyse the interaction of adult learners. Subsequent to the session of information about the research study, the participants' answers were received, and the consent letters were distributed in the second week. In the tenth week, the participants were asked whether they could be volunteers for the interview sessions about the course and interaction to provide the research with more elaborative information. Along with the acceptances of seven academicians, the semi-structured interviews were actualised.

## **Data Analysis**

### **Transcription**

Transcription is an essential part of CA since transcription is the primal phase for converting the data into a format by microanalysis (Liddicoat, 2007). In this research, two different analysing programmes -Transana 2.10 and Word 2016- were utilised. Transana 2.10 is a software programme which provides users to have easy access to the standard conventions of CA Jefferson (2004) (see Appendix 1). Besides, the programme indicates the duration of the pauses and intonation of words due to the frequency channels. Each participant was specified with the initial letters of their pseudo names. Furthermore, each sequence was numbered line by line.

### **Content Analysis**

With regard to this study, interviews completed by seven adult learners were recorded by means of an application on the phone. Subsequently, recordings were transcribed, and content analysis was generated. Afterwards, the answers that the learners reflected were analysed following similar terms and topics.

## **CA Methodology**

CA is one of the approaches which investigates the spoken language (Gardner, 2008). In accordance with Ten Have (2007), CA refers to the study of the members of a society and their practices to comprehend how people interact with each other as social beings. Furthermore, this approach enables the analysts to focus on the fine details that might be impossible to notice in a conversation. Moreover, the utterances that create the patterns have a fundamental role in revealing the speakers' everyday interactions entirely. Therefore, none of the patterns can be excluded from the transcription as it may give a clue about how people manage their interactions.

Considering the method of CA, the naturally occurring interactions between the speaker and recipient are required to be recorded (Mondada, 2013). Subsequently, the recorded data are transcribed concerning the conventions of CA and certain principles such as line numbers and fonts. Besides, the names of the interactants are kept confidential due to the ethical issues throughout the process. In relation to this, the shortenings of the anonymous names might be utilised in the transcriptions that 'E' stands for Esin, 'T' stands for teacher, and 'LL' stands for more than one learner speaking at the same time. Also, the transcribed data are analysed and

interpreted by the analysts to discover the patterns that may provide the answers to the research questions.

## Findings

### The Use of Other-Initiated Self-Repair (OISR)

As the aim of the study is to explore discrete uses of OISR, this section is classified into two distinct categories that are the use of OISR by the support of the adult learners and the use of OISR by the support of the teacher. Besides, each category comprises certain factors that affect the adult learners to utilise the organisation of OISR in their conversations, which are signified below.

### The Use of Other-Initiated Self-Repair by the Support of Adult Learners

#### Grammatical Correction

In this extract, Alex, the phonetics and phonology instructor from Germany, is welcomed to the class by the Skype programme, allowing people to communicate through the video chat mutually. Each adult learner sits in front of the laptop to talk to Alex, and the rest of the class watch the talkers on television, which is interconnected with the laptop. Once the turn of Helin comes, she sits in front of the laptop to talk about her visit to Germany.

#### Extract 1 (Helin & Osman)

```

1 Al: =did you like that?
2 H: yes (.) I liked but? when I was err (.) Berlin? I am
3   boring.
4 O: boring? or bored Ms.=
5 T: =ehm.=
6 H:→ =because? (.) bored bored bored.
7 T: huh. uh?|
8 Al: huh. uh?

```

In line 1, Alex asks whether Helin liked Germany or not. Helin begins to reply to the question with inevitable mistakes in line 2 and causes the trouble with the word 'boring' in line 3. Afterwards, Osman, who is another adult learner is confused with the word that has been formed by Helin in the line 3 and asks a question to the teacher in line 4 in order to ascertain the correct version of the word that should be placed into the sentence. In that case, the adult learner initiates trouble. In line 5, the teacher does not respond to the question. Nonetheless, Helin instantly repairs the trouble by correcting her mistake in line 6, even though the sentence that she forms is not completed appropriately. In lines 7 and 8, the teacher and Alex confirm

Helin's correction by using the same approval structure. As is seen, the modification relevant to the grammatical correction is actualised by other-initiation of Osman and self-repair of Helin.

### Readjustment of Pronunciation

In extract 2, the adult learners ascertain specific phrases relevant to the restaurant conversations, and they are required to execute role-play with their group members in front of the class. After the selection of customers and waiter, the first group comprising Nihat, Arden, and other learners are taken to the stage. In their spontaneous role-play, Arden is the waiter, and the rest of the group is the customers.

#### Extract 2 (Nihat & Arden)

1 A: yes (.) err I think it is err the err very cheap.  
 2 N: ha?  
 3 A: yes.  
 4 N: very cheap is very good (.) err I prefer there /garliɔ/ bread.  
 5 A: // /garliɔ/\* bread? //  
 6 T: //you mean? //=  
 7 N: → = /ga:lik/ (.) garlic.  
 8 T: huh. uh?

In line 4, Nihat chooses the dish that he would like to eat, yet he mispronounces the marked words that lead to trouble. At that moment, Arden repeats Nihat's final words as a peer by initiating the incorrect pronunciation with rising intonation in line 5. In contrast, the teacher demands to deal with the pronunciation mistake by asking for clarification with Arden in line 6 synchronously. Once Nihat discovers that he stumbles into a mistake, he repairs the pronunciation of the word by repeating it twice in line 7. In the final line, the teacher confirms the modification of the mistake in Nihat's utterance and encourages him to proceed with his talk with 'huh. uh?'

### Code-Switching

In extract 3, the whole class enounces their opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of technology.

*Extract 3 (Uygar & Yener)*

1 U: the internet all technological device all technological  
 2 tools very? harmful. err enemy in house we can that.  
 3 N: do you know?=  
 4 U: =but (0.4) our err my nasıl söylesem birader  
 5 ((laughter)) [tr: how to say brother-in-law]  
 6 Y: brother?  
 7 U: → brother-in-law err make agriculture err he earn thirteen  
 8 thousand liras? in one year.  
 9 LL: thirteen thousand liras?  
 10 U: yeah he earn (.) he earn.

In lines 1 and 2, Uygar denotes that technological devices that are used at home are detrimental. Once Nihat determines to ask a question in line 3, Uygar proceeds his speech right after Nihat's sentence, as shown in lines 4 and 5. Nonetheless, Uygar does not remember the word to explain and switch the code into Turkish by referring to the Turkish version of the word. Subsequently, Yener initiates the trouble and allows Uygar to guess the rest of the word by giving a clue of the first word with rising intonation in line 6. In the next turn-taking, which comprises the lines of 7 and 8, he utilises the word in a long sentence with a code-switched version of the word to repair the trouble, even inevitable mistakes in the utterance. In line 9, the learners feel shocked about what they have heard about the money earned by utilising the strategy of repetition with rising intonation. As a response to the classmate, Uygar confirms the price even though he does not manage the subject-verb agreement.

**Providing Negotiation of Meaning****Clarification Request**

In extract 4, Pamer answers specific questions about his two-minute motivational video that he has prepared as a task about dating violence.

**Extract 4 (Pamer & Nihat)**

1 P: err I remember the last year (.) I remember the interview  
 2 (.) you asked the questions about the dating violence  
 3 or err family violence.  
 4 T: ehm.  
 5 P: you-you asked me oka:y? ((turns to Mr. Nihat))  
 6 N: I don't understand.  
 7 P: →you wanted an example about violence.  
 8 N: yes.

In lines 1, 2, and 3, Pamer remembers an interview with his patient to mention the dating violence at the request of Nihat. The teacher signifies that she demands Pamer to continue in line 4. In line 5, Pamer turns to Nihat to remind what Nihat asks him without stating his requirement to ascertain an example of dating violence. In that case, Nihat does not comprehend what he has wanted in line 6. Therefore, Nihat initiates the trouble by utilising the clarification strategy in the negotiation of meaning. To impede the breakdowns in conversation, Pamer modifies his speech by elaborating on the explanation in line 7. Subsequently, Nihat remembers the question and confirms that he would like to listen in line 8.

### Comprehension Checks

In extract 5, Pamer replies to the question relevant to this motivational video. The teacher signifies that both men and women do not realise that they actualise the dating violence to their partners.

#### Extract 5 (Pamer & Arden)

- 1 P: yeah (.) they don't realize it it-its err th-they think  
 2 it's very normal but? it's not normal.=  
 3 A: =who is thinking it's very normal ladies? or gentlemens.  
 4 P: err (.) both-all of them.  
 5 A: all? of them. =  
 6 P: → =all of them. (.) especially? in /literatür/ [tr: literature]

In line 1, Pamer confirms the notion of the teacher. Besides, he indicates in line 2 that it is usually between the partners to have blind dating, although it should not be. In line 3, Arden asks which gender believes that blind dating is typical. In response to this, Pamer states that both genders cause the problem to occur in line 4. To allow Pamer to affirm the truth, Arden initiates the trouble by employing the repetition technique of comprehension check strategy, which is demonstrated in line 5. To provide the continuum of the conversation, Pamer repairs the trouble in line 6 and uses the words that he has been already utilised in the prior sentence.

