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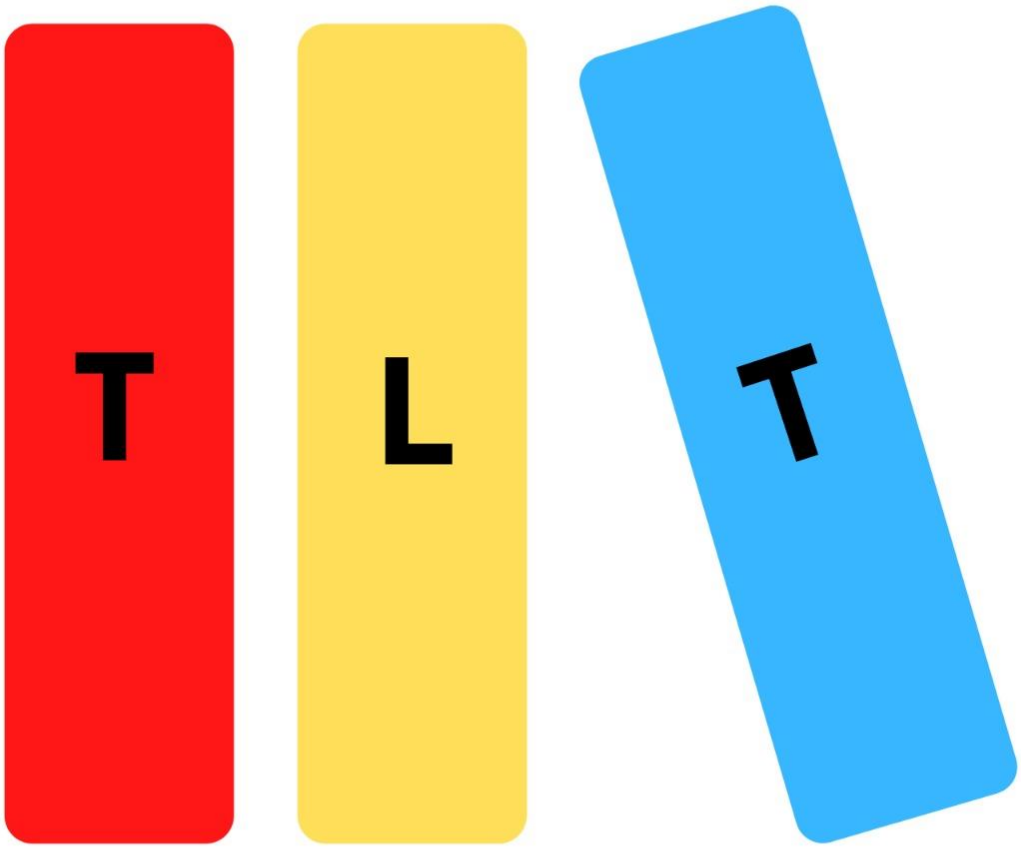

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CONTENT

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Bringing lecturing back to life: An interactive perspective into university literature classes

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Abstract
Lecturing is often seen as an outdated and tedious mode of teaching in university education due to its monologue-style content delivery. However, some lecturers tend to embrace a more interactive approach to ensure a democratic and participatory learning environment, in which students are encouraged to contribute to discussions, problem-solving or critical thinking tasks. This strategy allows participants to interact and cooperate more equally, which levels the power asymmetry between lecturer and students. In the light of this discussion, the data for this study was collected through audio recordings, interviews, observations, and field notes in the English Language and Literature Department at a state university in Turkey. Eight teaching hours were audio-recorded and transcribed with Jeffersonian transcription codes (1984) for an in-depth conversation analysis of classroom lecturer-student and student-student interaction. The data along with complementary information from interviews and notes were also used to identify the interactional architecture of academic lectures. Representative extracts are provided to illustrate how the strategies are put into use and presented in the interaction. This paper thus offers an insight into the interactive lectures and techniques used to make teaching more interactive and cooperative in content-based classrooms, which would potentially be beneficial for lecturers to develop an awareness of their interactional habits and language alternation practices.

Keywords
Interactive lectures, content-based classroom, higher education, conversation analysis, translanguaging.
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Introduction

As the backbone of university education, lecturing in higher education has been questioned in terms of its effectiveness over the years. Academics and also university students defend or deride lecturing as a type of teaching method as stated in many studies. While some of them find it dull, worthless and old-fashioned (Ben-Naim, 2012; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Clark, 2014; DiPiro, 2009; Dodd, 2015; Lambert, 2012;

Palmer, 2012); the others highlight the benefits of it by pointing to the pedagogical value of it (Charlton, 2006; Charlton, Marsh & Gurski, 2015; Cowling & Brack, 2015; Furedi, 2013; Gunderman, 2013; Penson, 2012; Wolff, 2013; Worthen, 2015). The ones who can see the good sides of it claim that whether a lecture will be beneficial or not depends on how it is put into practice (e.g. informative, engaging, inspiring, transformational), how students respond to it (e.g. quiet, bored, passive, engaged, attentive) and what their -lecturers' and students'- views are on lecturing. Gunderman (2013) makes an analogy between dancing and lecturing by stating that lecturing is "a kind of dance, in which lecturers and listeners watch, respond to, and draw energy and inspiration from each other" (p. 1). In other words, for an effective lecture, students show effort as much as the lecturer does as dance partners. Otherwise, if the effort was paid only by one partner, it would not work for both sides and the lecture would not deliver what it aimed for.

To elaborate on the problems that old-fashioned lecturing cause is that it does not develop interactional and practical skills that students need for real-life since lecturing as a teaching mode does not even attempt to fulfill these purposes. Thus, lecturing is blamed for not engaging students adequately and not being interactive for effective learning, which is important since knowledge can be retained and active learning is secured only through engagement (Bligh, 1971; Lambert, 2012; Prince, 2004). It has been proved that students' attendance has also been negatively affected by the lectures delivered, too (Cowling & Brack, 2015; Dawson, 2015; Gunderman, 2013; Gyspers, Johnston, Hancock & Denyer, 2011; Mitchell & Forer, 2010). If students are not engaged, they do not prefer to turn up for the class and would rather self-study (Hughes-Warrington, 2015).

Listening to a lecture in a non-native language can make content comprehension and participation even more challenging for students (Coleman, 2006; Ljosland, 2005) as they struggle to meet the linguistic demands of their fields (Lee & Bisman, 2006; Wagner & Huang, 2011). Many problems that these students face have been the topic of much research (Kırkgöz, 2014; Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2000). It is also claimed that students get "lost in a flood of the terminology" because they are challenged twice compared to other students who try to comprehend the content in their L1 in lectures (Teemant, 2010). This study aims to examine the lectures and strategies used to make the lectures interactive in literature courses. It will provide

insight into the interactional patterns of the lectures alongside a focus on the role and functions of translanguaging practices used by lecturers in the fields of Arts and Social Sciences.

Literature review

Interactive lecturing

Interactive lecturing is identified in various ways with multiple names such as give-and-take, participatory or interactive lecturing. While some names highlight the focus on interaction and its dimensions, some describe the lecture as interactive when students are involved with the lesson content mentally. Thus, what makes a lecture interactive or traditional can be intriguing. Thus, it is a question of whether a lecture can be considered as interactive if the students listen to the lecture and interact with the content and the ideas or not. However, it can be generalised that the lecture can be described as interactive if students are actively involved (Dudley-Evans, 1994). In other words, students are not passive attendants of the class; they take responsibility for their learning process by participation. In literature, several studies are proving the merits of interactive lecturing in various disciplines (Foley & Smilansky, 1980; Frederick 1986; Gage & Berliner, 1991; Papp & Miller, 1996; Saroyan & Snell, 1997; Steinert & Snell, 1999).

Another point is that when the mode of the course is defined as lecture, it is mostly considered that the content will be delivered by a faculty member to a large group of students in amphitheatres. Furthermore, it is never imagined to be an interactive mode of teaching. However, it is all about the way the lecture is designed and conducted, not about the size of the class since a reading-style lecture can be given to a small group too. Interactive lecturing gives the listeners the opportunity and right of having a voice and stating their opinions. Northcott (2001) simply defines interactive lecturing as “a classroom learning event for a large (more than 20) group of students primarily controlled and led by a lecturer and including subject input from the lecturer but also including varying degrees and types of oral participation by students.” (p. 19-20). In this type of lecturing, the lecturer breaks the asymmetry of

power distribution and shares her/his power with students. S/he gives up her/his role as the authority and knower and adopts new roles such as a facilitator, coach and guide.

Figure 1. Multiple dimensions of interactive lectures (Murphy & Sharma, 2010)

As can be seen in Figure 1, components of the interactive lecturing cycle are interrelated. As a cyclical process, active learning is directly affected by many variables such as student motivation, conditions for learning, interactive teaching and learning. However, it is hard to prove that interactive lecturing is more effective compared to the traditional one. It is believed that when students are engaged more, they will learn better compared to didactic forms. It is proved that students prefer interactive classes if they have a choice (Van Dijk et al., 2001; Lake, 2001). As aforementioned, the lecturer's and also students' personal views and experiences on lecturing can also have a strong effect on their motivation. For example, if an interactive lecture does not meet the features of how a good lecture should be in their minds, it will automatically affect the lecturer's mode of teaching and students' process.

Another interpersonal feature is the relationship between the lecturer and students. If students feel comfortable and secure participating in the lesson, they benefit from the lesson more (Crawford Camiciottoli, 2004, 2005; Fortanet, 2004; Hincks, 2005; Hood & Forey, 2005; Miller, 2002; Morell, 2004; Recski, 2005; Webber, 2005). Lecturers' power-sharing should establish a free context in which all participants have an equal right for contributing to the content. All of these will particularly increase the participation rate of non-native students with their personal linguistic collections (Kang, 2005).

On the contrary, some disadvantages of interactive lecturing have been studied too. When the lecture designs the lecture to be interactive, s/he cannot deliver the same amount of content so it is highly time-consuming (Lammers & Murphy, 2002). Thus, the lecturer has to reduce the content to make up for interactivity (Murray & Brightman, 1996). Next, the accuracy of the content can be at risk while discussion, so the lecturer needs to manage it like an orchestra conductor (Huxham, 2005).

Methodology

This present study combines different types of data collection methods to secure triangulation (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Watson-Gegeo, 1988). The main focus of the study is to explore what strategies promote interaction in lectures (by lecturers and students) and their views on interactive lectures in content-based literature classrooms. With a qualitative approach lens, a range of methodologies has been combined as follows:

- audio-recordings
- observation
- semi-structured interviews

Participants

The students are English language and literature students in different year groups. The lecturers who took part in this study are all members of the ELL department. They are all proficient users of English and have teaching experience ranging from 2 to 20 years. They all give lectures on literature, poetry, drama and English history by using English as the means of communication in the class. The lessons observed and audio recorded have a size of between 25 and 60 students. All the lecturers observed used interactive lectures as the mode of their teaching depending on the nature of the lesson content.

Data collection tools and processes

Students' and lecturers' interactive lecturing practices and their views on it were taken through various data collection methods. The audio recorded data were

analysed through conversation analysis, which helps the researchers to analyse "how the social organization of talk-in-interaction either shapes or contributes to language learning processes" (Mori & Markee, 2009, p. 1). It is particularly utilised for examining interaction patterns and strategies used for promoting engagement. In this way, both single utterances and talk in general in its sequence can be analysed in their natural interactional environment. Some details such as how each turn is constructed and how participants position themselves to each other and to the context can be captured. Classroom interaction can only be decoded if pedagogical purposes and the organisation of language produced in the class are scrutinised thoroughly (Mori, 2002; Walsh, 2006). Auer (1984) stresses the importance of language choice in the classroom interaction since "whatever language a participant chooses for the organisation of his/her turn, or for an utterance which is part of the turn, the choice exerts an influence on subsequent language choices by the same or other speakers" (p. 5). For that reason, each turn of the participants should be analysed by evaluating the preceding and following turns.

Through a semi-structured interview, lecturers and students were asked to reflect their own experiences and observation about the strategies they believe and think promote interaction in their classes. Thus, they were asked about the characteristics of a content-based interactive lecture delivered in English and also a lecturer who uses various strategies to make students participate actively. The data were analysed via content analysis (Creswell, 2014). The data analysis process lasted continuously because "codes should not be defined as rigid regularities with sharp boundaries; they can also cover varying forms" (Hatch, 2002, p. 198). The themes and categories are derived from student and lecturer responses. They are all clearly stated by the majority of the students as the prevailing view of the participants.

After the study was approved by the Ethics Committee for Research Studies at the University, appointments were made to meet and inform the member of the teaching staff about the specifics of the study. The lecturers and students who volunteered were asked for their written consent and their classes were audio-recorded and observed weekly. The population of the classes including new and repeat students differed significantly. The length of each recording fluctuated as the courses were taught in one or two breaks at varying times, total in a three lesson-hour

slot (45 minutes each) a week. Table 1 presents the description of analysed interactive literature lectures at the university level.

Table 1. Description of analysed interactive lectures

Lecture	A	B	C
Course Title	Postcolonial Literature	Masterpieces of World Literature	Analysis of Poetry
Topic	Race, ethnicity and racialisation, neo-colonialism, Kehinde	Heart of Darkness by Joseph Conrad	"To be or not to be" from Hamlet by W.S.
Year of Degree	4th	2nd	1st
Number of Students	65	47	58
Lecturer	Female, (20 years of experience)	Male (15 years of experience)	Male (15 years of experience)
Recorded lesson Hours (45 mins each)	4	2	1

Data Analysis and Results

To give a general picture of the lecturers; the lecturer used clear and slow speech with a primarily questioning tone, posing questions is the norm of the lecture and the lecturers established good interpersonal relations with students. Each of these is studied thoroughly in the following paragraphs alongside extracts taken from the data. This section provides the data results gathered from the audio recordings and observation. (L: lecturer, S: student, and SS: several students)

Audio recorded data and Observation

Use of Questions

Directing questions to the students is one of the common and practical methods of interactive lectures. Questions and responses given to them address many functions in the class such as stimulating interest, arousing attention, serving as an 'ice breaker' and providing valuable feedback to the teacher and other students (Knox, 1986). Questions can be directed in several forms such as straightforward, brainstorming and rhetorical questions. They all address different functions. The first one is straightforward questions that are posed for direct answers, thus they generally start with a wh- question as open-ended questions (Foley & Smilansky, 1980; Schwenk & Whitman, 1987). The second one refers to the process of which all students join in to

generate a part of a general idea (Newble & Cannon, 1994; Schwenk & Whitman, 1987). It can be good for students because they share the mental burden of stating an opinion in front of her/his peers. The ideas can be organised on the board and key points can be highlighted. This type is more common when a new topic is introduced, the pace of the class needs to be improved, students' attention needs to be regained or the topic needs to be summarised. The last type is a rhetorical question which refers to questions posed but no answer is expected from the audience. They perform the function of stimulating thought and generating discussion. They are mostly employed at the beginning of the lesson. If it is a topic that the teacher wants to build on, these questions are used for recalling the information that has been covered before.

Extract 1

> L: do you ↑think that races are necessary to↑divide certain people in a group ↑to exclude others?... (0.2) *acaba°öyle ↑kaçınılmaz bir tarafı mı oluyor*?...do you ↑think ↑Eastern societies are devising these concepts racialization?...when we say ↑others ↑who do we ↑mean? (Lecture A)

This extract was taken from a Postcolonial Literature course offered for third-year ELL students. The class starts with a discussion about race and ethnicity. The lecturer reads extracts from the book and then initiates a discussion. The extract shows that the lecturer makes good use of questions in different forms and languages to initiate a classroom discussion. After a two-second silence, s/he delivers the same question in the mother tongue to invite students into brainstorming and discussion. This seems to be a strategy to present what the class will explore and interpret in the lesson. The lecturer introduces the subject matter and familiarises the students with it by inviting them to reflect on it in any language they have in their repertoire. In this way, the students are incorporated and their attention is attracted to the content of the lesson regardless of their proficiency levels.

Use of Student Responses

Taking students' responses as a base and building the content on it slowly and gradually is another technique used in these classrooms. As soon as the teacher poses questions, they are answered by students. At this point, how students are provided with feedback about their responses is highly important because when students receive positive feedback, their further contributions are encouraged. On the contrary,

if their contribution is ignored by the teacher, this behaviour can completely stop. If it is a content-based class like the one in the present study, lecturers should be very careful about how they are going to provide feedback. If the students have a problem with the language -so common in a non-native context-, the lecturer should prioritize the contribution, not the language error. However, the lecturer can strategically take this opportunity to teach them the corrected version of the student's contribution (Kramsch, 1987), the lecturer strategically does not risk students' future contributions by correcting her/him directly but makes a clarification request. In this way, s/he avoids face-threatening the student who has participated and provides a model for other students who also have the potential of misunderstanding or understanding the topic vaguely.

Extract 2

S: ok race is about ↑how we perceive the ↑other race related with the ideology of others

L: huh uh when we say ↑others ↑who do we ↑mean?

S: who is not from us?

L: ↑not from us umm ↑who are ↑us? (Ss laughter)

S: males

L: ↑male middle class people ok (Lecture A)

In Extract 2, the class has a debate on "me" and "the other" in the context of colonialism and discusses the literary works featured in the course. They attempt to explain "me" and "the other" in the context with their justifications. In these lectures, the students' and lecturers' turns are closely linked to each other just like a closely-knit construction as they show "contingent responsiveness" (Wells, 1999). Each turn is closely knotted sequentially to each other just like links in a chain. During the lessons, the lecturers and students continuously mix different features of their repertoire to achieve meaning, so they utilise all meaning-making resources to be able to convey the meaning across (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015; 2018). The lecturer hopes to increase student engagement and interactivity by inviting students to think and respond more to the questions.

Use of handouts

Using handouts for the lecture is a way of facilitating interaction. Handouts can be considered as the skeleton notes that can be reflected on, analysed, and discussed. These materials assist students in the organization of key points and also promote terminology. They also help students accomplish note-taking during the lecture as they do not need to catch every single word that proceeds out of the lecturer's mouth. Following the lecture also becomes easier when students have a written copy of the content (Beard & Hartley, 1984; Butler, 1992). Thus, the content is not only delivered verbally, it is also provided in written forms. Handouts are generally preferred to be shared before the lecture so that students come into the class prepared. Thus, the written works of art, novels, a selection of poems, etc. can be provided in advance so students can self-study before they turn up for the lesson.

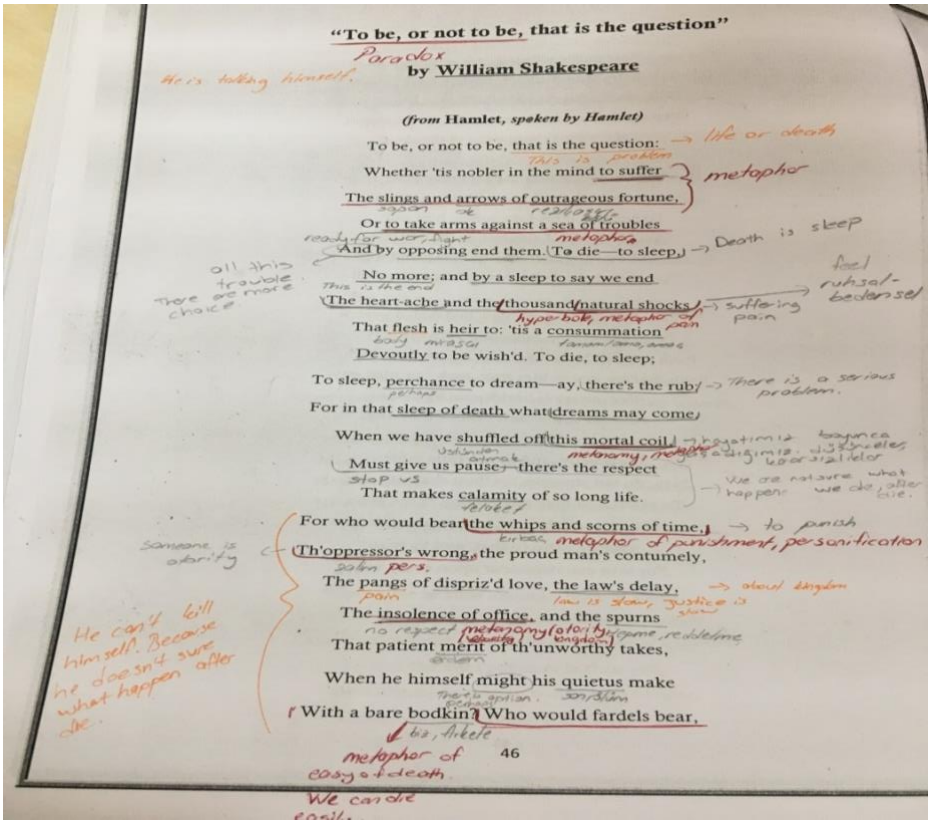

Figure 1. A sample student note taken in poetry class

Use of translation

Translation which is a common practice in literature classes has become the norm of content delivery in some courses. It is also accepted as a pedagogical strategy of translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2013). Three types of translation are particularly frequent. These are "translating for the whole class", "for

certain students" and "for certain terminology" (Lewis et al., 2013). The main reason why students use their L1 in these lessons is for a deeper understanding as English is not the home language of the students. By using both languages in their collections, students can discuss the topic in great detail. Another reason is that there are many translated copies of internationally popular works of art by several translators. To gain a critical outlook, students read, analyse and discuss the content from different perspectives and different versions of the same work of art. While translation is practiced in the classroom, students try to reproduce an utterance that is already produced in one language in another one (Creese, Blackledge & Hu, 2016).

Extract 3

L : =↑sedentary life ↑what is ↑it?

S2: *sakin.*

S3: relaxed (0.2)

S2: ↑tranquil life.

L : ↑tranquil they are alo:ne on their ↑own with their whole existence (Lecture B)

In this extract, the lecturer encourages students to translate for checking the meaning of a word in the novel they are studying. Students (S2 & S3) provide the meaning of them bilingually, in the languages they know. The lecturer allows these students to translate the word for the whole class as it carries important meaning for the rest of the story too.

Use of acting-out

Acting out is another creative technique used by lecturers depending on the lesson content. Lecturers adopt a tone to get the attention of more students by acting out the scenario in a novel or a play and to present the content by experiencing an extract of the content. The lecturer can use her/his voice as a meaning-making resource to get the message forward. This method also increases student involvement as it also promotes a sense of humour in the class.

Extract 4

L: yes, ↑what do you ↑think about the ↑sentence she ↑doesn't say that ↑Nigerian culture is ↑bad I ↑don't want to go back to Nigeria is ↑primitive traditional I ADORE ↑British culture° she doesn't say that° but she says ((s/he reads out from the book))(.) the home belongs to men in Nigeria even if the women spent her entire life keeping it in order ((s/he stops reading out))so what do you ↑think about her ↑criticism?=

S1: =*evi çekip çeviren kadın olmasına rağmen herşeyin erkeğe ait olması ev işlerinin*

L: ↑*evet ama bunu* ↑*nasıl yapıyor umm hani* do you ↑think she is BLAMING the country ↑huh=

S2: =*güzel güzel*=

L: =*güzel güzel tatlı tatlı yani* (.) *alttan alttan* ((L pretends to be Kehinde))↑Nigeria *hani sende bunu yaptın bize* ↑*evleri*↑*erkeklere verdin biz de ev işlerini* ↑*yaptık* ((L stops pretending))° *diyor* ° ↑next paragraph (Lecture A)

In Extract 4, the lecturer positions her/himself from her/his position as a lecturer to a protagonist of the novel and also a performer of the text because s/he recontextualises the literary text by voicing the character. This act reveals the lecturer's critical opinion furtively. Making the character speak in students' home language also helps them to understand the traits' of the protagonist, which also familiarises the character with the students. Another point worth mentioning in this extract is that students are allowed to use their L1 or translanguage freely while analysing the literary works as long as they do not abuse the language policy aimlessly. Their contribution is appreciated and valued by the lecturer as s/he matches her/his preferred language (L1-L1) while giving feedback to them. The lecturer continues translanguaging and asks a critical question to encourage the students to contemplate more on the attitude of the female character in response to her husband's will to move back to Nigeria. As there are similarities between the students' home culture and the protagonist's, L1 is also used for bridging between cultures. In other words, comparisons are drawn between the two countries, their values and traditions. Student 1 is given feedback in the students' preferred language; before shifting to L2, which is a strategy to stick with the language policy of the course and avoid students' talking out of the topic.

Use of entire linguistic repertoire (translanguaging)

There are several common distinct translanguaging practices in literature classes. For example, primary and secondary sources (such as a theory book and a novel) are used extensively to deliver new content (Gee, 2012). During the lectures, the resource book or articles on the related theory are read aloud by the lecturer or the students and a class discussion featuring translanguaging follows as a common practice. Students are allowed to get support from their L1 if necessary, to express themselves clearly and self-assuredly. Therefore, it can be said that translanguaging boosts students' self-confidence (Xhemaili, 2017). According to Baker (2011), reading a text in one language and discussing it in another language and then taking notes about it requires a lot of mental processes, yet these allow students to digest the subject matter gradually but deeply.

Extract 5 is from the "Analysis of Poetry II" course that is taken by one of the recorded lessons offered for freshman students. In general, the lecturer reads the poem aloud for the first time and then also asks students to read aloud. The class carries out a line-by-line analysis with a different focal point each time. The lesson aims for the students to be interactive and cooperative. In this particular lesson, the students are reading *A Valediction: Forbidding Mourning* by John Donne.

Extract 5

> L: also an image it is a ↑simile also an image because you know a gold is beaten ↑so it is like ↑shaped okay ↑moulded° and° ↑shaped *ısıtılmış bir altını düşünün işte şekil veriyorlar o kadar ↑inceliyor ki diyor ↑hava kadar ↑ince* airy thinness and the ↑next stanza (Lecture C)

The lecturer translates what they say and restate it in L1 to unpack the meaning of the simile for each student in the class. In this way, the meaning is made clear and understandable for all students no matter what their level of English proficiency is, so then they have more chance to understand why that part represents "simile". To elaborate on this, L1 is used to refer to the material used (e.g. a literary work). In conclusion, the same information is presented multilingually (Creese, Blackledge & Hu, 2018) to thwart misunderstandings. The students need help with accommodating

and making information more memorable and comprehensible. Another advantage of having the same information in two languages is the students' two-way and multilingual acquisition of knowledge and access to a larger and more comprehensive linguistic medium. The lecturers stated that they use this flexible practice to build more humanistic relations with the students.

Use of L2 for Alienation

Some cultural, religious or sexual topics can potentially be taboo for some groups of students. In these cases, using L2 can be considered to be more appropriate and acceptable as it would be impossible for some of them to discuss it in their L1 openly (Inci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2021). This can only work in contexts where the language of the content delivery and the language of everyday interaction are different from each other. In the data, it can be tracked that students are advised to use their L2 only when they are stuck with the topic not because of their low level of proficiency, but because of the sensitivity of the topic. The non-native language puts some distance between the student and the topic, thus they can manage to comment on it in L2. To illustrate, a novel titled Kehinde by *Buchi Emecheta* is read aloud and discussed in the lesson. There is a part where a detailed description of Albert and his second wife having a sexual relationship is described and a student wants to comment on it but feels uneasy about how s/he can express her/himself.

Extract 6

L: *istersen ↑İngilizce konuş ↑Türkçede daha ↑şey olabilir* ((laughter)) *ben bu durumlarda ↑ingilizceye dönüyorum* ((laughter))

S6: ↑ok u:mmmm= ((S6 holds the floor but does not start speaking))

L: =*ya ↑sen bilirsin nasıl istersen*

S6: two people come together and (.)↑united u:mm

L: ↑united kingdom ((laughter))

S6: ↑sexually united I think this is not only ↑human suffer actually this is not ↑woman's fault [regarding this having children or a baby in this case

L: [yes (Lecture A)

In Extract 6, student 6 self-nominates her/himself to comment on the extract but the students are supposed to put their ideas into words in an appropriate manner. The lecturer interjects with a suggestion to use particularly L2. Here is the unique example of the lecturer asking students to use L2, so s/he continues to hold the floor with the discourse marker "ummm". In the middle of the interaction, the lecturer tries to ease the atmosphere by using humour and gets laughter from the students. As it can be traced from the data, "unite" is not the right word for having sexual intercourse, thus it is also highlighted furtively. This extract shows how interaction flows by using some strategies although students have to deal with complex and challenging topics such as sexuality.

Use of discourse markers and signposts

Another way of holding the attention of the audience on the content is by utilising the discourse markers and signposts. In this way, the student can follow the lesson very easily and her/his attention has not been gradually disrupted. These markers also give clues about which parts are more important compared to the other details mentioned in the flow of the lecture. Thus, lecturers should use discourse markers such as giving some procedural information: "next paragraph" in L2, which serves as an "entry-device" to the following section (Alfonzetti, 1998, p. 193) and highlights shifts. These moves are common in literature interactions, which are used for calling and holding the attention of students on the topic.

Extract 7

> ↑next paragraph, let's continue with…, let's have a look…, can you see where it says…, *şu ikinci paragrafa bir bakalım, hani.. vardı ya…ikinci ders Kehinde yapalım* (Lecture A)

The lecturer starts/continues with a rising intonation to get/hold the attention of students who has difficulty concentrating.

Building rapport with students

Building rapport with students is highly important so they feel valued and respected in the class. Lecturers can do so by giving positive feedback to students, sharing some personal anecdotes by relating to the content, using some reference words, calling

them by their names, etc. In these literature classes, lecturers always address students by "*arkadaşlar"* and "*gençler*" and students refer to the lecturers as "*hocam*". Students and lecturers favour speaking in ways that felt natural to them. Assigning some languages to particularly some activities is so common among speakers. While L1 is mostly used for "in-group, informal and personal activities" (Gumperz, 1982, p. 66), L2 is used for more formal and out-group relations. Giving students the opportunity of bringing their personal backgrounds, which include their cultural and personal histories should be respected, encouraged, and valued since these practices are vital for students' identity construction (Leeman & Serafini, 2016).