### Comprehension Checks

In extract 6, Alex is welcomed to the class by Skype. The adult learners have prepared specific questions to ask Alex. Deniz is volunteer to ask the questions. However, she has difficulty multiplying the questions to reflect to Alex. Afterwards, Deniz asks Alex whether he could ask her a question.

**Extract 6 (Alex & Deniz)**

- 1 Al: yeah why not? err (.) what-err what was your favourite  
 2 city in southern Turkey that you have been to.  
 3 D: err my favourite city in Turkey? ehm (.) in Aydın.  
 4 Al: Aydın?  
 5 D: →yes in Aydın ((laughter)) I was born in Aydın and? I  
 6 lived in Aydın.  
 7 Al: huh. uh?  
 8 D: → err (.) Aydın is very nice city in Turkey.

Alex accepts his offer and asks a question that is lined in 1 and 2. After understanding the question, Deniz mentions about her favourite city in line 3. To confirm his understanding, Alex repeats the utterance of Deniz by rising intonation in line 4. In that cause, Alex has initiated the trouble to be repaired by the present speaker. In return, Deniz approves her favourite city by repeating and elaborating her favourite city in the lines of 5 and 6. Another confirmation strategy initiated by Alex emerges in the line 7. Therefore, Deniz maintains forming sentences about Aydın in line to repair and provide the talk to sustain.

**Scaffolding for Vocabulary**

In extract 7, Pamer's motivation video is on the verge of being displayed in the classroom. However, adult learners cannot watch the video at that time due to specific technical issues. In the meantime, Pamer enlightens his classmates about the topic of the video and where it has been taken.

**Extract 7 (Pamer & Arden)**

- 1 P: this is the- my room err (.) office.  
 2 A: in faculty?  
 3 P: → in faculty yeah. (.) education faculty. (.) err Mr. Uygur  
 4 err well known.

In line 1, Pamer specifies that the video has been recorded in his office. However, Arden has no information about which office Pamer mentions about, and he asks whether it is recorded in the faculty in line 2. Thus, Arden initiates the trouble by scaffolding him with the words that are offered. In response to this, Pamer remarks that it is the education faculty in line 3. In the final line, he states that Mr. Uygur knows the office as they are in the same department.

**The Use of Other-Initiated Self-Repair by the Support of the Teacher**



### Grammatical Correction

In extract 8, the adult learners ascertain a new idiom, which is to talk shop. In line 1, the teacher explains the meaning of the idiom.

#### Extract 8 (Arden & Teacher)

1 T: only talking about the job.  
 2 U: not doing anything. =  
 3 T: =no no no no only talking.  
 4 A: for example? womens. =  
 5 T: =womens or?  
 6 A: → women.  
 7 T: huh. uh?  
 8 A: women err talk shop more than men.

In line 4, Arden presents his instance using an incorrect plural form of the word that causes the TS. The teacher prefers to encourage Arden to discover the mistake and repair it. Therefore, the teacher initiates the trouble in line 5 by directing Arden to modify the trouble. Once the trouble is understood, Arden repairs the problem in the sentence and employs the correct version of the word in line 6. The teacher confirms the repair in line 7. Afterwards, Arden proceeds, generating a sentence related to the idiom that he has learned.

### Readjustment of Pronunciation

In extract 9, the adult learners ascertain the phonological alphabet in order to pronounce the word correctly. After learning each sound of the phonological alphabet, the learners are required to give examples to each category and complete them. Osman aims to utter what he believes the word is in the determined category, yet he cannot state it.

#### Extract 9 (Osman & Teacher)

1 U: sorsana sor ((tells to Osman)) [tr: just ask her]  
 2 T: yes please? yeah yeah.  
 3 O: why /tin/ is not for err this segment. [eng: thin]  
 4 T: did I say so.=  
 5 O: /tin/ /tin/ [eng: thin]  
 6 T: //think?//  
 7 O: → //thin.//=  
 8 T: =oh thin okay? no? it's true it's true (.) I thought that  
 9 you were saying tea.

Uygar switches the code into Turkish in line 1 to encourage Osman to ask what he plans to ask. In the meantime, the teacher hears the conversation between Osman and Uygar that the teacher encourages them to share the word. In return, Osman asks the reason why the word that is mispronounced is not placed in the signified category in line 3. Due to incorrect pronunciation, the teacher is confused about the category and asks a question in line 4. In line 5, Osman mispronounces the word 'thin' once again. The problem is that the 'th' sound is not appropriately pronounced, which causes the TS to emerge. The teacher initiates the trouble by offering another word in line 6. In response to this, Osman modifies his pronunciation mistake by emphasizing the 'th' sound in line 7. In lines 8 and 9, the teacher confirms the word by attaching what the teacher considers the word it might be.

### Code-Switching

In extract 10, the adult learners ascertain the idiom of the week. The idiom is 'out of this world' which means 'something is perfect'. Explaining the meaning to the learners, they are required to make specific sentences by using the idiom. Helin is willing to frame a sentence, yet she cannot remember the word at that moment.

#### Extract 10 (Helin & Teacher)

```

1 T: which one?
2 H: badem [tr: almond]
3 T: almond? or nut.
4 H: → almond (.) almond of Datça's
5 T: ehm? =
6 H: =Datça almonds? //out of this world//
7 T: //Datça's almond* yes.
```

The teacher asks which word Helin tries to find in line 1. Helin switches the code into Turkish to be understood in line 2. In this circumstance, the teacher initiates the problem in line 3 and offers Helin two different options to allow her to repair the trouble by herself. In response to this, Helin repairs the trouble in line 4 by switching the code into English and repeating the word twice. In line 5, the teacher confirms the repair and demands Helin to maintain her speech by rising the intonation in line 5. In line 6, Helin utilises the code-switched word in a sentence with the idiom required to be employed. In return, the teacher confirms the use of the words of Helin solely by adding the apostrophe to Datça and uses the modified word in a sentence with the idiom in line 6.

## Providing Negotiation of Meaning

### Clarification Request

In extract 11, the teacher requires the adult learners to share their notions relevant to vegan and vegetarian.

#### Extract 11 (Arden & Teacher)

- 1 T: so do they - are they vegetarian?  
 2 A: no:. vegans (.) err vegans is different from vegetarians.  
 3 T: okay explain it to me please.  
 4 A: → err vegans err don't eat anything.  
 5 → coming from err animals. =  
 6 T: =animals oka:y?=  
 7 A: → =eggs milks - milk or anything. =  
 8 T: =ehm.

In line 1, the teacher asks if the food types that is signified by her in prior turns direct the people to be vegetarian. In response to this, Arden explains in line 2 that they are different from each other. Nonetheless, the conversation and the terms still have ambiguity. Therefore, the teacher initiates the trouble in line 3 with the clarification request, including a requesting sentence to provide the meaning to be repaired. In response to this, Arden repairs the trouble by transmitting his knowledge to the classroom, as is seen in the lines of 4 and 5. In line 6, the teacher repeats what has been uttered by Arden at last and encouraging him to proceed with his talk by indicating the word with rising intonation. As a continuum of the repair organisation, Arden presents further information to negotiate the meaning in line 7 by elaborating on the obtained ones from animals that are not consumed by the vegans.

### Comprehension Checks

In extract 12, the adult learners are instructed with a new idiom that is 'to make a song and a dance'. The idiom which refers to exaggerate something more is required to be used by the learners.

#### Extract 12 (Murat & Teacher)

- 1 M: I get - I get very little price just for ((unintelligible))  
 2 T: oh.  
 3 M: I didn't pay the piece price.  
 4 T: you didn't pay the price?  
 5 M: → I didn't pay the price (.) I just only give the work  
 6 only (.) work.  
 7 T: alright I see (.) I want to write it right now?

In line 3, Murat shares his experience and signifies that he did not pay the required price. To check the comprehension of the conversation, the teacher initiates the trouble in line 4 by repeating Murat's sentence. In return, Murat initially repeats the sentence formed by the teacher and repairs the trouble by elaborating the information in the lines of 5 and 6. In the final line, the teacher confirms what has been marked by Murat.

### Confirmation Checks

In extract 13, Remzi is asked what kind of art he likes.

#### Extract 13 (Remzi & Teacher)

1 R: like err (0.3) err (0.3) pictures of err nature.  
 2 T: oh nature? it's good huh. uh?  
 3 R: → pictures err for err describing err the history? or  
 4 ((unintelligible)) history.

In line 1, Remzi uses the short pauses to generate his utterance and signifies that he likes pictures of nature. To confirm what has been uttered, the teacher initiates the trouble by exploiting the repetition strategy and rising intonation on the word in line 2. In return, Remzi repairs the trouble in the lines of 3 and 4 by remarking why he enjoys the pictures as a part of the art.

### Scaffolding for Vocabulary

In extract 14, Arden informs the audience about the Muharram days.

#### Extract 14 (Arden & Teacher)

1 A: first day? to the ten days of muharram. there are a lot  
 2 of people visiting. =  
 3 T: =this place? =  
 4 A: → =this province. =  
 5 T: =okay.

Arden mentions in the lines of 1 and 2 that several people visit Karbala in determined days. Nonetheless, the location is not referred by Arden, which causes the TS. Thus, the teacher initiates the trouble in line 3 by asking questions embracing the word 'place'. Once notices by Arden, he modifies the trouble in line 4 to provide a clear conversation by employing an alternative word in the sentence that is 'province'. In return, the teacher confirms the repair with the signified word in line 5.

## Semi-Structured Interviews with Adult Learners

In this section, four fundamental questions of the semi-structured interviews that are actualised with seven volunteer learners are demonstrated. The interviews are accomplished with the learners in Turkish. Therefore, the interviews are translated from Turkish to English to provide the study with transparency with validity.

### The Difficulties in the Main Skills and Sub-Skills of English

In the first question, the adult learners are asked in which primary skills and sub-skills of English they have adversities, and they are inquired if the problems encapsulate certain specific reasons. With regard to the semi-structured interviews, it is comprehended that the learners have particular challenges with listening and speaking as primary skills, and pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary as sub-skills.

- *"The listening skill depends on the use of the skill. Since we do not have a chance to use the listening skill sufficiently, we have problems with listening and comprehending."* (Murat)
- *"Due to my job specification, I do not speak English that much. The speaking skill is not what exactly I have expected to have. I would like to improve this skill."* (Osman)
- *"Doing listening solely does not improve your listening. Particularly, I am worried about the pronunciation. I know that I have several pronunciation mistakes. I know it. When I take a look at the internet pages relevant to the pronunciation, the pronunciation of mine and the speaker's pronunciation have a huge difference."* (Arden)
- *"First of all, vocabulary knowledge is a property which has based upon the use of English. We lose our vocabulary knowledge in a short period as the duration of English use is limited."* (Murat)
- *"As to the grammar, I tried to adapt the sentences to the structures of English. That is the reason why it is challenging for me."* (Deniz)

### The Types of the Activities

In the second question, the adult learners are asked whether they prefer to attend the individual, pair-work, or group English-speaking activities. Concerning the learners' answers, it is realised that six learners feel comfortable whilst interacting with two or more participants, whereas one learner generally prefers to participate in the individual English-speaking activities.

- *"I tend to attend to individual activities due to my characteristic feature, which is shyness. When considering pair-work activities right now, I believe that it might be beneficial. For the group activities, I have difficulty in them which own to me."* (Deniz)
- *"For pair-work activities, I question this to myself a lot. If the person speaking with you has a good English level, you hesitate about it. Nonetheless, if you both are at the same level, you feel comfortable. I believe that it is because of the fear of making mistakes."* (Osman)
- *"Group activities encourage the participants in an interaction. Group activities are significant. I mean that the dialogue is important. Even if it is two or more people, the dialogue is essential. The participants gain confidence by interacting with each other; they get encouraged."* (Nihat)

### **The Repair of Trouble**

In the third fundamental question of the interview, the adult learners are asked how and why they prefer their troubles and pronunciation mistakes to be repaired. In return, the learners prefer only the teacher or either teacher or the classmates to repair the trouble.

- *"Probably, one of my classmates has the same mistake. I mean, I do not trust him or her about how much they know or to what extent they have an appropriate pronunciation. He or she knows them as much as I know. The word that they utter might be correct, yet you cannot guarantee this. That is why I prefer the trouble to be repaired by the teacher."* (Arden)
- *"I mean; the aim is to learn the mistakes. There is no importance of who repairs the trouble. In other words, we would appreciate that if someone knows the correct version of the mistake."* (Murat)

### **Difficulties in English-Speaking Class**

In the final question of the interview, the adult learners are asked what kind of difficulties they confront while speaking English. Their responses demonstrate that the learners have challenges in speaking English due to certain factors such as the speed of speech, grammar use, the meaning of the utterance, having knowledge about the topic, locution types, accent.

- *"I cannot understand what has been uttered in case the speech is too fast. Once I do not comprehend the speech, I panic. That is the reason why I cannot answer the questions."* (Deniz)
- *"I have difficulty in answering the question in terms of grammar use. It appears that it is easy to infer the meaning from the utterance, yet it is bizarre to infer the meaning*

*without the grammar. Yes, it happens that I sometimes make incorrect inferences due to the misuse of grammar."* (Osman)

- *"There is a concern about whether I say what I have intended to say. For instance, shifting the place of a word might change the meaning of the sentence."* (Uygar)
- *"If I have no idea about the topic, I cannot say anything. Talking about social issues is easier, yet speaking with the topics that we do not know is difficult. Besides, you need to know the terminological words to speak for the topics of the specific fields."* (Pamer)
- *"The accent of the present speaker concerning the comprehension is efficient. It might be problematic as we are not acquainted with the specified accent."* (Murat)
- *"I always take attention to the locution types as in real life. You talk to the teacher in a different locution type, and you talk to a person who is at the bus station in a different locution type that I pay attention to this. However, it is required to practice the locution types more."* (Nihat)

## **Discussion**

### **Categories of the Troubles in OISR Organisation (Research Question 1)**

Considering the first research question about what categories of troubles of OISR organization have been utilized by the adult learners or teacher mostly, it is clear that the category of negotiation of meaning (NfM) is employed by both adult learners and teacher mostly in terms of the initiations of the troubles when compared with the other categories such as grammatical correction, readjustment of pronunciation, and code-switching. In return, it should be noted that the adult learner modifies the mistakes that emerge as the trouble is discovered and initiated by either the other adult learners or the teacher.

In the procedure of the trouble initiation of the present speaker's statement, the initiator adult learner or teacher utilizes certain strategies to allow the current speaker to notice the trouble and try to modify it. Besides, it should be signified that the category of NfM is utilized with specific strategies by the learners and teacher such as clarification requests, comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and scaffolding for vocabulary to facilitate the learners to have the intersubjectivity and maintain the conversation in a flow efficiently (Atar & Seedhouse, 2018; Drew, 1996; Hamid, 2016; Hennoste et al, 2004; Hoa & Hanh, 2015-2019; Mazeland, 2013; Plug, 2005; Schegloff, 1997). Therefore, the adult learners and teacher eliminate the ambiguity of the meaning in interactions with the help of the strategies that evoke the speaker learner to modify the trouble in the conversation.

In the study of Pica (1987, as cited in Hartono & Ihsan, 2016), it is indicated that the negotiation of meaning might provide the learners to accomplish the process of language learning by assisting the learners to make comprehensible input and repair their output, and by enabling the learner to attain the L2 form and the meaning. Moreover, Thio (2005) agrees that the negotiation of meaning with the strategies contributes to the learners getting involved in the communicative tasks actively and developing their English level in favor of the initiations and repair of the learners. Besides, it is aimed by the teacher to enable to constitute and generate mutual understanding, contextual support, and the flow in the target language with sufficient scaffolding (Van Lier, 2004). Concerning the strategies indicated in the study of Hoa and Hanh (2015), it is agreed that the application of the strategies by the teacher might have a great significance in teaching the spoken interaction to their B2 level English learners. Moreover, it is signified that specific strategies are employed to achieve intersubjectivity in case of students' failures (Atar, 2016; Boström, 2021).

### **Reasons and Thoughts about Repairing the Trouble (Research Question 2)**

In order to reply to the second research question, the second and third questions of the semi-structured interview have been combined. Following the third interview question, adult learners are asked how they prefer their mistakes to be repaired. Relevant to this question, the adult learners believe that both the teacher and classmates may assist in revealing the repair by the help of their initiation of the trouble. In contrast, certain learners prefer solely the teacher to repair, which means to initiate the trouble since the teacher is considered as a specialist in the field, and adult learners do not rely on the repair of their classmates for the fear that the classmates might make same mistakes. Also, the learners identify that they require the initiation of the trouble as feedback to develop their English level. In that case, the maintenance of the incorrect use of the target language might be prevented by the learners.