Use of humour/creativity

Using a sense of humour in the class is also another way of building rapport between students and the lecturer as it turns the class into an atmosphere where students can share their ideas freely. Laughter also allows students to release their tension and this will ease the concentration problems many students experience in an atmosphere where they have to speak a non-native language (Flowerdew & Miller, 1996). To hold the attention of students, the lecturers employ some strategies such as using humour or creativity (Inbar-Lourie, 2010) because these tactics hold students' attention and comfort them in this challenging context. It is the mid-half of the discussion, covering "neo-colonialism" and its consequences on society and their cultures; the lecturer uses an idiomatic statement "tamamen duygusal," to indicate that financial matters are at the centre of the issue.

Extract 8

> L: *evet o zaman güçlü olmak lazım o da ↑nasıl olur ↑peki geçen biz bir öğrencimle daha tartışıyorduk şeyle ilgili şimdi bu colonialism'in bi ↑politik ayağı var* ↑military *var ↑ekonomi var* CULTURAL colonialism *var mesela en son ↑şey dedik aslında hepsinin temelinde ↑ekonomi var işte sizde birçok derste diyorsunuz kapitalizm meselesi sizce de tamamen duygusal* ((laughter)) *↑ekonomik bir mesele mi hepsinin temelinde*
>
> S10: money ↑talks°*yani*°((laughter)) (Lecture A)

The idiomatic expressions and statements in L1 raise the effectiveness and strength of the talk and the lecturer's explanations. Student 10 responds with another idiomatic expression "money talks" in the original language aligning with the lecturer. Thus, the

same statement that has an idiomatic meaning is produced bilingually – in L1 by the lecturer, in L2 by student 10. This extract shows that the students are active listeners and they are as creative as the lecturer. Each turn creates the desired effect: laughter. Here we see an interesting example of translanguaging showing students' creativity with idiomatic expressions. As Wei states (2011), "creativity and criticality are two characteristics of translanguaging" (p. 1223) and they are closely connected. Thus, the lecture should be in tune with the students' responses and lead them toward the objectives of the course.

Reducing the class size/ Using videos / Organising seminars

Giving lectures to a large class is more challenging than a small one if it is designed to be interactive. In small groups, students can be more involved, and comprehend better (Butler, 1992; McKeachie, 1994). In literature classes, this strategy is also used, the class is generally broken into two or smaller groups. In this way, students get more attention from the lecturer, they feel better in a relatively smaller crowd and they can contribute to the lesson more.

Showing short videos about the content can also stimulate thinking, generate interaction and trigger discussion (Segall et al., 1975) by breaking the standard and tedious cycle of lecturing. In these literature classes, lecturers use videos based on the novels or poems they have been analysing from time to time. Showing parts from the movies and making a comparison of the book and the film version also allow students to improve their critical skills. Arranging seminars or talks by an expert in the field can also promote discussion and full attention. It is generally pre-planned weeks ago and can be an extra burden for the lecturer, but its positive effects on the content and teaching cannot be unfairly undervalued.

Interview results

A total of 15 students and 6 lecturers participated in a semi-structured interview and they were asked what they think about participation in literature classes.

Student views

ELL students were asked about their attitudes towards interactive lecturing. They stated that when they participate in the lesson physically and mentally, they are aware that their efforts are well-appreciated by the lecturers.

> When we are learning about a novel for example Dracula, we read it in English, in Turkish with different translations, discuss it in the class and watch the movie so we learn it better. Student 10, Year 3

> Lecturers always appreciate our contribution so we are never scared of being ashamed in the class. Student 7, Year 3

The lessons are conducted in large classes but they stated that they can state their opinion freely in their own preferred language. As long as what they are stating contributes to the topic of discussion, they are positively encouraged.

> Sometimes I prefer using L1 for my contribution because I feel that it can only express my point the best. Student 5, Year 1

The majority of the students mentioned that they lose their attention in a lengthy class. They also stated that the language policy of the course (L2) contributes to their lack of concentration, too.

> I lose my concentration very quickly when I don't take a turn-the lecture gets really boring. Student 3, Year 2

Thus, they state that they enjoy attending some classes more since the lecturers who deliver these courses know how they can hold students' attention for a longer time. Having a good sense of humour is a quality that university students are looking for in a lecture because humour lightens the moods of the class and breaks the tension. As students feel the lecturer is more approachable, it affects their participation in the class significantly.

> I like it when the lecturer makes jokes and has a relaxed attitude so we have the courage what we are going to say without the slightest hesitation. Student 1, Year 3

Some of the students mentioned how the atmosphere of the class affects their participation. The lessons that are constantly corrected or the ones the lecturer prefers to speak more instead of promoting students to be more involved are considered to be monotonous.

> For example, when somebody mispronounces a word, we burst into laughter as a class. Student 8, Year 4

They also admitted that even the numbers of students attending these classes considerably change. The ones they call "interactive" are attended by more students and called to be "enjoyable" to be in.

Lecturer views

ELL lecturers kindly participated in the semi-structured interview in order to answer questions about their attitudes towards interactive lecturing. All the lecturers highlighted the importance of participation in the courses. The lecturers stated that with the flow of the lesson, they admitted that the topics are so controversial that they forget about the language policy of the course and use the language they feel more comfortable expressing themselves with. A lecturer has also stated that they share a lot of similarities with the students such as nation, language, identity, etc. Thus, they use their L1 in tandem with L2 and they feel no regret for it.

> If I feel that a Turkish expression fits the best to the context, why do I use it (L1) furtively? Lecturer 1

However, lecturers elaborated on this by saying that it does not mean that they abuse the policy randomly; the amount of L1 use never exceeds the L2 one. They all clarify that they are trying to have an interactive, student-centered, content-focused way of teaching mode. All lecturers mentioned that they try to create a comfortable, non-threatening class atmosphere. Thus, they especially mentioned that they never correct student mistakes directly. If mistakes affect the meaning, they mostly use recasting as a face-saving act.

> In this department, we expect students to analyse, synthesise, comment on and develop critical skills. Lecturer 5

> I never correct student mistakes because it makes more harm than good. I don't prefer risking students' participation in a minor grammatical mistake. Lecturer 3

Some lecturers also mentioned how they make their classes more attractive besides making them interactive in order to encourage students' participation. One

way is that what is discussed in the class is also assessed in their examination as a way of preventing students from dropping out of school. Another way is that they do not demonstrate her/his authority in the class and students do not challenge it too, they stated.

> There is an unwritten contract between us and students. Lecturer 2

Concerning language policy, most of the lecturers also mentioned that they have a more disciplined and strict attitude towards freshman students and their use of languages as a way of apprenticing students to the department. As students are apprenticed into the department, their level of L2 proficiency improves and they prove that they can already state their opinions in L2 with ease, and students and lecturers get to know each other, the lectures become more relaxed, and they have more lively discussions with a touch of humour.

> We (lecturers and students) both enjoy the lessons with hot discussions and jokes around. Lecturer 6

> I am sometimes in a half joke mood with a serious face to keep the students alert. Lecturer 3

Half of the lecturers highlighted that the content of the course determines how interactive the class can be conducted. There are applied and theory-based classes. In theory-based classes, students can be positioned as passive receivers of the content delivered to them by lecturers. However, for applied courses such as readings of poems, literary works allow lecturers to analyse the literary works, which generates a lot of discussions.

> Student participation can sometimes be content-oriented. Lecturer 4

To sum up, interviews clarify that the amount of interaction in the lecture is determined by many factors. The first one is the lecturers' attitude toward lecturing. If they have a sense of empathy and think that students can learn better by participating in the lesson, this factor can be an asset. Another factor is that lecturers should have good interpersonal relationships with students by building rapport with them. Thus, students can be willing to share their opinions as they would feel secure in the class. In a class where students are criticized, not allowed to build up and show their identity, are corrected harshly because of their mistakes may not even come into the

class physically. How the lecturer treats students and their errors is crucial in the class. Unless students feel comfortable and secure, they would not prefer to participate in the lesson. The third factor is the content that allows lecturers to conduct their classes with participation or not. As can be inferred from both student and lecturer interviews, these three main factors play important roles in promoting student participation in ELL classes.

Discussion and Conclusion

This present study has investigated the interactive literature lectures at a Turkish public university. Content-based classes in tertiary education settings include interactive episodes and examining these lectures can provide us with the characteristic features of interactive lecturing in these field-specific classes. As aforementioned, studying at a university in which the official language is not native is highly challenging for students. Lectures play an important part in students' comprehension of the content and thus their success (Hong & Basturkmen, 2020; Basturkmen & Shackleford, 2015). What makes students more engaged and active participants in the lesson has been given special focus as they are the factors that make the lecturing interactive. Another point is that while the same member of the department has a highly interactive class with strategies clarified above, s/he can prefer a monologue-type lecturing for another course s/he gives. In other words, it is possible to conclude that the mode of lecturing is highly context-sensitive and -dependent by nature.

As a descriptive study, this study helps us to build better knowledge about the features of interactive lectures, good uses of some interactive methods within lectures, and techniques of developing such approaches within a variety of institutional and disciplinary contexts. In fact, a lecturer's attitude and beliefs towards the teaching and learning experience of content and language will directly control the chance of interactive lecturing. In other words, the methods are also individual-dependent as lecturers' views such as whether they believe in their benefits or not, how they put it to good use, and their belief about how lecturing can be done best highly affects the outcome of the lectures. All these factors will have considerable implications both for

the future of lecturing in higher education and the assigned roles of university lecturers.

Each study on this topic can and should be studied with its very specific settings by providing the ethnographic details of it. These studies aim for revealing the unknown details of how lecturers extend the possibilities of learning in lecture-theatre settings. On a more general scale, further study might be needed in four directions. Firstly, a similar research methodology can be followed to compare and contrast whether content classes in other settings and also disciplines use similar methods for making the lesson more interactive can be conducted for further studies. Secondly, we are also particularly interested in how this lesson would be conducted in a lesson in natural sciences such as lecturing in an engineering department. The methods used can depend on the lecturers and their different ways of delivering their classes. Thirdly, observing more lecturers or lecturers in different disciplinary fields can significantly extend the scope of the study. Finally, another study can be on a comparison of interactive lecturing conducted by experienced and less experienced lecturers. These extensions in four different directions can build on the research of the related field and provide a bigger picture of interactive lectures in content-based classes.

This study has carefully scrutinised how lecturers make their lectures more interactive by utilizing some methods. By taking the methods aforementioned into account, lecturers can benefit from these tips to make their classes more interactive.

- **Be a risk-taker:** By making a risk assessment, lecturers can evaluate all the variables and be ready for them.
- **Be prepared:** Lecturers should plan their lessons in detail such as the questions they will pose, how much time is needed, etc.
- **Reconsider the content:** Lecturers should keep in their mind that time management is really important for interactive lecturers. They should be aware that they can easily cover more in a traditional lecture compared to interactive lectures. Thus, the course content should be reevaluated sensibly.
- **Assign roles:** If students are not familiar with interactive lecturing, the lecturer should set the tone, and the atmosphere, and assign the roles before

starting the activity. As they are used to sitting and listening, they can be surprised and unwilling to participate.

- **Be reasonably flexible:** Lecturers should be consistent with how they conduct the lesson and apply their presentation skills to their lectures gradually, instead of changing everything upside down at once. Thus, they also know what works well, and what needs improving through time.

In short, it has become crucially important for a lecturer to know what interactive lecturing is, how it is conducted, what factors affect it, and what techniques are available for promoting participation. If lecturers have a positive attitude towards the benefits of participation, promoting critical thinking will utilise interactive lecturing more in their classes. They also value making students explore the information by analysing, synthesising, making connections, comparing, contrasting, questioning, and creating through interaction.

As a limitation, the study has been conducted at a single university. However, as the data have been collected through different data collection tools, it can only provide a general picture of these lectures. Seven lectures by two lecturers have been observed, but observing more hours by different lecturers would have been much better to have a deeper understanding. Thus, it can be concluded that lecturing in different settings and disciplines can make lectures interactive in different ways. For example, if students' proficiency levels are high, the language can be dealt with in different ways and the focus of the lesson might be on field-specific vocabulary as an example. Another limitation is that this study cannot give implications about whether the students have learned or used the knowledge they have covered in interactive lectures because these were beyond the scope of this study.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

The impact of an explicit grammar knowledge course on the development of grammatical awareness in UK native speakers' pre-service TESOL education

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Abstract

This paper contributes to conversations which examine the effectiveness of grammar knowledge courses in native speaker (NS) UK pre-service TESOL education. A three-year longitudinal study was undertaken at a UK university. It explored 10 UK NS participants' ability to demonstrate grammatical awareness during their TESOL practicum after studying a 48-contact hour explicit grammar knowledge course before procedural TESOL education began. Quantitative and qualitative, deductive, and inductive thematic coding were undertaken using the participants' reflective teaching summaries and interview transcripts to identify examples of established grammar awareness themes. Findings indicated that the participants considered the process of gaining grammar knowledge challenging but essential for TESOL. Grammatical awareness was demonstrated through metalinguistic knowledge, metalanguage, noticing and language teaching beliefs during the practicum.

Keywords
Explicit grammar knowledge; grammatical awareness; implicit grammar knowledge; TESOL; Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
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Introduction

The lack of explicit grammar knowledge held by native speakers (NS) in the Anglophone world has been identified as problematic for over 35 years. In 1986, Bloor stated that NS undergraduates demonstrated "fairly widespread ignorance" (Bloor, 1986, p.159), in their ability to identify and label parts of speech. Since that time, many commentators have supported the findings through research that has explored NS' explicit grammar knowledge (Alderson, Clapham, & Steel, 1997; Alderson & Hudson, 2013; S. Andrews, 1994, 1999; Author, 2016; Chandler, Robinson, & Noyes, 1988; Harper & Rennie, 2009; Myhill, Jones, & Watson, 2013; Williamson & Hardman, 1995; Wray, 1993). The reason for the situation is because NS do not study explicit grammar knowledge in secondary school (Crystal, 2018), which is unlike most

European countries who consider it "… an important part of their school curriculum" (Hudson, 2016, p.289). The lack of knowledge impacts on NS entering pre-service (P-S) TESOL education because explicit grammar is an essential part of a teacher's acumen. In TESOL, grammar learning has not altered over time (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Traditional grammar, which focuses on accuracy of form, learning rules and completing exercises (Jean & Simard, 2011: cited in Larsen Freeman, 2015) is taught in classrooms globally. To address NS' knowledge gap, explicit grammar courses have been designed and delivered on an ad hoc basis by some TESOL educators. However, research into how the courses' impact on pedagogy is inconclusive (Bell, 2016; Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Borg, 2006; Hislam & Cajkler, 2005). This paper contributes to those conversations through one research question, which is:

> RQ1: What individual grammatical awareness do UK NS, who have studied a 48-contact hour explicit grammar knowledge course, demonstrate during their pre-service TESOL practicum?

Literature Review

Grammar consists of two knowledge bases (Adamson, 1907; Sweet, 1892), which are either explicit or implicit. Explicit grammar knowledge is attained through scientific study. Knowledge is conscious and verbalizable because the rules of language are understood (Ellis, 2004; Malderez, 2007). Alternatively, implicit knowledge is the attainment of language use, where the knowledge is unconscious and cannot be verbalized or intentionally retrieved (Isbell & Rogers, 2020). Importantly, both knowledge bases can be used proficiently as independent units.