Concerning repairing the trouble, the adult learners are additionally asked in the second interview question about the type of activities the learners prefer to have in an English-speaking interaction. Although one learner prefers individual activities due to the feature of characteristics, the rest of the learners prefer either pair-work or group activities during the interactions. Causatively, the learners indicate that they learn from their own mistakes or the others that lead the learners to ascertain and modify the vocabulary by the mistakes. Besides, it is noted that certain lacks, such as listening and speaking skills, provide the learners to develop their skills and repair their mistakes by scaffolding with each other.



### **Replies Relevant to the Repair and Challenges in English (Research Question 3)**

Following the interviews' findings, it is ascertained from the first interview question that the adult learners have difficulty in the main and sub-skills of English as a foreign language. Considering the initiation of trouble and TS, the adult learners state that forgetting the words that are not used frequently, not being able to practice the target language, and fear of not being encouraged to generate the language in an utterance lead the learners to emerge the TS which might cause the breakdowns in conversations. Besides, the deficiency of vocabulary or endeavor to adapt the grammatical structures of English by considering the mother tongue may incline learners to reveal the TS in interactions. In terms of the initiation of the trouble, the adult learners remark that not being able to comprehend what has been uttered or not being familiar with the context that is listened may lead the learners to initiate the trouble in order to ask the speaker learner to repair the trouble for negotiation of meaning. Once the final interview question is directed to the adult learners that is relevant to the challenges in English-speaking classes, it is demonstrated that the deficiency of the knowledge of grammatical structures, not being able to form the intended sentences, not knowing the meaning of the word, not being familiar with the topics, and not being sure which word is utilized in a formal or informal speech induce the learners to emerge the TS of their talk to be initiated by the other participants in the classroom throughout the speaking classes. Moreover, it is indicated that the accent used by the learner speaking might lead the other adult learners to initiate the trouble to be repaired for the continuum of the conversation (Plug, 2005).

### **Conclusion**

The purpose of the study was to investigate adult learners' interactions in the B1 level English -speaking course by utilizing OISR patterns. The study was implemented in the spring term of 2019 at the School of Foreign Languages of a state university in Turkey. Besides, twelve academicians working in divergent departments of the university were the adult learners. In this study, 16 hours of video-based data were transcribed with the CA method to discover the learners' OISR patterns. The patterns were analyzed and classified into varied categories relevant to the purpose and properties.

Moreover, the extracts were identified and demonstrated elaborately in terms of the interpretation of the researcher. Moreover, the semi-structured interviews with seven adult learners were accomplished to strengthen the study's validity and detail the study with the learners' notions relevant to the questions that were asked by the researcher. Concerning the

interviews, the methodological framework of the content analysis was employed to analyze and categorize the data in certain groups that incorporated the similar answers of the adult learners. As a result, the study demonstrated that adult learners were able to repair their own trouble when their classmates or the teacher attempted to initiate adult learners' trouble by using specific strategies. Moreover, it is realized that the trouble initiations by both adult learners and teacher were fundamentally based upon the category of negotiation of meaning. And this concern denoted that the intersubjectivity of the learners in an English spoken interaction had a significant role for the learners to maintain their conversation by considering the meaning rather than the structure.

Furthermore, the findings related to the interviews signified that the adult learners supported the trouble repairs, which referred to the initiations of the trouble by the other participants since the aim of the learners was to develop their speaking skills in the target language. In that case, it was apparent to state that learners' scaffolding with the trouble initiations to each other both encouraged the speaker learners to repair the mistake in the utterance and provided the learners to form comprehensible sentences. On the other hand, it should be remembered that several factors affected the understanding of the adult learners, which directed them to initiate the trouble and be apprehended by the other participants who caused the TS to emerge.

To sum up, the adult learners' OISR patterns in an English spoken interaction demonstrate that the learners are able to modify the troubles in the conversation to prevent the communication breakdowns in the target language in case the TS was initiated by either the other adult learners or the teacher.

### **Recommendation for the Limitation of the Study**

In this study, two different instruments were utilised to gather sufficient data about OISR patterns to provide the research to be generalizable. Although the video-based data and interviews with seven adult learners contributed the researcher to achieve the purpose of the study, the triangulation to strengthen the data with more than two instruments might have been employed. Therefore, it might be suggested for the following studies to employ the questionnaire not only for obtaining more relevant data to be analysed but also providing the triangulation of validity which refers to the combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to reply to the specific research questions (Heale & Forbes, 2013, p.98)

Besides, the study comprised a small-scale sample due to the number of participants. Nonetheless, it should be reminded that the possibility of English spoken interactions of the

adult learners may increase in case of boosting the number of participants. Also, the perspectives and opinions of each learner in English conversation may enable the study to have several categories about the use of OISR. Therefore, more data relevant to the OISR and their uses with certain strategies might be discovered with the large-scale sample.

In addition, the researcher made the semi-structured interviews by visiting the participants in their offices in the last weeks of the speaking course. However, the adult learners were not able to remember the reason for their reaction once their repair to the trouble that is initiated by their classmates occurs. The reason was the fact that the video recordings related to the procedure of repair were not demonstrated to the adult learners during the interviews. Thus, it might be suggested for the researchers of the following studies to share the repair parts situated in the video before asking the identified questions for the beneficial interviews. Furthermore, the class assigned for the B1 level English-speaking course did not have the echo minimizer that caused the utterances not be comprehended. Therefore, it is suggested to have at least two video recording tools in the classroom in order to impede inaudibility problem that occurs particularly in the classes involving few students as a final recommendation to the researchers.

### **Implication for Researchers**

With respect to the study, it has been comprehended that the category of negotiation of meaning as a strategy is the most employed one between the conversations of the adult learners or teacher and adult learners whereas the least utilised categories are the grammatical correction in the conversations between the learners and code-switching between teacher and learner. Starting from this point of view, it might be reminded that the adult learners focus on the semantic functions of the language rather than the linguistic structures of the language to be able to maintain the conversation by hindering the ambiguity of the speech. In general terms, the least-used categories are relevant to the background knowledge or the English level of the present speaker when considering the modification of the trouble to provide a speech that causes no breakdowns in conversation.

In connection with the EFL teachers, it is recommended that the teachers might use the corrective feedback by using “other-initiations” to encourage the learners to notice their mistakes and repair their trouble in conversations. Therefore, teachers may repeat the incorrect utterances of the learners with upward intonation, offer two options to allow the learners to select the appropriate one by themselves, or reflect certain questions to let the learners clarify

the meaning in their speech to repair their trouble in interaction rather than correcting the mistakes of the learners immediately. Thus, the strategies might be beneficial to provide accurate, effective, and fluent conversations by preventing the possible damages that may occur in English-speaking interactions of the learners and teacher. (Hoa & Hanh, 2015; Drew, 1996; Gerassimenko et al., 2004).

To sum up, it has been realized that the adult learners working as academicians generate their speaking by repairing their mistakes once the TS is initiated by their classmates or teacher with the implementation of scaffolding strategy. In that case, it should be taken into consideration that the learners might negotiate the meaning of their speech by modifying their utterances if the chance is given to the adult learners. Thus, the awareness of OISR should be constituted by all participants in the classroom.

### **The Research and Publication Ethics Statement**

The ethics committee approval has been obtained from The Institute of Education Science of Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University.

### **The Conflict of Interest Statement**

In line with the statement of Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), we hereby declare that we had no conflicting interests regarding any parties of this study.

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### Appendix 1: Transcription Conventions

- // // Overlapping talk or simultaneous utterances of more than one learner
- = The end of the present speaker's utterance maintains with another speaker's speech with no pause or gap
- hayır [tr: no]** Translation of Turkish utterances
- Arrow in the left margin indicates self-repair of the participant
- (0.4)** The number demonstrated in parenthesis means the silence which is the tenth of a second. The silences can be indicated either in an utterance or between the talks.
- (.)** A dot in a parenthesis means a brief pause between 0.008 and 0.2 seconds.
- ?** A question mark demonstrates the rising intonation.
- .** A dot without a parenthesis means the falling intonation.
- :** A colon indicates a stretched sound.
- A hyphen means a cut-off after a word or a syllable of a word.
- (( ))** Double parentheses involve the descriptions or comments of the analyst.
- visit Ankara** The capital letter is utilised for the proper nouns, not for marking the beginning of a sentence.
- /do:tor/** Once the word is pronounced incorrectly, the approximation of the sound is presented by utilising the International Phonetics Alphabet between the slashes. In certain cases, the correct pronunciations of the words are offered in slashes as well.



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## Back To School Feelings of Teachers of English: How Are They Doing in The School?