NS from the UK and Anglophone countries have strong implicit grammar knowledge, which is acquired naturally and demonstrated through proficient usage (Chomsky, 1957). The rules of language are below a level of consciousness, and an ability to be creative with language is understood (Stern, 1983). NS can use English without having to give any scientific thought to what is being said, just like we can breathe without needing knowledge of the chemical constituents of air (O.U.,2014). Alternatively, explicit grammar knowledge needs study to verbalise (Svalberg, 2015). Study leads to an understanding about the form and use of parts of speech, word inflection, inflection of verb forms for tense, mood, aspect and voice, and the rules of

syntax. It goes beyond an understanding of what is correct or incorrect and leads towards a linguistic knowledge base which is "immense" (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005, p.616).

Grammatical awareness is an expansion of grammar knowledge, which develops from a deep and wide-ranging understanding of both the implicit and explicit knowledge bases (Duff, 1988). Teachers with grammatical awareness are better equipped to deal with classroom circumstances, which enable them to: earn learner confidence by having grammatical terminology to present new language effectively, anticipate language problems, deal with errors and identify areas where additional knowledge can be given (Cook, 2008). Andrews (1994) produced a list of grammatical areas (presented in figure 1), which impact on teaching behaviour and are required to demonstrate awareness for grammar teaching.

1. "Knowledge of grammatical terminology
2. Understanding of the concepts associated with the terms
3. Awareness of meaning/language in communication
4. Ability to reflect on language and analyze language forms
5. Ability to select and grade language and break down grammar points for teaching
6. purposes
7. Ability to analyze grammar from learners' perspective
8. Ability to anticipate learners' grammatical difficulties
9. Ability to deal confidently with spontaneous grammar questions
10. Ability to explain grammar to students without complex meta language
11. Awareness of 'correctness' and ability to justify an opinion about what is acceptable usage and what is not
12. Sensitivity to language/awareness of how language works"(Andrews, 1994, p.75, cited in: Andrews, 2007, p.35)

Figure 1. List of grammatical areas that impact on teaching

Andrews' (1994) list provides a useful inventory as it clarifies grammar knowledge needed to develop grammatical awareness. However, it also highlights the challenges NS have when they have not gained explicit grammar knowledge prior to TESOL education. Only three points, which are 3,10 and 11, are related to implicit grammar knowledge. The other eight points require explicit grammar knowledge to applied to reflection for action (whilst lesson planning), in action (whilst teaching) and on action (whilst reflecting on lessons).

Between the 1960s and 2000, grammar education was largely absent from UK schools and the majority of the English-speaking world (Hudson & Walmsey,2005). The prescriptive construction of grammar, which enabled individuals to gain a clear understanding of correct and incorrect usage, disappeared (Crystal, 2007) leaving NS school leavers with an unsystematic and vague appreciation of sentence structure and, "little understanding of grammatical terminology" (Crystal, 2007, p.230). The 1999 version of the UK's National Curriculum (DfEE, 1999) identified the need for explicit grammar to be taught but also identified a grammar skills' deficit in teachers, so explicit grammar's inclusion in syllabi was abandoned. The current policy for teaching English in UK secondary schools is the 2014 version of The National Curriculum (DfEE, 2014), where grammar forms part of the English syllabus. However, the grammar element focuses on grammatical enquiry, where the effect meaning has on communication is taught to enable an understanding about the consequence of a linguistic choice (Crystal, 2018). As a result, potential UK NS TESOL teachers do not leave school with an understanding of explicit grammar.

In addition, the suitability of contemporary P-S TESOL education for UK P-S NESTs has been questioned because of its lack of explicit grammar content (Borg, 2003; Brandt, 2006; Ferguson & Donno, 2003; Hobbs, 2013; Kanowski, 2004) and from the expectation that explicit grammar is known (Ferguson & Donno, 2003; Hobbs, 2013; Tsui, 2003). However, when explicit grammar courses have been undertaken, research undertaken to examine their effectiveness present inconclusive results. Borg (2006) tells us that the anticipated transfer of gaining explicit grammar in a pre-course to its use in practice does not always occur because teaching involves a lot more than just grammar. Hislam and Cajkler (2005) found that P-S teachers struggled to develop their learners' explicit grammar knowledge but acknowledged that the course was too short. Bigelow and Ranney (2005) questioned the dichotomy of learning and using explicit grammar within a real teaching context, where real language examples add a level of complexity from those that are neatly presented in a study environment. More recently, Bell's (2016) investigations tell us that primary teachers' understanding and use of grammatical metalanguage improved following a course.

Despite inconclusive results about explicit grammar courses, experts consider teacher language awareness (TLA) to be one of the most important areas for pre-service

and in-service teachers to develop (Andrews, 2003, 2012 ; Bartels, 2002; Wright, 2002). TLA develops teacher cognition, which is an understanding of what teachers know, think and believe (Borg, 2006). In terms of knowing, understanding explicit grammar and being able to dissect it is considered central to effective L2 English teaching (Bolitho & Tomlinson, 1995; Thornbury, 1997; Wright & Bolitho, 1993). In addition, grammar knowledge and awareness is needed to develop beliefs, where teachers make sense of their work through using grammar implicitly or explicitly in lessons (Borg, 2006). A noteworthy fact is that TESOL's grammar syllabus has 'persisted' (Thornbury, 2018, p.1) through decades of research on methods, approaches and syllabi for effective second language acquisition. Grammar's persistence within global second language English classrooms makes knowledge associated with it essential and highlights the fact that at some point, NS need to engage in focused explicit grammar study.

Methodological Context

The study builds on research (Bell, 2016; Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Borg, 2006; Hislam & Cajkler, 2005), which examines the impact an explicit grammar course has on the development of grammatical awareness for grammar teaching.

Participants

A sample of 10, UK NS participants (10 females, mean age = 20.42, SD=1.74) contributed to the study's findings, where they are referred to as P1, P2, as so on until P10. The participants were members of a larger undergraduate cohort, but their data were used because they volunteered and were available to undertake the final interview at a pre-arranged time. No other selection criteria were used. All NS participants had English as their first and only language, which whilst extensively described by Copland, Mann and Garton (2020), in this study refers to a person who has inherited English, has a social affiliation with it and a level of expertise (Rampton, 1990). The participants attend a UK university, where one third of their three-year, BA English degree study is dedicated to TESOL each year. Therefore, the NS participants had completed secondary school education and fulfilled the university's entry criteria by achieving school leavers' exam grades B, B, C, where A is the highest and grades A-E are

considered pass grades. In this study, the NS participants are third and final year university undergraduates. They arrived onto TESOL education in year one with a low level of explicit grammar knowledge, where they were unable to identify, define, produce or label parts of speech with metalanguage despite perceiving their grammar knowledge to be good (Webb, 2016). However, they all successfully completed the 48-contact hour explicit grammar course during their first year, studied procedural aspects of TESOL in their second year and completed their third-year studies, where six hours of live teaching, from which they gain a CELTA equivalent teaching certificate, was undertaken.

Ethics

The research followed guidance on ethical codes and principles that appear in Second Language Teacher Education (Bryman, 2012; Dornyei, 2007), which are provided by The British Educational Research Association (B.E.R.A, 2011). Gaining participant involvement was non-problematic because I had taught the NS participants for three years and trust had been established. The interview power divide was reduced because from the first day of teaching, I explained and reiterated my personal lack of explicit grammar knowledge during my TESOL education and initial employment.

Materials: The grammar course

The NS studied the explicit grammar course for 2 hours per week for 24 weeks = 48 hours, which aimed to ensure that a foundation in and exposure about explicit grammar knowledge was established. Traditional grammar of Standard English was taught as stipulated by global TESOL provider CELTA (2013). It is defined as, "the variety of the English language ... normally spoken by 'educated' speakers," (Trudgill & Hannah, 2002, p.110). Using Standard English is seen as a pragmatic need as it is neutral and provides learners with a guideline to orient themselves (Gnutzmann, 1999) and to compare alternative forms of the language with (Train, 2003).

A cognitive constructivist approach was used for learning, teaching, and delivery, where knowledge was transmitted from teacher to the NS and developed through social interaction. The learning focused on the individual's ability to interpret and construct knowledge (Powell & Kalina, 2009). The teaching valued NS questions so that individual concepts and understanding of the grammar could be achieved. The

delivery positioned me, the teacher in an authoritative role, where I choose the content and delivered the lessons. The course was based around A1 - B2 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages level (CEFR, 2001) and covered explicit grammar that is commonly used in EFL textbooks (Soars & Soars, 2006) and study books (Sowton, 2012) (as outlined in appendix 1).

The course was designed so that metalanguage could be elicited more frequently as time progressed following exposure to the grammar area, for example: nouns, noun phrases and pronouns were taught before introducing the subject and object of a sentence. To explicitly describe the content of each lesson is out of reach within this paper but it was delivered using worksheets, which followed similar formats. The grammar point was introduced using metalanguage and forms and usage discovered through questioning and tasks. The consolidation exercises highlight a main aim of the course, where learner errors can be corrected and explained using metalanguage because a large amount of knowledge is required to do this. Samples of consolidation tasks from lessons are presented below.

Table 1. Samples of lesson consolidation tasks with answers

LESSON 1:
INCORRECT: Please send me some informations about the school.
CORRECT: Please send me some **information** about the school.
REASON: **Information is an uncountable noun and does not take a plural form.**
LESSON 7:
INCORRECT: I am understanding you.
CORRECT: I **understand** you.
REASON: **'to understand' has been used as a dynamic verb. 'To understand' is a stative verb and does not have a present participle (or -ing) form.**
LESSON 17:
INCORRECT: The journey was very tired.
CORRECT: The journey was very **tiring.**
REASON: **The incorrect form of adjective has been used. Adjectives ending in –ed (past participle used as an adjective) describe facts. The sentence needs an adjective ending in –ing (present participle used as an adjective), which describes a personal perspective.**

Progress was demonstrated through four in-class tests, which included questions that asked for grammatical areas to be, identified, defined, produced, and

labelled with metalanguage and for the form and use of grammatical structures to be explained. In addition, a 1000-word project, which used authentic L2 learners' writing samples graded at an IELTS level 5.0, was undertaken where errors needed to be explained using metalanguage (as practiced in weekly consolidation tasks). The project addressed Bigelow and Ranney's (2005) concerns about working with neatly presented errors in course materials.

Data collection materials

Qualitative data were drawn from the NS' reflective teaching summaries, which were produced during their third-year live teaching practice and from a semi-structured interview, which took place at the end of their TESOL studies. The NS were guided through the process of writing a reflective summary through the provision of questions to consider. The questions that related to grammar were:

- Was your lesson at an appropriate level to stretch and challenge the learners?
- What meaningful language did your lesson provide?
- Were there opportunities for learners to provide their own input/ideas into the lesson?
- What evidence did you encounter to demonstrate the learners' interest or lack of interest in your lesson?

The semi-structured interview explored how the NS felt about their explicit grammar study, level, knowledge, and awareness at the end of their P-S TESOL education. Leading questions were avoided, and the NS' responses were interjected by asking 'why?' to encourage elaboration. The questions were:

- How do you feel about studying explicit grammar before P-S TESOL education?
- How do you feel about your explicit grammar knowledge and awareness at the end of P-S TESOL education?
- How often did you need grammar knowledge in your lessons?
- How did you use grammar within different methodologies?
- How do you think the learners feel about studying grammar?

Analysis

Occurrences in NS' reflective summaries (rs) and interview transcripts (i) that referred to the four sub-themes relating to the development of individual grammatical awareness in Andrews (1994) criteria were identified and counted using content analysis. The deductive sub-themes included: "Knowledge of grammatical terminology, understanding of the concepts associated with the terms, awareness of meaning/language in communication and sensitivity to language/awareness of how language works" (Andrews, 1994, p.75,cited in: Andrews, 2007, p.35). In addition, one inductive sub-theme emerged, which was self-reported awareness.

Qualitative analysis was undertaken using NVivo, which is renowned for its usefulness to reduce large volumes of data (Bryman, 2012; Wiltshier, 2011). A TESOL colleague and I worked simultaneously for 16 hours undertake the deductive and inductive coding, which ensured inter-rater reliability; 95% agreement was reached, and discussion undertaken when required. Quantitative analysis was undertaken simultaneously using the statistical package of social science-version 24 (SpSSv24), which reported the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) of occurrences. In addition, the minimum (min) and maximum (max) number of occurrences were included to inform the data.

Findings

Sub-theme 1, developing individual knowledge about grammatical terminology, was the strongest theme (M= 14.40, SD=2.01). The min (=12.00) and max (=17.00) numbers of occurrences showed how it was mentioned by all the NS. References were articulated through comments about the development of metalinguistic knowledge, metalanguage, and challenges.

The development of metalinguistic knowledge is gained in part from being able to break down language from explicit knowledge (Bialystok, 1988) and language dissection is a recognised skill for effective L2 teaching (Bolitho & Tomlinson, 1995; Thornbury, 1997; Wright & Bolitho, 1993). P2 commented on the difference between TESOL students, who had studied explicit grammar, and NS in general and

demonstrated an understanding of knowledge required for TESOL, '*... native speakers can use grammar quite well … but we cannot break it down and talk about it.'* (P2i). P8 spoke about metalinguistic knowledge in relation to her teaching, where she demonstrated a cognitive change, *'We had to look at words individually … words taken for granted like marker pen (adjective/noun). The learners may know what pen is, but marker?'* (P8i).

The development of grammatical metalanguage featured strongly in the NS' responses, which should be expected. P9 focused on how inappropriate self-study would be, which is the position that many NS find themselves in, '*Even if I had googled something like conjunction, I would not know what it meant. It doesn't show how it is used or why'* (P9i). Whilst it is understood that NS do not gain explicit grammar from secondary education, P10 articulated the importance of the course, *'Before the grammar course, I had never heard of an auxiliary verb, just verbs and just three … I did not know conditionals or that there was an order to adjectives. I did not know anything … Now I do.' (P10i)*

The challenge in NS gaining the explicit grammar was mentioned frequently, *'There is just so much of it … I can't remember it all'* (P5i) and '*It proved a lot to take in'* (P3i). NS, who embark on TESOL education, are confronted with an immense knowledge base, which needs to be studied, learned, remembered and applied in a short space of time. P1 articulates the point well, '*I think the process of TESOL would be a lot easier if we had the basis of grammar from school, but we don't.'* (P1i).

Sub-theme 2, developing knowledge about concepts associated with terms, had the second highest level of reference (M=10.8, SD=1.03) with a similar range of UK NS' responses (min=10.00, max=13.00). Reflective summaries presented insights into how the NS portrayed grammar to the learners and demonstrated that understanding explicit grammar prevented inward-looking behaviour, which is a common trait for new teachers because the impact their actions had on the learners was considered (Senior, 2006).

P8 drew learners' attention to irregular verb forms and considered learners having to deal with the intricacies of regular and irregular verbs, '*I gave them an irregular verbs list … it drew attention to different formations … I heightened their*

understanding' (P8rs). P6 reflected how she could have addressed her present continuous lesson differently. '*... I could have helped more by introducing the use of the present continuous with stative and dynamic verbs.'* (P6rs)

Sub-theme 3, developing knowledge about the meaning of language in communication, had a much lower number of mentioned occurrences (M= 3.90, SD=5.60) and a wider range of response difference where min (=0.00) and max (=18.00). The grammar course did not focus on how to explain meaning because it is implicit, innate knowledge. However, maybe it needs to be included because to describe something succinctly requires skill (Johnson & Golombek, 2016)

P2 reflected on an unsuccessful encounter in her lesson about 'giving opinions' with intermediate learners, where her innate knowledge was used. '*... opinions could have been developed to look at formality. One learner suggested, 'I believe it's so', which would be correct but old-fashioned'* (P2rs). The speed of exchanges within L2 classrooms does not allow time for the NS to consider or act on their thoughts without experience, time is needed to develop the skill.