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### Abstract

Like many other countries in the world, Turkey's education system is going through closures and re-openings of schools since the outbreak of the pandemic in 2020. In this paper, authors attempt to identify primarily how Turkish teachers of English feel during the most recent back to school ritual during what the Turkish government calls 'controlled normalcy' period. The data for the study were collected through a two-part questionnaire (see Appendix I) eliciting opinions of a total of 171 English language teachers practicing at state and private-run schools across Turkey. The first part of the questionnaire included questions corresponding to teachers' feelings about while the second part asked questions about the participants' professional concerns with regard to resuming teaching in person during the declared controlled normalcy. Findings of the research revealed that the participating teachers do have concerns about teaching face to face. Although there is no significant difference between the professional and emotional concern levels of the participants; the results of the research designated that teachers with 15 years of teaching experience have more professional concerns than other groups.

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**Keywords:** The Pandemic; Turkey; English Language Teaching; Teachers of English

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## Introduction

According to the Chaos Theory, small-scale events can have enormous results and an event happening anywhere in the world can give rise to another event. In this case, order causes disorder and the results of the triggering event can affect the whole system altogether. As stated in Chaos Theory, the flapping of a butterfly's wings in New Mexico can cause a worldwide storm (Lorenz, 1972). The Covid-19 pandemic which emerged in Wuhan, China in December 2019 created a worldwide storm and greatly affected the most important components of society such as health, economy, politics and education. According to the data of the World Health Organization (WHO, 2021), the pandemic, which was detected in a total of 115,289,961 people in 219 countries or regions around the world as of 05 March 2021, caused the death of 2,564,560 people.

Most governments around the world have taken extraordinary measures to prevent the spread of coronavirus and one of these measures was the temporary closure of schools. The closures applied by these countries have significantly affected hundreds of millions of students. Several other countries have applied localized closures affecting millions of additional students (UNESCO, 2021). According to data published by UNESCO on January 25, 2021, one year into the pandemic, the education of 800 million students worldwide, more than half of the students in the world, is hampered by the closure of schools. With the closure of schools, education continued through distance education so-called 'Education in emergency' (Pokhrel and Chettri, 2021) in many countries. While 31 countries are implementing full closure across the world, education is performed on a part-time basis in 48 countries (UNESCO, 2021) and the Covid-19 pandemic has caused the largest disruption of education in history, (UN, 2020).

Education in Turkey was greatly impacted by this outbreak. Lockdown and other preventing measures due to the COVID-19 pandemic have led to closures of schools in most countries as well as Turkey. The first case of COVID in Turkey was seen on March 11, 2020, and the important decision concerning education was announced and face-to-face education was suspended for two weeks. Then the Minister of National Education declared that the students would their education online. It was decided to continue education through TV broadcasts for three different education levels, namely primary school, middle school and high school through TRT (Turkish Radio and Television Corporation), and on the internet through EBA (the Education Information Network).

## Literature Review

There is a rising concern about the mental health challenges of the general population (Kar et. al., 2020) and the teachers are the most affected professional group with regard to the pandemic (Diliberti et.al, 2021; Weale, 2020). As specified in earlier studies, being the most critical determinant of quality in education, teachers had to cope with various setbacks physically and mentally during this abnormal period. In addition to decision- makers, teachers also have been experiencing difficulties in the online education process (Demir & Gologlu Demir 2021). Hebebcı, Bertiz, & Alan (2020) have conducted a study to discover the views of students and teachers on distance education activities generated in Turkey. 20 students and 16 teachers (5 English, 4 Turkish and 7 I.T. teachers) participated in the research. The teachers who participated in the study stated that the biggest problem with distance education is the lack of interaction. A survey of over 10,000 teachers detected that 92.8% of teachers experienced emotional fatigue, stress, anguish or anxiety due to lockdown and online education. Excessive bureaucratic duties, unclear instructions, lack of support from the school management and lack of technical means were the main problems identified by teachers (CSIF, 2020).

According to a study conducted by Arora and Srinivasan (2020), it was revealed that the reasons for lack of interaction were low participation in the course, lack of communication and connection problems. All these changes in education have assigned new roles for the teachers during Covid-19 pandemic. The traditional role of teacher has shifted from classroom to virtual teaching. This gave birth to an emerging need for digital pedagogy, and this has brought additional responsibility and concerns for the teachers (Barron et.al. 2021). Since the countries were not prepared for such calamity yet, the pandemic has exerted stress among teachers by leading to back-to-school concerns what might be called ‘in limbo’ period. This is one crucial finding disseminated by the Education Support (ES- 2020) of UK as well. According to ES 2020 report on Teacher Wellbeing Index, 62% of the participating teachers and education staff in the UK describe themselves as stressed (ES report 2020). In the same report, it was emphasised that this burnout is not simply the result of being overworked and underpaid conditions, but more of prolonged stress. To this end, the governments around the world, have been taking steps to help teachers in this unstable period. To exemplify, in the UK there is a mental and wellbeing helpline to help teachers during the sensitive period. Some other countries support their teachers with the technological facilities. For example, students in Sierra Leone, where the main distance learning channel is live radio, use the toll-free hotline to ask their teacher any questions (Barron et al., 2021).

According to a survey conducted in Brazil by Instituto Peninsula, 83% of teachers did not consider being prepared to teach remotely, 67% were anxious, 38% felt tired, and only less

than 10% were happy or satisfied. The pandemic has highlighted the need for flexibility and more time for student-teacher interactions. For example, in Estonia, to remedy the embedded hardships and alleviate the drawbacks, teachers were given autonomy to adjust the curriculum, lesson plans, and their time allocation. All these has provided a sort of freedom and lessened the concerns and stress of the teachers, (Barron et.al. 2021).

In another study conducted by Hebebcı, Bertiz, & Alan (2020), it was explored that teachers think that distance education is not as effective as face-to-face education. What is noteworthy is that the teachers who state this have 10 years of teaching experience with relatively limited digital literacy. Besides, it has been revealed that most of the teachers who support this view had no experience in distance education.

The findings of another study implemented during the pandemic revealed that teachers urgently need to gain skills in educational applications and platforms as due to this, they are 'low in motivation to use distance education technologies' (Aytaç, 2020).

As a result of the problems experienced in the distance education process and the understanding that distance education cannot replace school, many countries have started planning to open schools and other institutions with minimum risk. These plans are primarily for schools to prevent the re-emergence of the epidemic and to prevent learning losses. Besides, preparations are also actualized for a possible future epidemic or emergency (Brooks et al., 2020). What calls for attention is even though the teachers are the ones who are expected to be implementing what has been dictated them through constantly changing educational decisions, they are excluded from the decision-making processes. Being the backbone of education, the teachers should be a part of the education-related decision-making process.

A substantial lesson learned during the pandemic is how crucial role teachers play in implementing curricular plans and ensuring continuity of education. When schools reopen, much will depend on teachers, such as ensuring that students can continue their education safely and healthily and make up for skills and knowledge that may have been lost (UNICEF, 2020). It will be necessary for policymakers and education leaders to provide teachers with the working conditions, required training and resources they need to fulfil their essential role as educators, which will certainly have a value aftermath of the pandemic (Garcia, 2020). To be able to provide these working conditions, necessary training and resources, policymakers need to focus on the ideas and concerns regarding the reopening of schools. In a national poll implemented by NPR/Ipsos (2020), it has been found that eighty-two percent of K-12 teachers say they are worried about returning face-to-face education, while two-thirds prefer to teach

primarily remotely. The results also indicate that 77% of teachers are concerned about risking their health. EMA (2020) also carried out a survey of K-12 teachers to find out how the COVID-19 pandemic impacted teaching in spring 2020 and learn about their concerns for the upcoming school year. The greatest concern of teachers about returning to school has been revealed to be related to the health of school staff (67%) and students (62%). Other concerns can be listed as follows: mental health of students (37%) and recovery of students' learning losses (41%), strict rules that require teachers or students to stay at home if they get sick (75%), strict measures for cleaning (71%). This research revealed that teachers additionally have professional concerns. According to the study, 41% of the teachers stated that they needed professional development in strategies to ensure the participation of students in distance education and the use of technological tools such as Zoom, Skype and other LMSs.

Compared to the general population, teachers are at risk for higher levels of psychological stress and lower levels of job satisfaction (Travers & Cooper, 2012). According to Kyriacou (1987), teacher stress is the teachers' experiences that arise from unpleasant emotions such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration and depression brought about by the teaching profession itself. Brenner and Bartell (1984) suggested that teacher stress results from the combined effects of teacher and school characteristics, potential stress factors in the school environment, actual stress factors, generally perceived stress factors related to work, stress reactions, health status as well as personal traits. With regard to stress among teachers, it can easily lead to alienation, indifference and absenteeism and eventually interfere with students' success (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). Various stressors in teachers' lives make their lives very difficult and negatively affect their physical, mental and social lives.