P3 used metalinguistic knowledge to successfully teach subtle differences in meaning. *'I focussed on looks, looks + like and looks as if/ as though, to describe paintings ... I taught subtle differences in meaning and form by giving examples and eliciting.'* (P3rs). P3 broke down the form of the language, explained its use and gave examples from which the learners could identify patterns to mirror independently. She used a technique labelled noticing, where stimuli are consciously delivered to learners (Myles & Mitchell, 2014).

Sub-theme 4, developing knowledge about how language works, received the lowest level of references (M=1.30, SD=1.76), which was not mentioned by all the NS (min=0.00, max=5.00). However, from some, the development of beliefs emerged, which, "may be the clearest measure of a teacher's professional growth" (Kagan, 1992 p.85) because they are considered propositions that individuals believe to be true and provide the basis for action (Borg, 2011). Graus and Coppen (2016) tell us that how grammar is used, either implicitly or explicitly in lessons, is a good indication of a grammar teaching belief. P2 demonstrated belief development in her reflective

summary where she questioned the need to use metalanguage to teach a grammar when teaching defining and non-defining relative clauses.

> *The learners said they recognised the structures but did not know the name in English. They started to look up the term on their phones and I waited … I could have just told them the answer as I was able to elicit the use of the relative clauses anyway. In future, I could think about whether the learners need to know the terminology. In some cases, they may need to know, but not all the time. In this situation, it was necessary to be able to make a distinction between defining and non-defining relative clauses, but the correct terminology was arguably unnecessary. (P2rs)*

P2 elaborated on the lesson during the interview, where she considered further the need for learners to know metalanguage. '… there is only so much grammar you can live with … if you have grammar sections of lessons, you also need to know how to communicate it properly …' (P2i).

P1 showed development of how language works by questioning the use of teaching grammar rules, ''people can communicate without grammar rules' (P1i). In addition, she demonstrated a development of beliefs, '… if we bring grammar into communicative activities, I think that is more important than doing grammar in isolation to learn the rules' (P1i). The comments demonstrate that by studying explicit grammar in a pre-course, it does not lead to NS feeling that the explicit grammar needs to be taught.

Sub-theme 5, self-reported awareness, emerged as a new theme from inductive coding (M=11.10, SD=1.37, min=8.00 and max=12.00). All the NS indicated that their level of explicit grammar growth was visible to themselves and that they considered learning about it essential for TESOL. 'I do not think we could do TESOL without it to be honest' (P1i). '…it makes you seem more professional to be able to speak the lingo of linguistics' (P6i). 'In the first year, the verb tenses really frightened me, but I know them quite well now.' (P9i).

NS commented on how crucial they considered their grammar education to be for TESOL, 'I think if you want to teach English, you need to know English grammar.'

(P9i), '…even if you are not doing a grammar lesson anything could crop up… It is helpful having a knowledge base to use.' (P5i). P7 spoke about a situation many NS find themselves in, where explicit grammar knowledge needs to be gained from self-study because of the small amount of time dedicated towards developing it in courses (Hobbs,2013). P7 understands that implicit knowledge enables people to say what is correct and incorrect but explicit knowledge is needed to build a lesson around a language point.

> *I would not like to think what it is like for a teacher to go into a lesson without the grammar knowledge that we have had. That must be horrendous. Their poor learners must get so confused. You cannot learn it from a textbook, you just can't … We need to give a lesson a purpose … if we don't … It can become just a chat between friends. (P7i)*

Finally, despite all the NS successfully completing the grammar course, they understood that there was more explicit grammar to learn. '*I guess my knowledge now, despite the course, pales in comparison to actually how much there is to know, mmm'* (P7i). '*I realise I have more to learn … I am not at the bottom; I am somewhere in the middle'* (P5i). P6 adds another dimension where from a strong foundation she is able to gain more knowledge, '*I think that my grammar knowledge is increasing … I pick things up now'* (P6i).

Discussion

According to Ellis (2005), declarative knowledge is explicit and encyclopedic in nature. It draws on knowledge of rules, which focuses primarily on linguistic form and is suited to later life learning, without time pressure. He explains that explicit knowledge is unlike implicit knowledge, which focuses on intuition, does not need metalinguistic knowledge, and is suited to early life learning. Alternatively, Gregg (1989) states, "acquisition of knowledge has nothing whatsoever to do with explicit knowledge." (Gregg, 1989, p.38)

NS entering pre-service TESOL education without an understanding of explicit grammar has been researched over decades (Alderson et al., 1997; Alderson & Hudson, 2013; S. Andrews, 1994, 1999; Author, 2016; Chandler et al., 1988; Harper & Rennie, 2009; Myhill et al., 2013; Williamson & Hardman, 1995; Wray, 1993). The situation is due to absent learning opportunities about explicit grammar in UK secondary school education (Crystal, 2007, 2018; DfEE, 2014; Hudson & Walmsley, 2005). Despite the research and facts, the value of teaching NS explicit grammar courses has been questioned (Borg, 2006). However, grammar teaching in TESOL has "persisted" (Thornbury, 2018, p.1) and is taught in classrooms globally today.

Borg and Burns' (2008) research provides a global perspective of teachers' cognition about teaching grammar. Teachers commented on the importance of integrating grammar in lessons, '… to allow students to apply the rules, forms, structures in context' because, 'teaching grammar rules alone will defeat the purpose' (Borg & Burns, 2008, p.469). Some additional teacher comments include how grammar needed to be presented within a meaningful focus, with or without an explicit grammar focus, to allow learners to deduce grammar rules and react appropriately to grammar errors and queries, which increase learners' interest and satisfaction. Without doubt, for this form of instruction to be undertaken successfully, explicit grammar knowledge is essential.

Findings from this study demonstrate that individual awareness for grammar teaching has developed from explicit grammar knowledge study and that the NS participants, despite the challenges, not only appreciated the study opportunity but considered it essential for TESOL. The sub-themes explored did not present uniform numbers of mentions by the NS, which demonstrates that development of awareness is both individual and circumstantial. Some NS questioned using grammatical metalanguage in lessons from learner interactions, whilst all understood the need to breakdown language down to aid understanding. The findings do not present a quick fix solution and cannot be expected to as the explicit grammar knowledge is new. The NS have a lot of work to do gain familiarity, to use and to apply their new knowledge to circumstance. They also understand the need to develop and expand their knowledge, which is an understanding that has developed from the exposure. However, the NS leave pre-service TESOL education with a strong explicit grammar foundation, for

example: in the grammar course, the NS learned that if a word ends in -ing that it could be a gerund, an -ing adjective or the present participle of a past, present or future verb tense form. It would take a long time for NS to understand this from self-study. Can NS from Anglophone countries be considered appropriately qualified to teach or deal with grammar in lessons after successfully completing globally recognised pre-service TESOL education? No, they are woefully underprepared as typically only 4 out of 120 hours are dedicated to explicit grammar knowledge education (Hobbs, 2013). Is this fair? No, it leads to NS fearing grammar. The question, "Why do I feel nervous when students ask me grammar?" was the question asked by a NS teacher with five years' experience, when undertaking exploratory research practice (Hanks, 2017) as she had had no formal education about it. Whilst there is more to teaching than understanding grammar, a high level of explicit grammar knowledge is needed, "whether or not that teacher believes in the value of learners' developing such knowledge"(Andrews, 2012 p.16) or as P4 stated, '*Any questions can come up, if you have grammar knowledge, you can jump on it and explain it at that point, you cannot always prepare for it, so it is very important to have a good knowledge base'.* (P4i)

Therefore, is it time for NS entry onto pre-service TESOL education to be changed? Globally recognised TESOL educators ask for NS applicants to demonstrate "... awareness of language and a competence in both written and spoken English" (Johnson & Poulter, 2015, p.184) as an entry requirement to a course, which is easily demonstrable from natural acquisition and implicit grammar knowledge. No explicit understanding of language is asked for, which is unlike NNS, who need a minimum CEFR- C1 (expert) level that includes learning explicit grammar knowledge. The difference is vast and places NS in a vulnerable position, where their lack of knowledge leads to being unprepared and feeling nervous years after qualifying. Should a pre-course in explicit grammar knowledge course be a feature of NS TESOL education? More conversation is needed to address NS' well known knowledge gap and to create appropriate TESOL education, where a grammar knowledge and awareness springboard into initial employment is created.

Conclusion

To conclude, the purpose of the study was to contribute further to inconclusive findings, which question the impact an explicit grammar course has on pedagogy in UK pre-service TESOL education. This was done by exploring the individual language awareness that UK NS could demonstrate after studying a 48-hour explicit grammar knowledge course prior to their procedural TESOL education. In the study, quantitative and qualitative findings demonstrated growth in NS individual grammatical awareness for grammar teaching, which addressed items from Andrews' (1994) list that included: the development of knowledge about terminology, concepts associated with terms, awareness of meaning and how language works, together with a new inductive sub-theme which was self-reported awareness.

However, research shortcoming may include the lack of opportunity for study replication because currently, dedicating 48-hours to teaching an explicit grammar course is not normal practice. In addition, only 10 NS' results were analysed, which could be increased.

Further research could be undertaken through a comparative study, which explores language awareness for grammar teaching between NS who have, and NS who have not, undertaken an explicit grammar knowledge course. In addition, a comparative study between NS and NNS, who have not studied an explicit grammar course within their pre-service TESOL education could be undertaken, which would provide an understanding about the starting position of NS and NNS candidates' explicit grammar knowledge and awareness when embarking upon globally recognised pre-service TESOL education.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Contributions of the deixis clarified to the reading comprehension competence of the 6th graders

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Abstract

Deixis are generally expressed as words or phrases whose meaning changes depending on who is talking, who is listening, where and when it is spoken (I, you, here, there, yesterday etc.). Foreign language learners have difficulties in decoding deixis in reading and listening skills. Therefore, this study aims at discussing how well the 6th graders are able to comprehend deixis in a written discourse. In order to collect data, twenty-two students have divided into two groups with even numbers as control and experimental groups. The 6th graders in experimental group have been given three different written texts in which deixis are clarified in parenthesis just after the use deictic words whereas the 6th graders in control group have been given the same three different written texts without identified deixis. The data have been collected through the reading comprehension questions after each text used in both groups. The findings have been analyzed by the SPSS 22 version program and t-test. As a result, the analysis indicates that there is a significant difference between the graders in both groups. The 6th graders in the experimental group seem more successful in reading comprehension than those in the control group because of the deictic words clarified.

Keywords
Deixis; comprehension competence; reading comprehension

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Introduction

In a written text, deictic words can be simulated to the neurons in a brain. As deictic words are neurons of the context, if there is neural disconnection, contextual error or

incomprehension between these deictic words in a context, comprehension the text correctly is not possible for the readers. Even if all the words in the text are known by the readers and all grammatical structures are understood, if the deictic words in the text are not decoded correctly, the readers are unable to comprehend the text appropriately. Unless it is clear to whom exactly the deictic word 'she' refers to or where 'there' is pointing to in a text, it is not possible for the reader to comprehend or enjoy what they read.

It is necessary to make a text comprehensible for readers in foreign language learning. Therefore, the aim of the study is to discuss the contribution of the deictic words clarified in the text to the reading comprehension competence of the learners.

Literature review

One of the four basic skills in foreign language learning is reading comprehension. Reading comprehension skills are very important for learners both during their educational life and for their further academic studies (Windiarsi P., 2006). Nowadays, the importance of reading comprehension skill is increasing day by day, where a lot of information is presented mostly as reading texts on the internet. In addition, many exams that students encounter in their education life will be in the form of written texts. In order to cope with this situation, it is necessary to have a very good reading comprehension ability.

The notion of reading comprehension, which is accepted as a complex activity, has been defined in different ways over the years. Nuttall (1996) defines that reading comprehension is to receive the message from a written discourse by the reader as the writer intended. According to Varzegar (1995), reading comprehension consists of two important processes; decoding and demessaging. Decoding is the understanding of words, phrases and sentences in written discourse, while demessaging is the scriptual, schematic and pragmatic side of written discourse. Demessaging cannot be expected to occur without decoding. The importance of deixis in reading comprehension emerges during the decoding process. If the deixis in the

written discourse cannot be decoded correctly by the reader, there is a problem from the first process of reading comprehension.

Deictic words have different meanings each time, depending on the person who wrote the text or read the text, the speaker, the listener, the place where it is uttered, and the time when it is uttered (I, we, you, this, that, here, there, now, yesterday, tomorrow, next year and etc.). In every speech, *here* does not always refer to the same place, *yesterday* does not always refer to the same date, and *I* does not always refer to the same person. Although Al-Saif (2008, p. 67) gave different naming of deixis from different researchers, such as *pure index* by Pierce (1932), *symbol* by Bühler (1934), *indexical symbol* by Burks (1948), *indicator* by Goodman (1951), *indexical expression* by Bar-Hiller (1954), and *shifter* by Jespersen (1965) and Jakobson (1971), the word deixis originates from the Greek *'deiktikos'* (deictic), meaning *'pointing'*. Deixis has been defined in different ways by linguistic researchers. For instance, Lewinson (1983, p. 54) defined that “deixis concerns the ways in which language encode or grammaticalize features of the context of utterance or speech event, and thus also concerns ways in which interpretation of utterances depends on the analysis of the context of utterance”. According to Yule (1996, p. 9), “deixis is a form referring that is tied to the speakers context, with the most basic distinction between deictic expressions being 'near speaker' versus 'away from speaker'”.

According to Levinson (1983, p. 68), there are five types of deixis; person, time (temporal), place (spatial), discourse and social deixis. Personal deixis concern pronouns and grammatically are divided into three categories; first person pronouns, second person pronouns and third person pronouns, and each category has both singular and plural forms. First person pronouns are used for referring to the speaker/writer (I, me, myself, mine and my) in the singular form, or the speakers/writers (we, us, ourselves, ours and our) in the plural form. Second person pronouns refer to the addressee or addressees/interlocutors/hearers /readers (you, your, yours, yourselves and yourself) in an utterance. Third person pronouns (they, he, she, themselves, his her and etc.) are used to designate other than the speaker and the interlocutors.

Time or temporal deixis are related to the moments of the utterance; before the moment of utterance, at the time of utterance or after the time of the utterance (Purba et al., 2014). Time deixis can be both time adverbials, such as *yesterday*, *now*, *tomorrow* and tense markers, such as present and past on verbs (e.g. *studies* and *studied*). According to Levinson (1983), time deictic words are important to distinguish the moment of the utterance from the moment of the reception. For instance, the time-deictic word '*now'* in a written text does not mean *now* anymore when it is received by the reader; it means '*past'*.

Place or spatial deixis can be demonstratives/determiners (*this, that*), adverbs of places (*here, there*) or verbs (*come, go, bring, take*). Abidin (2019) states that place deixis is related to the locations of the participants in the speech. In English place-deictic words are the adverbs (*here* and *there*) and the demonstratives or determiners (*this* and *that*). Whereas '*this'* and '*here'* shows things or people are near the speaker, '*that*' and '*there*' shows things and people are far from the speaker (Purba et al., 2014). Although not mentioned in many deixis studies, some verbs, such as '*come-go*' and '*bring-take/send*' are also considered place-deictic words, since these verbs are also about location of the speaker in a speech (Clark, 1974; Levinson, 1983, p. 83). For example, when the speaker says '*come* or *bring*', it means getting closer to the speaker' location, or the speaker says '*go* or *take/send*', it means about movement far away from the speaker's location.

Discourse deixis is also named as text deixis. Levinson (1983) states that discourse deixis concerns some expressions which refer to some parts of discourse in an utterance and it is related to the speaker's current "location" in the discourse. Discourse deixis can be temporal location (*this* and *that*) of the utterance or spatial of the utterance (*next* and *last*) and their references can be both anaphoric (backward of the utterance), such as '*last* chapter', '*previous* topic' and '*that* example' and cataphoric (forward of the utterance), such as '*next* chapter', '*following* topic' and *'this* example'. According to Al-Saif (2008), they are used to take the hearer's or reader's attention to the meaning of a clause, a sentence, a paragraph in utterance, or the whole story.

Social deixis concerns about the social identities of participants or non-participants in a speech event, or the social relationship between them (Levinson, 1983). They can be polite pronouns, titles of participants, kinship terms, names and honorifics. Social deixis can reflect the social status of the speakers, the hearers or even the status of the non-participants mentioned in the utterance (Windiarsi P., 2006). There are two types of social deixis: *relational social deixis* and *absolute social deixis*. Whereas relational social deixis shows distance or closeness between the speaker and the addressee, such as *my husband, Sir*, *Honey,* and *Mr. Özturan*, absolute social deixis shows a simple reference to the absolute status of the addressee without ranking of the participants, such as *President, Prime minister and General.*

The relationship between deixis and reading comprehension has been the subject of some linguistic researches, as in Windiarsi P's study (2006). The study aimed to measure the effect of students' recognition of deixis on their reading comprehension. According to the findings of the study, there is a positive relationship between students' mastery of deixis and their reading comprehension skills. According to Windiarsi P. (2006), deixis helps the student to comprehend the text in case the learners get stuck in understanding the text due to unknown words.

Another study on the relationship between Deixis and reading comprehension skills was conducted by Corrales et al. in 2020. The study has been carried out in Ecuador with the participation of 64 university students. The aim of the study is to investigate how well the deictic words taught to students can improve their reading comprehension abilities. Pre-test and post-tests were applied to collect data, and deictic words were taught in the classroom between the two tests. According to the research findings, it has been stated that English foreign language students succeed in reading comprehension questions using deictic words and improve their reading comprehension competence.

For some reason, foreign language learners may find it difficult to decode deixis in written texts. Interpretation of deictic words during speaking is much easier than reading, it is because gestures can help to refer to objects or people that are not referred to in speech (Demir-Lira et al., 2012). However, if there are no images associated with the text or the deictic words cannot be identified, it can be difficult to interpret the deictic words in a written text for reading comprehension.

As Al-Saif (2008) states, in order to interpret what has been said and what has been meant, it is essential to define the speaker, the time and the place of the utterance. While reading a text, identifying the speaker or speakers in a written dialogue is really difficult issue for learners. Contrary to paragraph texts, utterances have more owners in written dialogue sentences, so it can be difficult for the readers to decode the deixis in the dialogue. For instance, the deictic word '*I*' used in a dialogue can mean as many different meanings as the number of people in that dialogue (Ayşe, Fatma, Mary and so on) depending on the person saying the utterance. Especially young learners may have bigger problem with this issue due to their narrow perception levels (cognitive development). Especially young learners cannot see the whole picture of a text because of their cognitive development. When they look at a paper, they focus on only one point of view. Even the answer of the question is written on the same paper but in different part, they cannot see the answer. In this case, when learning a foreign language for the sixth graders, interpreting deixis by referring to the previous sentences can be quite harder.

All in all, meaning is an important element among the factors that affect reading comprehension and for comprehending the meaning of a text, decoding the message is a priority process of reading comprehension. It is assumed that clarifying deixis in the text can contribute to readers receiving the message of the text. Therefore, in this study how well the 6th graders are able to comprehend deixis in a written discourse will be discussed.

In addition, gender differences in language learning one of the common research topics. The general assumption is that females are better at language learning than males (Wightman, 2020), and many research findings confirm this. Burman et al. (2008) have conducted a study on this subject at Northwestern University. The research is carried out with the participation of 62 students between the ages of 9 and 15, with equal numbers of male and female students. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (FMRI) is used as participants complete a variety of writing, spelling, and reading tasks. As a result of the study, it is seen that different areas of the brains of girls and boys are activated in language acquisition, and girls' brains are more active in this process. In addition, the research shows that the girls' brains are more active in

the abstract thinking and speech production parts in this process, while the auditory and visual areas are more active in the boys' brains. Another remarkable study on gender differences in language learning has been conducted by Silk et al. (2015). According to the findings of the study, in which 27,119 learners from 88 countries participate, it is seen that females are more successful than males in writing and speaking skills; however, gender gap has not been found in listening and reading skills.

Considering these gender gaps in language learning, this study has also aimed to examine whether there is a significant difference in female and male students' reading comprehension competence in terms of deictic words clarified.

Research questions

In parallel with the main purpose of the study, the following research questions will be answered:

- How well do the deictic words clarified contribute reading comprehension competence of the sixth graders?
- Are there any significant differences between female and male students' reading comprehension competence in terms of deictic words clarified?

Method

The current study has been permitted to be published by the authors. The references of the relevant studies mentioned in the study are given in the reference part.

Participants

In order to find out the effects of deictic words clarified to the reading comprehension competence of the 6th graders, 22 sixth graders have taken part in the research; 11 of them as a control group and 11 of them as an experimental group. In the experimental group, 5 male and 6 female students; in the control group, 4 male and 7 female students have participated.

Table 1. The distribution of the participants according to their group and gender

		Participants		
		Control Group	**Experimental Group**	**Gender Total**
Gender	**Male**	4	5	9
	Female	7	6	13
Participants Total		11	11	22

Instruments

So as to validate the study, three different types of written discourse (text, dialogue and sentence) have been papered with total 24 comprehensions questions; 12 questions for a text (Part A), 8 questions for a dialogue (Part B) and 5 questions for the sentences (Part C). The questions have been created to evaluate the students' reading comprehension skills and especially to see if deictic words clarified help the learners answer the questions. Discourse deixis and social deixis, which are more complex, have not been included in the study due to the fact that the participants are in the younger age group (11-12); therefore, only person, time and place deixis have been involved to the study. Unlike the control group, the experimental group have been given the deictic words by underlining in the written discourses with the references of the deictic words in the context like in the example "***They*** *(**Jessica's Father and grandfather**) are planting vegetables* ***there*** *(**in the garden**).*".

In the first part (Part A), the following text with 12 reading comprehension questions has been given to the experimental group. In this part, personal deixis (I, my, we, he, it, they, she and her) and place deixis (there and here) have been asked.

> "Hi, I'm Jessica. **I**(**Jessica**) am ten years old. **I** (**Jessica**) live in a farm with **my family** (**Jessica's family**). **We** (**Jessica and Jessica's family**) have a lot of animals; sheep, cows, chickens, dog and cat. Today is busy day for **my family** (**Jessica's family**). **My mother** (**Jessica's mother**) is in the barn at the moment and **she** (**Jessica's mother**) is milking the cows **there** (**in the barn**). **My brother** (**Jessica's brother**) is in the garden and **he** (**Jessica' brother**) is taking the dog for a walk. **My little sister's** (**Jessica's sister**) favorite animal is the cat. **She** (**Jessica's sister**) is giving milk to **it** (**the cat**). **My father** (**Jessica's father**) is working in the garden

with **my grandfather** (**Jessica's grandfather**). **They** (**Jessica's Father and grandfather**) are planting vegetables **there** (**in the garden**). **My grandmother** (**Jessica's grandmother**) is in the coop and **she** (**Jessica's grandmother**) is feeding the chickens. **I** (**Jessica**) am helping **her** (**Jessica's grandmother**) to feed the chickens **here** (**in the coop**)."

1. Who is ten years old?
2. Who lives in the farm?
3. Who has got a lot of animals?
4. Where is Jessica's mother milking the cows?
5. Who is taking the dog for a walk?
6. Which animal is Jessica's little sister giving milk?
7. Who is working in the garden?
8. Who is planting vegetables?
9. Where are Jessica's father and grandfather planting vegetables?
10. Who is feeding the chickens?
11. Where is Jessica now?
12. Whom is Jessica helping now?

For example, in the 8 question of the text *"Who is planting vegetables*?" the aim is to see if the deictic words clarified (***They*** *(**Jessica's Father and grandfather**) are planting vegetables…)* help the learners improve their reading comprehension competence. In order to answer this question, the learners in the control group are supposed to looking back to the previous information in the text (anaphoric reference) and to answer like *"Jessica's father and grandfather"*.

In the second part (Part B), the following dialogue with 8 reading comprehension questions has been prepared for the experimental group. In this part, person deixis (I, we, us and he), time deixis (*on time)*, and place deixis (*here* and *there)* have been asked.

Marko: Hello, Shin. This is Marko.
Shin: Hello, Marko.
Marko: What's up, Shin?
Shin: Nothing. **I** (**Shin**) am sitting at home and watching TV.
Marko: **Me** (Marko) too. Listen. Tom is **here** (**Marko's house**). **We** (**Marko and Tom**) are planning go to the zoo. Would **you** (**Shin**) like to come with **us** (**Marko and Tom**)?
Shin: That's sounds great!
Marko: Let **us** (**Marko, Tom and Shin**) meet in front of the zoo at 2 pm.
Shin: OK. See **you**(**Marko and Tom**) **there** (**in front of the zoo**) at 2 o'clock.
Marko: Shin, Tom must turn back at 4 pm. **He** (**Tom**) has got only two hours. Please, don't be late.
Shin: Don't worry, Marko. **I** (**Shin**) will be in front of the zoo **on time** (**at 2 o'clock**).
Marko: OK. Bye.

1. Who is watching TV?
2. Where is Tom now?
3. Who is planning go the zoo?
4. With whom is Shin going to go to the zoo?

5. Where is Shin going to be at 2 o'clock?
6. What time is Shin going to be in front of the zoo?
7. Who has got only two hours?
8. Who is going to meet in front of the the zoo?

In the second question of the dialogue "*Where is Tom now*", in order to answer this question, the learners should decode the place deixis '*here'* in the sentence "*Tom is here*". In the dialogue, Marko says "*Tom is here*", so the learners should be able to infer that Tom is close to Marko (speaker) and if Macro is at home, Tom is also at Marko's house. This process can be complex for learners. The deixis '*here*' with explanation in the parentheses "*Tom is **here** **(Marko's house)***" has been tested to see if it makes it easier to answer this question.

In the third prat (Part C), the following sentences are given with their reading comprehension questions to the experimental group. In this part, person, time and place deixis (*by himself, then, there, two hours later* and *on time*) have been asked.

> "Today, Ayşe is in Samsun. **She** (**Ayşe**) will be in İstanbul tomorrow. **She** (Ayşe) will visit Sultan Ahmet Mosque **then** (**tomorrow**)."
> **1. When will Ayşe visit Sultan Ahmet Mosque?**
>
> "It is 3 pm now. Hasan is doing homework at the moment. **Two hours later** (**at 5 pm**), **he** (**Hasan**) will watch TV."
> **2. What time will Hasan watch TV?**
>
> "Sinem and Tuğçe will meet in front of the cinema. **They** (Sinem and Tuğçe) will be **there** (**in front of the cinema**) at 2 o'clock."
> **3. Where will Sinem and Tuğçe be at 2 o'clock?**
>
> "Mert invited Murat to the theater; but Murat was busy and **he** (Murat) didn't go to the theater. Mert went to the theater **by himself** (**only Mert**)."
> **4. Did Mert go to the theater alone?**
>
> "There is a party at the Sunset Cafe at 5 pm. Gizem is hurry up now because **she** (**Gizem**) wants to be **there** (**at the Sunset Cafe**) **on time** (**at 5 pm**)."
> **5. What time does Gizem want to be at the Sunset Cafe?**

For example, in the third question of the sentences *"Where will Sinem and Tuğçe be at 2 o'clock",* the place deixis *'there'* in the sentence *"They will be **there** **(in front of the cinema)**"* is asked to the learners. In the control group, the reference of this deixis has not been given in the parenthesis, the learners are supposed to go back the previous sentence *"Sinem and Tuğçe will meet in front of the cinema"* and decode the reference of the deixis (anaphoric reference) to answer the question.

Data collection procedures

The application of three different types of written discourses has been carried out in three sessions for both groups. In the first session, the text (Part A) with the reading comprehension questions has been given to the both groups. In the second session, the both groups have answered the questions of the dialogue (Part B). Finally, in the third session, the questions of the sentences (Part C) (sentences) have been answered by the groups.

Data analysis

After the implementation phase, the data have been analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 22 version and t-test to correlate the results in terms of gender differences and achievement differences for both groups and for each type (text, dialogue and sentence). Finally, the data of statistical analysis have been evaluated according to the success average of the control and experimental groups, and the gender differences.

Results

The First Research Question of the Study

The first research question of the study is *"How well do the deictic words clarified contribute reading comprehension competence of the sixth graders?".* A correlation analysis has been carried out in order to measure the relationship between the two groups (control and experimental). Here are the group statistics tables;

Table 2. The mean of the Part-A and Part-B according to the t-test

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Part A	-1,822	20	,083
Part B	-2,463	20	,023

As seen from the Table 2, there is not statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of total points from the Part A (text) ($p = 0.083 > 0.05$). However, the Part B (dialogue) shows a statistically significant

difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of total points from this part. The average correct answers of the experimental group is higher than the control group (P = 0.023 <0.05).

Table 3. The test statistics for the Part-C according to the experimental and control groups

	Part C
Mann-Whitney U	20,000
Wilcoxon W	86,000
Z	-2,738
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,006
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,007[b]

As Table 3 illustrates, there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of total scores from the Part C (sentence). The average correct answers of the experimental group is higher than the control group (p=0,07<0,05).

The Second Research Question of the Study

The second research question of the study is "Are there any significant differences between female and male students' reading comprehension competence in terms of deictic words clarified?". A correlation analysis has been carried out in order to measure the relationship between the two groups according to gender differences for each part (Part-A, Part-B and Part-C).

Table 4. The mean of the parts according to the t-test for the MALE participants in both groups

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Part A	-1,766	7	,121
Part B	-1,457	5,775	**,197**
Part C	-3,667	7	**,008**

In the Table 4 it is seen that there is not any difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of total points from both the Part A (text) and the Part B (dialogue) for the male participants (for Part-A p=0.121>0,05 and for

Part-B p=0.197>0.05). Nevertheless, according to the scores of the male participates in both groups, it is seen a statistically significant difference in the Part C (sentence). In addition, the average correct answer scores of the men in the experimental group is higher than in the control group (p = 0.008 <0.05).