Recent studies have reflected that due to workload and the uncertainty of the situation teachers accumulated a high level of stress since the outbreak of the pandemic (Besser et al., 2020; Ozamiz et al., 2021). This has affected teachers to a greater degree when they are back to school during so called 'normalcy period'. As a result, the performance of the teacher and accordingly the performance of the education system decreases. For this reason, in order to maximize teachers' productivity, it is essential to minimize their stress level related to school concerns, which is one of the biggest challenges of teachers. In this context, considering the crucial role of the teacher within the education system, it is valuable to identify various stress factors in teachers' lives (Randhawa, 2009). Today, the most substantial issue which affects the professional lives of teachers, as well as their health is the emotional causes of COVID-19 pandemic. To Jones (2020), living in pandemic can cause feelings of uncertainty, especially when there is no treatment, and this makes it more urgent to understand the mental and

emotional causes on teachers. To Jones, understanding emotional cause of virus is more significant than finding a medication that will mask it. Similarly, in their study in the USA Diliberti et.al., (2021) stated that the teachers are facing the most challenging time in their career as the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has added more stress to an already high-stress profession'. Therefore, apprehending and identifying the stress factors that may arise from COVID-19 and directly affect teachers and eliminate these factors is a must for the governments as this may eventually affect the entire education system.

To the best of researchers' knowledge, not many studies conducted during the 'normalcy period' measure the concerns of English teachers in Turkey but the studies that have been implemented suggest that they have psychological symptoms, and this reinforces the importance of reopening schools and universities (Kar, 2020; Aytaç, 2020, Ozamiz et al., 2021). A recent study has indicated that 'this crisis has caused teachers to suffer problems that are often related to a pandemic situation, such as anxiety, depression, domestic violence, and divorce, all of which restrict their ability to teach properly.', (Ozamiz et al., 2021).

As of March 2021, the Ministry of National Education government decided to reopen the schools 3 days a week with numbered students. As thus, teachers have resumed teaching in person after a year-long break (March to September 2020; and then November 2020 to March 2021). During the controlled normalcy period, as is commonly called, about one million teachers have started face to face teaching. Although there is a rumour that the lockdown period is in the air, at the time this study was conducted there was no account of lockdown. How teachers feel when they started face-to-face teaching during so called 'normalcy period' is worth to investigate.

In this empirical study, teachers were the main focus, one of the most vulnerable groups in the pandemic process, in Turkey and they were asked about their professional and emotional concerns and difficulties about the reopening of schools during the normalization process. The initial purpose is to explore the emotional and professional concerns of the Turkish teachers of English working at primary, lower secondary and high schools during 'normalcy period'.

### **Research questions**

The current study was conducted to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What emotional concerns do Turkish teachers of English have when they have resumed face to face teaching during the controlled normalcy period?
2. What professional concerns do Turkish teachers of English have when they have resumed face to face teaching during the controlled normalcy period?

3. Are there any differences in the participants' concerns with respect to gender, type of school, teaching experience?

### Methodology

In the current study, an online survey method was utilized. Data for the study were collected during the second, third and fourth weeks of the reopening covering the time span from 5 March to 25 March, 2021. That is, it is assumed that the study reflects the initial concerns of the participating teachers when the schools were opened after a long period of time. The online questionnaire was shared in social media groups of the teachers. A total of 171 teachers teaching in distinct regions and cities throughout Turkey volunteered to respond to the online questionnaire.

### The Participants

The study group of this research encapsulates 171 teachers teaching at public and private-run schools and was selected by means of a purposeful criterion sampling technique. All of the participants are delivering face to face lessons at the time of the data collection period at different grade levels in discrete provinces of Turkey in the 2020-2021 academic year. However, due to accessibility by researchers, the participants were mostly from Isparta, Hatay, Adana and Ankara. The characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Demographic Information About the Participants*

	GENDER		TYPE OF SCHOOL		OF YEARS OF TEACHING				TEACHING LEVEL		
	Female	Male	State	Private	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	15 years +	Primary School	Secondary school	High school
Frequency	139	32	163	9	23	42	38	69	22	57	84
Percent	80,8	18,6	94,8	5,2	13,4	24,4	22,1	40,1	12,8	33,1	48,8

As can be seen from the above table, the study group embraces a total of 171 in-service teachers including 139 female and 32 male teachers currently teaching in Turkey. Of the teachers, the majority (40 % N= 69) have teaching experience over 15 years. The data displayed above reveal that the questionnaire was most responded to by high school teachers (N=84).

### Data Analysis

The independent samples t-test was used to compare two independent variables. One-way analysis of variance ANOVA was used to compare multiple independent variables. Post Hoc tests were applied to know which of the multiple independent variables were significantly

different. In addition, descriptive statistical values of the data were incorporated in the study. Cronbach Alpha internal consistency method was applied to calculate the reliability coefficient of the scale. The reliability score of the scale was found to be 0,90.

### Data Collection Tool

In order to collect data for the research, a questionnaire was constructed by the researchers. Once the initial item list was generated by the researchers, the items had to be adapted to a sample population in order to modify the list accordingly. For this purpose, a focus group were tasked with sharing their views on the pre-made items and generating additional ones. Finally, an interview was conducted with the focus group to collect the data. It was their second week at schools teaching. The majority of the items comprised in the questionnaire were generated based on this interview. The questionnaire embodied 3 parts; demographic information, emotional concerns, and professional concerns on a Likert scale with 1-5 degrees strongly disagree to strongly agree. In addition, 3 open-ended questions were included in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was piloted with a data are normally distributed (Altunışık et al., 2012: 166).

### Findings and Results

#### Emotional Concerns

The results of the normality tests related to the variables of the teachers' emotional concerns are given in Table 2. The table shows that the data have a normal distribution since the significance values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests are higher than 0.05.

Table 2. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Results Showing the Normality of Teachers' Emotional Concerns Depending on All Variables

	GENDER		TYPE OF SCHOOL		YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE				TEACHING LEVEL		
	Female	Male	State	Private	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	15 years +	Primary School	Secondary school	High school
Statistic	0,062	0,094	0,059	0,260	0,121	0,076	0,107	0,126	0,157	0,122	0,105
Df	103	28	130	2	17	34	29	52	18	44	62
Sig.	,200*	,200*	,200*	,200*	,200*	,200*	,200*	,040	,200*	,098	,086

\*This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Table 3 shows t-test results comparing teachers' emotional concerns concerning the gender and type of school. No significant difference is found between the teachers' emotional concerns with reference to the gender and type of school variables.

Table 3. T-Test Results Showing the Comparison of Teachers' Emotional Concerns Depending on the Gender and Type of School Variables

GENDER	TYPE OF SCHOOL
--------	----------------

F	,494	,574
Sig.	,483	,450
T	,910	-,925
Df	129	130

\*p>0,005

One-way ANOVA test results indicate the comparison of teachers’ emotional concerns in terms of the years of teaching experience and teaching level variables. The table designates no significant difference between the teachers' emotional concerns depending on the years of teaching experience. However, a significant difference has been discovered between the teachers' emotional concerns with regard to the teaching levels. The results of the Tamhane T2 test conducted to determine among which groups the emotional concerns of teachers differ depending on the teaching level variable are given in Table 4.

Table 4. One-way ANOVA Test Results Showing the Comparison of Teachers' Emotional Concerns Depending on the years of teaching experience and the teaching level variables.

	YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE	TEACHING LEVEL
Sum of Squares	1,471	4,992
Df	3	2
Mean Square	,490	2,496
F	,662	3,664
Sig.	,577	,029

According to the Tamhane T2 Test results, which was conducted to determine among which groups the emotional concerns of teachers differ according to the teaching level variable, the difference between emotional concerns is between the group teaching at the high school level and the group teaching at the secondary school level, and the difference is in favour of the group teaching at the secondary school level (Table 5).

Table 5. Tamhane T2 test results showing among which groups the emotional concerns of teachers differ depending on the teaching level variable.

Teaching level	Teaching level	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Primary School	Secondary School	,24540	,29269	,795
	High School	-,19492	,29140	,883
Secondary School	Primary School	-,24540	,29269	,795
	High School	-,44031*	,14577	,010
High School	Primary School	,19492	,29140	,883
	Secondary School	,44031*	,14577	,010

Teachers who participated in the study had the following emotional concerns about returning to school in the new normalization period: 38% of them (n=66) felt that they were detached from their profession; 50% of them (n=86) felt lost between school and home life;



37% of them (n=65) had difficulties in adapting to school life, 41% of them (n=71) felt anxious about returning to school, 34% of them (n=60) had difficulty adapting to school routines, 55% of them (n=95) thought it was scary to return to school during the pandemic, 61% of them (n=105) found it difficult to adjust the social distance in the classroom, 65% of them (n=113) were very careful not to get close to the students, 47% of them (n=63) were discouraged by the lack of communication with the students.