Table 5. The mean of the parts according to the t-test for the FEMALE participants

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Part A	-,872	11	,402
Part B	-2,847	11	,016
Part C	-1,941	11	,078

As seen from the Table 5, according to the total scores of the female participants from the Part A (text) and the Part C (sentence) in both groups, there is not statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups (For the Part-A p = 0.402> 0.05 and for the Part-C p = 0.078> 0.05). However; it is seen a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of total scores in the Part B (dialogue) for the female participants. Additionally, the correct answers in the experimental group of the female participants is higher than average (p = 0.016 <0.05).

Table 6. The mean of the parts according to the t-test for the MALE and FEMALE participants in the experimental group

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Part A	,197	9	,848
Part B	-1,377	9	,202
Part C	-,316	9	,759

According to the t-test, scores of the male and female participants in the experimental group in terms of the average correct answer have not detected any significant difference in the Part A (text), Part B (dialogue) and Part C (sentences) (For Part-A p=0,848>0,05; For Part-B p=0,202>0,05; For Part-C p=0,759>0,05).

Table 7. The mean of the parts according to the t-test for the MALE and FEMALE participants in the control group

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Part A	-1,102	9	,299
Part B	-1,975	9	,080
Part C	-2,181	9	,057

Similar to the experimental group, any significant difference between male and female participants in the control group has not been detected in terms of average correct answers in Part A (text), Part B (dialogue) and Part C (sentence), (For Part-A p=0,299>0,05; For the Part-B p=0,08>0,05; For Part-C p=0,057>0,05).

Discussion

According to the findings, it is seen that the learners have difficulty in decoding deictic words mostly in the dialogue (Part-B). There may be different reasons for this. First of all, the student must have a sufficient level of English vocabulary. If the student does not know the meaning of the pronoun "*we*", it is impossible to find the word or words that this deictic word refers to. Another reason may be the cognitive deficiency of the student. Although the student knows that the pronoun "*we*" means "*biz*" in Turkish and is plural, he/she needs to go back and analyze the people in the dialogue in order to find out to whom this pronoun refers to in the dialogue. In addition, as Demir-Lira et al. (2012) stated, unlike spoken dialogue, due to lack of gestures used by the speakers to help refer deictic words in written dialogues it is possible that students have difficulty in identifying pronouns. Furthermore, as the owner of the utterances in the dialogue is changeable, it may be difficult to follow and extract the deictic words. The words referring to the deixis "*we*" in each line vary according to the person saying that sentence. This situation may have confused the learners. In the dialogues given to the learners in the experimental group, this

confusion may have been eliminated when reference expressions are given in parentheses next to each deictic words.

Secondly, the sentences part (Part C) has been challenging for the learners. Since there are not enough sentences to create a context for learners in the this part, which consists of a few sentences, the learners can get stuck by unknown words, thus they are likely to have more difficulty decoding deictic words (Windiarsi P., 2006). Cognitive development theory is also in question in this part. In the example of "*It's 3 p.m. now. Hasan is doing homework at the moment. Two hours later, he will watch TV*", the cognitive level of learners should be sufficient to answer the question "*What time will Hasan watch TV*". It is observed that the majority of learners give "*At 3 pm*" instead of "*At 5 pm*" in response, since "*3*" is the only hour in the sentences.

In the text part (Part-A), the learners seem to have less difficulty decoding deictic words in written text. It may be because it is more meaningful to go from the whole to the part instead of going from the part to the whole in order to provide reading comprehension in the reading parts. Contrary to the sentences part, it is easier to create a context because there are more sentences in this part. Thus, it is easier to guess the meaning of unknown words, which can prevent learners from getting stuck by unknown words (Windiarsi P., 2006). Additionally, compared to the dialogue part, the owner of the utterance in the text part is only one person, which means that all the person deixis *'I'* in the text refers only to *'Jessica'*.

In terms of the gender differences, any significant difference between the abilities of decoding deictic words and reading comprehension competence of the male and female participants in both groups has not been detected. This finding is in parallel with the research results of Silk et al. (2015), in which there is not any significant difference between the reading and listening skills of male and female learners.

Conclusions

This study investigated the effects of the deictic words clarified to the reading comprehension competence. Findings show that students have really big problems in interpreting deictic words in a written discourse. As, in general, the average correct

answer score of the participants in the experimental group seems higher than the control group, it can be said that if deictic words are clarified in a discourse well, students are able to comprehend the texts better. It is because the most of the students do not know if they have to look at the previous (anaphoric references) or further (cataphoric references) information to decode the deictic words, while reading a written discourse, students need to guidance for understanding about relationships of the deictic words and their references in the context. As Windiarsi P (2006) states, if learners master the clarification of deixis, their reading comprehension competence improves.

Last but not least, the findings of the study shows that clarifying deictic words in written discourse may contribute to the reading comprehension competence of learners. In order to improve the reading comprehension skills of the learners, deictic words should be taught to foreign language learners.

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Appendix

A.1. A text with reading comprehension questions for the control group:

PART A:

Please, read the text below and answer the questions related to the text.

"Hi,

I'm Jessica. I'm ten years old. I live in a farm with my family. We have a lot of animals; sheep, cows, chickens, dog and cat. Today is busy day for my family. My mother is in the barn at the moment and she is milking the cows there. My brother is in the garden and he is taking the dog for a walk. My little sister's favorite animal is the cat. She is giving milk to it. My father is working in the garden with my grandfather. They are planting vegetables there. My grandmother is in the coop and she is feeding the chickens. I am helping her to feed the chickens here"

Who is ten years old?

_____

Who lives in the farm?

_____

Who has got a lot of animals?

_____

Where is Jessica's mother milking the cows?

_____

Who is taking the dog for a walk?

_____

Which animal is Jessica's little sister giving milk?

_____

Who is working in the garden?

_____

Who is planting vegetables?

_____

Where are Jessica's father and grandfather planting vegetables?

_____

Who is feeding the chickens?

_____

Where is Jessica now?

_____

Whom is Jessica helping now?

_____

A.2. A text with reading comprehension questions for the experimental group:

PART A':

Please, read the text below and answer the questions related to the text.

"Hi,

I'm Jessica. I(Jessica) am ten years old. I (Jessica) live in a farm with my family (Jessica's family). We (Jessica and Jessica's family) have a lot of animals; sheep, cows, chickens, dog and cat. Today is busy day for my family (Jessica's family). My mother (Jessica's mother) is in the barn at the moment and she (Jessica's mother) is milking the cows there (in the barn). My brother (Jessica's brother) is in the garden and he (Jessica' brother) is taking the dog for a walk. My little sister's (Jessica's sister) favorite animal is the cat. She (Jessica's sister) is giving milk to it (the cat). My father (Jessica's father) is working in the garden with my grandfather (Jessica's grandfather). They (Jessica's Father and grandfather) are planting vegetables there (in the garden). My grandmother (Jessica's grandmother) is in the coop and she (Jessica's grandmother) is feeding the chickens. I (Jessica) am helping her (Jessica's grandmother) to feed the chickens here (in the coop)."

1. Who is ten years old?

_____

2. Who lives in the farm?

_____

3. Who has got a lot of animals?

_____

4. Where is Jessica's mother milking the cows?

_____

5. Who is taking the dog for a walk?

_____

6. Which animal is Jessica's little sister giving milk?

_____

7. Who is working in the garden?

_____

8. Who is planting vegetables?

_____

Where are Jessica's father and grandfather planting vegetables?

_____

Who is feeding the chickens?

_____

Where is Jessica now?

_____

Whom is Jessica helping now?

_____

A.3. A dialogue with reading comprehension questions for the control group:

PART B:

Please, read the dialogue below and answer the questions about the dialogue.

Marko : Hello, Shin. This is Marko.

Shin : Hello, Marko.

Marko : What's up, Shin?

Shin : Nothing. I am sitting at home and watching TV.

Marko : Me too. Listen. Tom is here. We are planning go to the zoo. Would you like to come with us?

Shin : That's sounds great!

Marko : Let's meet in front of the zoo at 2 pm.

Shin : OK. See you there at 2 o'clock.

Marko : Shin, Tom must turn back at 4 pm. He has got only two hours. Please, don't be late.

Shin : Don't worry, Marko. I will be there on time.

Marko : OK. Bye.

Who is watching TV?

_____

Where is Tom now?

_____

Who is planning go the zoo?

_____

With whom is Shin going to go to the zoo?

_____

Where is Shin going to be at 2 o'clock?

_____

What time is Shin going to be in front of the zoo?

_____

Who has got only two hours?

_____

Who is going to meet in front of the zoo?

_____

A.4. A dialogue with reading comprehension questions for the experimental group:

PART B':

Please, read the dialogue below and answer the questions about the dialogue.

Marko : Hello, Shin. This is Marko.

Shin : Hello, Marko.

Marko : What's up, Shin?

Shin : Nothing. I (Shin) am sitting at home and watching TV.

Marko :Me (Marko) too. Listen. Tom is here (Marko's house). We (Marko and Tom) are planning go to the zoo. Would you (Shin) like to come with us (Marko and Tom)?

Shin : That's sounds great!

Marko : Let us (Marko, Tom and Shin) meet in front of the zoo at 2 pm.

Shin : OK. See you(Marko and Tom) there (in front of the zoo) at 2 o'clock.

Marko : Shin, Tom must turn back at 4 pm. He (Tom) has got only two hours. Please, don't be late.

Shin : Don't worry, Marko. I (Shin) will be in front of the zoo on time (at 2 o'clock).

Marko : OK. Bye.

1. Who is watching TV?

_____

Where is Tom now?

_____

Who is planning go the zoo?

_____

With whom is Shin going to go to the zoo?

_____

Where is Shin going to be at 2 o'clock?

_____

What time is Shin going to be in front of the zoo?

_____

Who has got only two hours?

_____

Who is going to meet in front of the zoo?

_____

A.5. Sentences with reading comprehension questions for the control group:

PART C:

Please, read the sentences below and answer the questions about the sentences.

Today, Ayşe is in Samsun. She will be in İstanbul tomorrow. She will visit Sultan Ahmet Mosque then.

When will Ayşe visit Sultan Ahmet Mosque?

_____

It is 3 pm now. Hasan is doing homework at the moment. Two hours later, he will watch TV.

What time will Hasan watch TV?

_____

Sinem and Tuğçe will meet in front of the cinema. They will be there at 2 o'clock.

Where will Sinem and Tuğçe be at 2 o'clock?

_____

Mert invited Murat to the theater; but Murat was busy and he didn't go to the theater. Mert went to the theater by himself.

Did Mert go to the theater alone?

_____

There is a party at the Sunset Cafe at 5 pm. Gizem is hurry up now because she wants to be there on time.

What time does Gizem want to be at the Sunset Cafe?

_____

A.6. Sentences with reading comprehension questions for the experimental group:

PART C':

Please, read the sentences below and answer the questions about the sentences.

Today, Ayşe is in Samsun. She (Ayşe) will be in İstanbul tomorrow. She (Ayşe) will visit Sultan Ahmet Mosque then (tomorrow).

When will Ayşe visit Sultan Ahmet Mosque?

_____

It is 3 pm now. Hasan is doing homework at the moment. Two hours later (at 5 pm), he (Hasan) will watch TV.

What time will Hasan watch TV?

_____

Sinem and Tuğçe will meet in front of the cinema. They (Sinem and Tuğçe) will be there (in front of the cinema) at 2 o'clock.

Where will Sinem and Tuğçe be at 2 o'clock?

_____

Mert invited Murat to the theater; but Murat was busy and he (Murat) didn't go to the theater. Mert

went to the theater by himself (only Mert).

Did Mert go to the theater alone?

_____

There is a party at the Sunset Cafe at 5 pm. Gizem is hurry up now because she (Gizem) wants to be there (at the Sunset Cafe) on time (at 5 pm).

What time does Gizem want to be at the Sunset Cafe?

_____

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Preservice EFL teachers' online learning anxiety

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Abstract
With a prompt rise in the development of technology and with the advent of the internet in the 1990s, walls of classrooms have been demolished by the innovations of the current century. These developments also breathe new life into foreign language education and change the concept of the classroom while casting challenging roles for both learners and instructors, which ends up a new type of education on the stage of online education platforms. This brand-new way of foreign language learning has brought about extra anxiety in learners. In order to find out the reasons for foreign language anxiety, which affects learners' process of foreign language learning in the online world, a total number of 75 undergraduate foreign language learners (n=75) who are taking online oral communication courses in the English Language Teacher Education Program (the Spring of the academic year 2019-2020) at Ondokuz Mayıs University in Turkey are involved in this research voluntarily. This study aims to investigate what kind of effects online learning has on foreign language learners' anxiety in the process of online foreign language education, what the challenges are for online foreign language learners, how learners perceive online foreign language education, and what the learners' perceived reasons are for anxiety in an online foreign language learning environment through semi-structured interview forms. Certain significant factors which affect learners' foreign language learning anxiety in an online world context have been determined. Some certain suggestions are made to alleviate the foreign language anxiety levels of the learners in online foreign language learning contexts.

Keywords
foreign language learning anxiety, online education, undergraduate learners
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Introduction

With the progress in international integration under the name of globalization, a new era has been ushered in language education, and necessarily learning different languages has gained prominence, intending to sustain interaction among people around the world. Thanks to the Lingua Franca statute of English, learning this language has become a must for all world citizens. Numerous studies have been conducted to find out the most effective language learning ways and the factors which

influence the process of language learning to provide the best foreign language achievement. Considering previous literature, it has been revealed that learning a foreign language demands much more than the requirements provided by instructors, students, and materials provided in the classroom, where 'two plus two equals four' does not always work. It has been suggested that individual differences (IDs) are inseparable components of foreign language learning and play a key role in foreign language achievement. Scovel's (1978) review urged greater scientific and methodological rigor upon foreign language learning researchers, teacher educators, and teachers who investigate affective variables in second/foreign language learning; this interest has led to substantial, diverse, and exciting contributions to the literature in the field and in turn, IDs have been highlighted and started to be taken into consideration in foreign language learning research field since then. Approximately four decades ago, before IDs studies, learners were traditionally stigmatized as 'good and bad or smart and dull' considering their ups and downs in the process of foreign language achievement. Bearing the idea that foreign language learning is not experienced in isolated glass jars; therefore, it is prone to be affected by different factors and the complex nature of human learning, it would be safe to claim that there exists more than one factor not only affecting learners' feelings toward foreign language learning but also affecting each other in the foreign language learning process.

Among affective factors, since foreign language anxiety (FLA) is a knotty construct, it has consistently attracted the attention of second/foreign language learning researchers across the globe, and therefore, among these factors, the most extensively researched one is probably anxiety (Ay, 2010; Bekleyen, 2009; Chametzky, 2013; Gardner, Smythe, Clement & Gliksman, 1976; Liu, 2006; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Pichette, 2009; Rassaei, 2015; Woodrow, 2011; Zhang, 2013, Okay & Balçıkanlı, 2017). Since FLA has been a well-researched topic, foreign language researchers and educators have a better insight into anxiety in foreign language classrooms and the consecutive stress which puts obstacles for foreign language learners along with its debilitative effects on the whole learning process (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). While certain components of anxiety have been determined for a traditional learning environment, there is still a limited number of studies have

been conducted regarding online foreign language learning environments, which have become a center of interest in educational fields over the past three decades.