### Professional Concerns

The results of the normality tests related to the variables of the teachers' professional concerns are reflected in Table 6. When Table 6 is examined, it is concluded that the data is normally distributed in terms of gender, type of school and teaching levels. However, the significance level for 15+ years experienced teachers is below 0,05. As result, it can be concluded that the data is not normally distributed in terms of the years of teaching experience. As a result, no significant difference was detected between the teachers' professional concerns corresponding to the gender, type of school or teaching level variables. However, a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) was identified between the teachers' professional concerns depending on the years of teaching experience variable. When the results are examined, it can be concluded that teachers with 15 years of teaching experience have more professional concerns than the other groups.

Table 6. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Results Showing the Normality of Teachers' Professional Concerns Depending on All Variables

	GENDER		TYPE OF SCHOOL		YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE				TEACHING LEVEL		
	Female	Male	State	Private	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	15 years +	Primary School	Secondary school	High school
Statistic	0,075	0,107	0,069	0,219	0,143	0,104	0,123	0,110	0,170	0,108	0,092
Df	139	32	163	9	23	42	38	69	22	57	84
Sig.	,055	,200*	0,57	,200*	,200*	,200*	,153	<b>,037</b>	,098	,096	,079

\*This is a lower bound of the true significance.

T-test results in Table 7 displaying the comparison of teachers' professional concerns depending on the gender and type of school variable is examined, no significant difference is specified between the teachers' emotional concerns depending on the gender and type of school variables.

Table 7. T-Test Results Showing the Comparison of Teachers' Professional Concerns Depending on the Gender and Type of School Variable

GENDER		TYPE OF SCHOOL	
--------	--	----------------	--

F	,106	,001
Sig.	,745	,974
T	2,678	-,641
Df	169	170

\*p>0,005

When Table 8 which displays the one-way ANOVA test results showing the comparison of teachers’ professional concerns in connection with the years of teaching experience and teaching level variables is examined, no significant difference is found between the teachers' professional concerns with regard to the years of teaching experience and the teaching level variables.

Table 8. One-way ANOVA Test Results Showing the Comparison of Teachers' Professional Concerns Depending on the years of teaching experience and the teaching level variables

	YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE	TEACHING LEVEL
Sum of Squares	1,991	2,829
Df	3	2
Mean Square	,664	1,414
F	1,797	3,882
Sig.	,150	,023

Teachers who participated in the study had the following professional concerns about returning to school in the new normalization period: 83% of them (n=144) reflected that they were not ready to go back to school; 63% of them (n=108) denoted that they had the chance to use more visual resources while teaching at home. In addition, when asked for their opinions on distance education, 65% of the teachers (n=112) stated that distance education was more tiring than face-to-face education, and 45% (n=76) of them did not find the blackboard as practical as computers.

**Significance of the Study**

To the best of researchers’ knowledge, this study is the only study conducted on the concerns of English language teachers during the normalcy period. Therefore, it is assumed that the findings of the study will inform the decision-makers about the concerns of the major stakeholders, that is, teachers. Informed by their concerns, the decision-makers may take some protective measurements relying on the findings of this empirical study.

**Discussion and Recommendations**

Since there have been no studies conducted on the current topic so far in Turkey, the researchers cannot discuss and compare the findings in light of the other studies. The present study investigated the emotional and professional concerns of the Turkish teachers of English during controlled normalcy period in which teachers returned schools for teaching subsequent

to a long period of distance education. The findings of the study demonstrated that 65% of the teachers are scared to get close to the students, more than half of the teachers were comprised in the survey find it scary to return to school during pandemic and for 61% of them it is difficult to adjust the social distance in the classroom. While 50% of them felt lost between school and home life, 65% found it difficult to adapt to school life. The latter finding is in harmony with the Education Support (ES) 2020 report on the Teacher Wellbeing Index which indicates that 65% of teachers had adversities in adapting to school life.

As it is seen from the findings above, the current study revealed the teachers' emotional and professional concerns about returning to school during the new normalization process. This knowledge and awareness of teachers' concerns will guide institutions and policymakers to provide the necessary and targeted support to teachers during the new normalization. To ensure the permanence of change, educators must be at the forefront of the design, evaluation, and implementation of such transitions (Martin et al., 2019). These transition processes inevitably cause concerns among teachers and these concerns should be taken into consideration when implementing intervention strategies.

In this new process, governments and ministry of education in particular should be aware of a wide range of issues affecting the mental health and wellbeing of teachers, therefore, while adapting the new changes the readiness of teachers needs to be ascertained and supported.

Like all professions, teachers are required to demonstrate the right behaviour for the benefit of others, but it is their greatest right to expect effective infection control while doing so. Teachers' fear of getting sick and worrying about returning to school is justified reactions since they endanger the lives of both themselves and their families by being physically at school in this process. Therefore, authorities should be aware that the decisions they make about opening and closing schools are a matter of life or death. Considering the challenges teachers are facing a few suggestions can be put forward, mental health-line to help both teachers and students, teacher training in digital tools and web resources (mental health related resources, educational resources websites and library sources) to help teachers in this turbulent time. Training sessions for mental health in schools should be another emergency plan to improve teacher's wellbeing.

### **Recommendation for Further Research**

The current study investigated the concerns of the teachers at the beginning phase of the controlled normalcy period. The study might be replicated at a later time to see the

differences in concerns. Furthermore, it is advisable that students' concerns and emotions regarding the back school period may be investigated.

### **The Research and Publication Ethics Statement**

The ethics committee approval has been obtained from Süleyman Demirel University on 21.09.2021 (111-12).

### **The Conflict of Interest Statement**

In line with the statement of Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), we hereby declare that we had no conflicting interests regarding any parties of this study.

### **Contributions of authors**

We declare that all individuals listed as authors agree that they have met the criteria for authorship, agree to the conclusions of the study, and that no individual meeting the criteria for authorship has been omitted.

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## The Psychological State of Teachers During the COVID-19 Crisis: The Challenge of Returning to Face-to-Face Teaching

Naiara Ozamiz-Etxebarria, Naiara Berasategi Santxo, Nahia Idoiaga Mondragon, María Dosil Santamaría *Front Psychol.* 2020; 11: 620718. Published online 2021 Jan 12. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2020.620718

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## Appendix A

### Turkish Teachers of English are in Limbo: Back to School Concerns

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain data about your feelings regarding your professional life during the controlled normalcy period. Your responses will be used only for research purposes. We appreciate your collaboration in advance.

1. Biographical information

- Female  
 Male

1. Type of school you have been currently working

- State  
 Private

3. Years of teaching experience

- 0-5 years  
 6-10 years  
 11-15 years  
 15 years +

4. Teaching level

- primary school  
 lower secondary school  
 high school

Emotional Concerns

In this part, you are asked questions to explore your emotional feelings

5. I am feeling detached from my profession.

1      2      3      4      5

---

strongly disagree      strongly agree

6. I am feeling lost in between school and home life.

1      2      3      4      5

---

strongly disagree      strongly agree

7. I am having difficulties in adapting to school life.

1      2      3      4      5

---

strongly disagree      strongly agree

8. I am feeling anxious.

1      2      3      4      5

---

strongly disagree      strongly agree

9. I am having difficulties in communicating with students.

1      2      3      4      5

---

strongly disagree      strongly agree

10. I am feeling bored in the classroom.

1      2      3      4      5

---

strongly disagree      strongly agree

11. I am having difficulties in communicating with my colleagues.

1      2      3      4      5

---

strongly disagree      strongly agree

12. It feels scary to be back to school during the pandemic.

1      2      3      4      5

---



- strongly disagree strongly agree
13. I am having difficulties in adapting to school routines.
- 1      2      3      4      5
- strongly disagree      strongly agree
- 
14. It feels strange to be back in the classroom.
- 1      2      3      4      5
- strongly disagree      strongly agree
- 
15. I do not want to get involved in school work.
- 1      2      3      4      5
- strongly disagree      strongly agree
- 
16. I am feeling uncomfortable while trying to adjust social distance in the classroom.
- 1      2      3      4      5
- strongly disagree      strongly agree
- 
17. I am indifferent to what is going on at school.
- 1      2      3      4      5
- strongly disagree      strongly agree
- 
8. I am having difficulties in concentrating on my lessons.
- 1      2      3      4
- strongly disagree      strongly agree
- 
18. I care utmost attention not to go closer to the students in the classroom.
- 1      2      3      4      5
- strongly disagree      strongly agree
- 
19. I am obsessed with falling ill.
- 1      2      3      4      5
- strongly disagree      strongly agree

20. Students' lack of communication discourages me.

1 2 3 4 5

---

strongly disagree

strongly agree

21. What else do you want to tell us?

---

### Professional Concerns

This part includes the questions regarding your profession-specific opinions during the controlled normalcy period.

22. I feel ready to teach face to face.

Yes

No

o

Not

sur




e

No idea



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## EFL learners' locus of control and translation achievement

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### Abstract

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

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**Keywords:** Locus of control; EFL learners; translation achievement; internal locus of control; external locus of control

### Introduction

Locus of control (LOC) is a kind of psychological construct which significantly affects individuals' motivation and language learning (Weiner, 1992). Individuals with an internal locus of control orientation tend to direct their success and failure to their efforts, while those with an external locus of control orientation believe that superficial values and beliefs such as

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luck and fate have much role. The concept of internal locus of control is related to Attribution Theory which is concerned with how and why individuals explain events as they do (Jarvis, 2005). Developed by Weiner (1992), the Theory of Attribution embraces four attributions, how the individuals see or understand success and failure in their life as effort, ability, success, and the level of difficulty of the tasks they are in. The nature of the attributions related to learners' success or failure was explained in three ways- locus of control, stability, and lastly controllability (Weiner, 1992). Locus of control indicates individuals' beliefs that can be controlled by events affecting them. Stability defines the idea that failure or success may have stable causes or unstable ones, and controllability is the situation that events or elements are within the individuals' control or not.

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

## **Literature review**

A locus of control is a construct depending on whether the results of individuals' actions are outcomes of what they do –internally- or on events outside their personal control –externally- (Zimbardo, 1985). Psychologist Julian Rotter proposed that human behaviors were directed by rewards and punishments, and that there was a potentially serious relationship between the causes and consequences for their actions (1966). This suggests that individuals' beliefs about the causes of their actions, in turn, influence their behaviors and attitudes (Kool, & Agrawal, 2006).

### *Internal locus of control*

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

### *External locus of control*

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

### *Locus of control and student achievement*

There are some studies corresponding to locus of control and academic achievement. All of these studies encapsulate to the same conclusion that students having an internal locus of control had greater academic achievement than students having an external locus of control (Uget, 2007). People having an internal locus of control admit that working hard and studying brings good grades and academic achievements. For this reason, they study and concentrate on their homework much more (Grantz, 2006). But people with an external locus of control have no control over the grade they get. Since they had bad experiences, they got low grades from school assignments, concluding them to have lower expectations from their academic life

(Grantz, 2006). They believe that any achievement they have will be good fortune or the task was too simple. They strongly believe that low success and the purposes they set are improbable (Uget, 2007). Beside the growing interest in locus of control and student achievement, awareness-raising studies on locus on control and student achievement have been recently pinpointed. In Bedel's (2012) study on the examination of locus of control, epistemological beliefs and metacognitive awareness levels of preservice early childhood education teachers, it was revealed that there were significant correlations between Locus of Control and Epistemological Beliefs Scale. This suggests that both locus of control and metacognitive awareness are interrelated.

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

### *Changing external locus of control*

When a student in any classroom setting seems to have a problem with his/her grades and does not have will for advancement, that student may have an external locus of control. (Grantz, 2006). To increase the motivation of the learners in a classroom setting, more specifically strengthening their internal locus of control, attribution training can be integrated into the learning environment. In the attribution training, students should be encouraged to specify positive things about themselves. For instance, "I can do this" or "This can be done with hard work". Students should train themselves on the regulations and change of the things they are interested in (Grantz, 2006). Students should be stimulated spiritually to combine their academic troubles with the reason of their adversities and they should be supervised to perform the effect of their behaviors (Uget, Habibah, & Jegak, 2007).

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

### *Purpose of the study*

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

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

## **Method**

### *Setting and participants*

The present research was conducted in the Department of English Language and Literature (ELL) at a state university in Turkey. Similar to all ELL departments in Turkey, the curriculum encapsulates compulsory translation courses for the junior and senior students in both fall and spring terms of the academic year. It is expected that students studying English Language and Literature have gained proficiency in both the target language and their native

languages conceptually and literarily. To increase EFL students' achievement in translation, some psychological factors such as locus of control, causing differences in the performance of the students are needed to be handled (Ellis, 2012). Additionally, understanding whether internalizers attribute success or failure of the EFL students or not, might enlighten instructors in decision making process for the students' translation achievement. The instructors teaching the translation courses in the department have educational background in translation studies and experiences in various national and international translation projects, which is stated in the background questionnaires collected in the very beginning of the research.

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

Prior to the data collection, the senior students at the ELL department of a state university were asked whether they would like to participate to a research study on translation studies and locus of control. They voluntarily participated in the research. The students gave consent for the use of their exam scores in the research. During the data collection process, the participants were informed about how to complete the scale, and were required to respond to each item. Additionally, they were expected to identify themselves with their full names in the scale. The participants were assured that the instructors of the translation course would not see the results of the scale. The researcher administered the inventory in the classrooms and the administration of the scale took about 30 minutes.

#### *Data collection instruments*

##### *Internal Locus of Control Index*



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

#### *The achievement instrument*

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

#### *Procedures for data collection and analysis*

Each participant's translation achievement was scored by GPA of the translation course exams. The mean scores of midterm and final exams in the fall term of 2013-2014 academic years were calculated. After the data collection process, the researcher checked the data to discover whether there were any abnormal data entries in the variables, and whether translation achievement scores were normally distributed. It is assumed that the participants ( $n=72$ ) from which the samples are taken are normally distributed. With large enough sample size, the violation of this assumption do not cause any major problems. The distributions of the scores for each participants were checked using histograms. Parametric tests were applied to analyse the collected data. Then, the statistical techniques to analyse the data were selected and then applied step by step by following each research question. Descriptive statistics, One-way ANOVA, Pearson correlation, and partial correlation were used as data analysis methods in the present study. Descriptive statistics was utilized to define the participants' frequent use of the items.

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

## Results and discussions

The results of descriptive statistics reveal that the most frequently nominated attributions of internal locus of control on translation achievement are as follows: The EFL students consider the different sides of an issue before making any decisions ( $M = 4.4444$ ,  $SD = .78523$ ); They like jobs where they can make decisions and be responsible for their own work ( $M = 4.3889$ ,  $SD = .88103$ ); If they want something they work hard to get it ( $M = 4.3056$ ,  $SD = .92901$ ); When something is going to affect them they learn as much about it as they can ( $M = 4.1176$ ,  $SD = .80167$ ); Whenever something good happens to them they feel it is because they've earned it ( $M = 4.1127$ ,  $SD = .94943$ ); Knowing they have done something well is more important than being praised by some else ( $M = 4.0857$ ,  $SD = 1.1130$ ); and they enjoy being in a position of leadership ( $M = 4.0000$ ,  $SD = .99293$ ).

Table 1. *Descriptive statistics*

Items (ILCI)	N	Mean	SD
IT10- I consider the different sides of an issue before making any decisions.	72	4.4444	.78523

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

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

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of translation achievement on the internal locus of control, as measured by the Internal Locus of Control Index (ILCI). Participants were divided into three groups according to their translation achievement (Group 1: 85 to 100; Group 2: 70 to 84; Group 3: 0 to 60). It was discovered that there was not a statistically significant difference in ILCI scores for the three achievement groups ( $F(2, 57) = 2.9, p = .059$ , significant at  $p < .05$ ). Despite reaching statistical significance, the mean scores between the groups was quite small. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ( $M = 109.42, SD = 8.18$ ) was significantly different from Group 2 ( $M = 99.14, SD = 9.59$ ) and Group 3 ( $M = 99.66, SD = 12.22$ ).

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

Groups	Mean difference	SD	F	P
Group 1      Group2	10.28	4.274	2.98	.050
Group3	9.761	4.598		.094

Group 2	Group 1	-10.28	4.274	2.98	.050
	Group 3	-.523			.983
Group 2	Group 1	9.76	4.598	2.98	.094
	Group 2	.523	2.994		.983

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

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

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

Table 3. Correlation between LOC and translation achievement

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

Note. \*significant at  $p < .05$

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

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

Table 4. Partial correlation

	N	p	r

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

Note. \*significant at  $p < .05$

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

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

## Conclusion

The present research was aimed at investigating the relationship between internal locus of control and EFL learners' translation achievement. The study also sought to explore whether there was a significant difference in locus of control among different groups of EFL learners. Most of the previous studies concerned with both internal and external dichotomy affirmed that internal locus of control compared to the external was more responsive for students' achievement in second language learning context. The present study clarified that the internal locus of control is additionally a challenging psychological construct for EFL learners' achievement in an EFL context. Findings of the present research also detected a relationship between the translation achievement and internal locus of control, as well as how learners were involved in their own success and failure. The internal locus of control is assumed to operate in various domains. Yet, without any conscious knowledge about the internal and external locus of control dichotomy, it would be difficult for EFL learners to have an active role in their own learning environment. Thus, EFL learners are expected to be more aware of internal and external locus of control. Finally, further studies can be conducted on what metacognitive strategies were used by both internally and externally focused EFL learners.

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

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