With a rapid rise in the development of technology and with the advent of the internet in the 1990s, walls of classrooms have been demolished by the innovations of the current century. Regarding the speed and scope of this development for the entire society, this development is labeled as the 'Internet Revolution' by Amichai-Hamburger (2002), referring to the massive impact of the 'Industrial Revolution' of the nineteenth century. The style in which learners in the 21st-century access to education has changed and has become entirely incompatible with the way learners in earlier generations learned (Salcado, 2010) because of the ever-expanding bandwidth and functionality of the internet (Chametzky & Shaw, 2009). These developments also breathe new life into foreign language education as well as changing the concept of the classroom while casting challenging roles for both learners and instructors, which ends up a new type of education on the stage of online education platforms. Along with all, difficulties and changes in methodologies so far have brought a question to mind:

1. What kind of effect does online learning have on foreign language learners' anxiety in the process of online foreign language education?
2. What are the challenges for online foreign language learners, and how do learners perceive online foreign language education?
3. What are learners' perceived reasons for anxiety in an online foreign language learning environment?

Just as Aslim-Yetiş and Çapan (2013) state, research on foreign language anxiety (FLA) in online education contexts are limited in number; components of anxiety and anxiety experiences of foreign language learners, who are educated online, are not clear enough because of scarce literature. Research about foreign language learning anxiety has primarily been conducted in traditional settings where-to-face education takes place. Consequently, this drove us as a researcher to conduct research on the impact of online education on FLA experiences of undergraduate students under the framework drawn in this study; certain major suggestions are to be presented.

Literature Review

Evidence emphasizing anxiety as an affective factor experienced by learners in online education environments has been based on both research methods, which are qualitative and quantitative; they have mostly dwelled upon isolated learning situations rather than community learning environments. Quantitative methods have primarily employed conducting self-reports to scale anxiety considering various online education activities; using computers (Saadé & Kira, 2009), using worldwide web connections (Thatcher et al., 2007), computer-generated intercommunication (Brown et al., 2004), while qualitative and mixed methods have been employed to shine a light learners' anxiety experiences, and other affective factors in online education environments. Such research have generally aimed to investigate specific affective factors (Bolliger & Halupa, 2012), affecting experiences (Zembylas, 2008) or shared experiences (Donelan & Kear, 2018) existing in online education settings**.**

Foreign Language Anxiety

Classrooms are realized to be more than a room in which a class of students is taught; therefore, the existence of a myriad of affective factors, which are emotional factors influencing learning in either facilitative or debilitative ways, such as FLA, has become a central issue among achievement influencing factors in a learning setting (Chastain, 1988). FLA, nevertheless, as a special kind of anxiety, is not identified until the middle of the 1980s. Horwitz et al. (1986) realize the existence of FLA and define it as not trait-specific but case-specific anxiety. FLA is incompatible with the other academic subjects' types of anxiety due to the fact that other fields do not demand self-conception and self-expression to the extent that language study does. For the time being, the influence of FLA has been considered to be employed within the complex network of factors having impaction on the level of success of foreign language achievement in such a way that it is infrequent to encounter studies in English as a foreign language (EFL) context dwelling upon either IDs or affective factors that do not touch on FLA.

Moreover, once scholars consider IDs in foreign language learning, anxiety is generally the first concern to be discussed (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). Arnold and Brown (1999) have ascertained the importance of FLA by claiming that it is the most influential affective factor 'obstructing the learning process'. Accordingly, there exist multitudinous definitions of FLA in the literature. In their recently produced

paper on learner characteristics, Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) have defined FLA as the distress and adversely affecting reaction when learning and performing a second/ foreign language, and it is particularly pertinent to a classroom and using a foreign language where self-expression takes part. Anxiety has also been identified as an inner feeling of nervousness, apprehension, pressure, and uneasiness in connection with the incentive of the instinctive nervous center (Talebinejad & Nekouei, 2013). Horwitz et al. (1986) believe that FLA is not an isolated factor but an amalgam of complex subjective and affective traits, such as self-concepts, beliefs, emotions, and behaviors related to classroom language learning. Inverse correlations between anxiety and foreign language learning have been revealed in some studies (Aida, 1994; Bekleyen, 2009; Horwitz, 1986; Woodrow, 2011; Zhang, 2013). It is clearly seen that there exists a strong relationship between FLA and language learners' performances. There have been many attempts to identify the sources of FLA, but as Horwitz (2001) states, it is rocket science to determine anxiety or other factors that interfere with the language learning process. In online settings, different aspects of investigating language learner anxiety also come about for the reason that the technology factor has been highly affected learners' learning process.

While six causes of anxiety are identified by Zhang and Rahimi (2014) as; personal or interpersonal problems, the interaction between student and instructor, processes in the classroom, the assessment of language, the instructors' and learners' attitudes towards learning. In an online environment, Chametzky (2013) adds three more possible sources of anxiety; the experience background of learners in an online education environment; having technophobia; the complex online education environment due to the fact that the increasing educational responsibilities found on learners (Oguz & Bahar, 2008) and the technical necessities required for online education is different and complex.

Online Education and Foreign Language Anxiety

Reviewing the relevant literature, one encounters several different terms used for online education, such as distance learning, online learning, or e-learning (Moore et al., 2011); however, distance learning is the broadest of these three, and online learning refers to a synchronized environment while e-learning is synchronized setting (Simonson & Schlosser, 2009). All in all, online education refers to different

kinds of environments where learners and educators are not physically in the exact location (Blake, 2008).

To turn our face again to Chametzky's (2013) anxiety sources identification, it can be claimed that learner experiences in online education have a significant role on foreign language anxiety; furthermore, Hurd (2007) and Xiao (2012) state that in online foreign language education settings, it may be more demanding to determine students with anxiety by some scholars. Blake (2008) notes that the prominent issue in this sense as that instructors and educational theoreticians have overlooked the experiences of online learners and the potential impacts that technology might have on them in undergraduate online foreign language education settings. Due to this lack of awareness (Egberg et al., 2009), instructors put learners into severe sociological (Nsomewe-a-nfunkwa, 2010), cultural (Drewelow & Theobald, 2007), and psychological (Pino, 2008) problems which possibly enhance their anxiety level. The mismatch between learners' expectations and experiences also causes anxiety in this sense (Kiliç-Çakmak et al., 2009). Old-school expectations that grow out of traditional class experiences of learners cannot be met in an online foreign language learning environment, which also causes learner anxiety resulting from misalignment between expectations and experiences. Another point to consider is the length of online instruction experienced by learners. In his study, Pichette (2009) reveals that learners who have more online education experience demonstrate less anxiety than the ones who have less online education experience, while there could not be found such a relationship in traditional classes in his study in which beginners and advanced language learners have been figured out to have the same level of anxiety in traditional classes.

The second factor concerns the effects of technophobia experienced by language learners in an online education context. Some learners feel serious hesitation in using technology and show signs of technophobia due to a lack of experience or bad experience in the context of the online education environment encountered before (Anderson & Williams, 2011; Rogerson-Revell, 2007). According to Hesser and Kontos (1997), a successful course methodology of online delivery help learners with weak or no technical skills to perform in an increasingly positive way throughout online education. According to Day and Lloyd (2010), the previous reciprocal interrelation between the learner and technology has essential role in the learning

experience. Hamilton (2009) puts forward that there is a strong relationship between having good experience with technology and a positive attitude toward learning. Analyzing the data from certain studies have confirmed findings (Conrad, 2002; Rovai & Wighting, 2005; Swan & Shih, 2005) that with the aim of extinguishing negative affections involved in online foreign language education procedure, the learners are required to get acquainted with technology in advance to maintain quality communication with other learners and educators besides becoming good at knowledge organization and time management. Peng et al. (2006) state that technical skills which are required for using computers and web-based tools stem from learners' functioning in online foreign language education settings; in the same way, learners' insights of the internet form learners' online behaviors and approach towards online education (Tsai & Lin, 2004). The media naturalness theory explains this by considering the only affective factor which causes negative emotions resulting from the technology use of learners. Kock (2011), considering media naturalness theory, claims that synchronous interaction often presents significant difficulties and impediments to learners for the reason that learners experience an immediate growth in mental work, interaction ambiguity, and a decline in enthusiasm. Therefore, learners who are familiar with current multi-media applications and developing technology and educators who can link up such acquaintances to make the knowledge easier to achieve make less effort than those who do not get acquainted with technology in online education. Such a challenge may not seem possible for some researchers considering today's learners, who are regarded as "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001) of online education because of the fact that they are around their 20s. They are born into technology, so they feel comfortable with using technology in every phase of their lives (Wijekumar et al., 2006).

Due to the complexity of online language learning settings where the use of technology is a must, cognitive load limitation is one of the concerns regarding the complexity of online environments, which may lead language learners to be anxious (de Jong, 2010; I-Jung & Chi-Cheng, 2009). However, when uncertainty comes about, individuals incline to keep up with the change and integrate themselves into present thinking styles to avoid anxiety and confusion (Malkki, 2010; Mezirow, 2000). To this end, even if the system adopted for online education is complex,

learners might find a way to overcome this complexity. It has been seen that the roles of learners and educators changed, and learners' roles are upgraded in online environments because technological development has turned learners into suppliers (Blake, 2008) rather than only demanders (Coole & Watts, 2009) of information. Jashapara and Tai (2011) relate learners' expectations and the roles by stating that if a learner expects not to be active as s/he does in a traditional education setting, s/he will probably show great anxiety because of the fact that being active is a prerequisite in online education settings, along with all, the online environment offers many opportunities to users, by offering a number of technological devices, learners have a chance to hide behind the screens when they feel anxiety. In an online setting, such opportunities may down the level of anxiety learners' experience when they are required to speak before fellow learners and educators (Salcedo, 2010). Therefore, speechmaking in an online setting is possibly less anxiety-provoking than in traditional learning settings. The physical distance between educators and learners or between learners in online education settings makes learners feel more relaxed in such situations that oral effort is required (McBrien et al., 2009).

Although online education provides many opportunities, it has still been seen as a complex construct due to the extent of the burden on the learners' shoulders (Eldred, 1984; Knowles, 1984). In an online undergraduate educational setting, learners are required to have a proactive stance in the process of learning through managing their language learning (Coole & Watts, 2009; Eldred, 1984) and sustain their organization while doing their work in isolation (Mezirow, 2000). Some scholars support the idea that online learning environments are much more demanding than traditional settings due to the high educational responsibility imposed upon learners (Eldred, 1984; Knowles,1980; Oguz & Bahar, 2008) and the technological demands needed for online education, the online setting is viewed as a knotty construct for education. In their studies, Sun (2014) and Kostina (2013) have conducted research on online foreign language classes dwelling upon the challenges encountered by online language learners. Sun (2014) has identified these challenges as follows: assigned schedule, socialization, and engagement, participation, and collaboration problems, along with motivational and self-directed learning problems which online learners encounter in the process of online education. Kostina (2013) has also highlighted that, on the one hand, technological challenges, accelerate the tempo of

online education classes, and over-workload debilitatingly influence language learners; on the other hand, the comfort and resilience of the online foreign language classes provide learners with overall pleasure over their online education experience. Furthermore, Zhang and Cui (2010) have examined the feedback effect in online foreign language education setting, and they have discovered that insufficient feedback from educators and poor communication between educators and learners or between learners are determined as important challenges encountered by online language learners through the path of their language learning. All in all, it is safe to put forward that challenges experienced in online foreign language learning settings are included in the nature of online education.

Methodology

Research Design

The present study is among a few to offer a better understanding of the field in EFL contexts by providing qualitative data; this enables researchers to examine a more extensive representation of students' FLA experiences than that could be revealed by quantitative sources. Qualitative research is described as an approach for scrutinizing the significance that participants attributed to a problem (Creswell, 2014). The qualitative research design is employed for its holistic account feature that identifies the complex picture under the study. However, the research is proceeded in a natural setting by the researcher as a key instrument.

A narrative type of research is preferred in the study within a qualitative continuum for its expressive power. A semi-structured interview mode is adopted in which the researcher is comprehensively in control to enhance practice. The qualitative data are gathered via semi-structured online interview forms, which aim to obtain views and opinions from the participants (Creswell, 2014) in order to achieve a better insight into the constructs being investigated in this study.

Setting and Participants

A total number of 75 undergraduate students (n=75) have been enrolled in this study of their own free will. Eligibility criteria required individuals to have been taking an oral communication skills course, which has been offered fully online since March

23, 2020, via online platforms (Google Meet and Google Classroom) by the English Language Teacher Education Program in the course of data collection (the Spring of the academic year 2019-2020) at Ondokuz Mayıs University in Turkey. Out of 75 learners, 57 of them are female (n=57), while 18 of them are male. 92 % of the learners' ages are between 18-25. Seventy-five (n=75) of the learners, fifty-one of whom are female (n=51/ 68%), while twenty-four of them are male (n=24/ 32%), have been participated in the study by considering voluntariness constraints. Of the learners, fifty-nine (n=59/ 78.67%) of them are freshmen while the rest are determined as sophomore (n=6/ 8%), junior (n=3/ 4%), senior (n=7/ 9.33%) learners. Out of seventy-five learners, five of them (n=5/ 6.67%) are international students.

Instruments

Two semi-structured online interview forms are adopted as research tools in the present qualitative study.

Semi-structured Online Interviews

Two semi-structured online interview forms are used in the current study. The first one is created by the researcher regarding subdivisions of the Online World Language Anxiety Scale, which Chametzky adapts with permission from Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) with the aim of determining the extent and level of foreign language learning anxiety experienced in the online world, and expert opinions. The interview form consists of a total of 18 questions, the first three questions of which concern demographics; the last two questions target the effect of COVID- 19 pandemics while the rest 13 regards online foreign language learning experiences of the undergraduate learners in online speaking skills courses. The second online interview form is designed considering the first data collection prompts. In this online interview form, learners are asked 13 questions offered in the form. Learners are given options about the language they would use (English / Turkish); therefore, two sets of surveys are available online while responding to questions to make them feel more comfortable. While responding to these 18-item and 13- item interview forms, learners are supposed to read and contribute with a written answer to each question carefully to go on with the next question.

Procedure and Data Analysis

The two qualitative data-gathering instruments are distributed online (Google Survey) to allow learners to fill in the semi-structured interview forms by sharing invitations

containing a link to it on virtual classrooms' (Google Classroom) notice boards. For the data collection, the invitation including the link shortly describes the study. After reading the explanation, including the research scope and objectives, learners are required to decide whether to contribute to this study or not. Given that they desire to respond by clicking on the link, learners are directed to a consent letter; following this, they are directed to the questionnaire, which has an introduction in which the aim of the study is again elucidated with an explanatory and plain language while asserting their data's confidentiality and requirements for volunteering. After responding to some demographic questions, the learners are directed to the first semi-structured interview form. After one week, a reminder is shared pursuant to the aforementioned procedure. After two weeks, learners are delivered the second Semi-structured Online Interview Form, and the same procedures are performed as in the first phase of the study. The use of interviews in the first and second phases helped for data comparison and triangulation with quantitative results (Bryman, 2016). Following all these processes enhance the reliability and validity of the findings that have been reported.

Quantitative data are analyzed and presented respectively regarding the 12 main categories included in the OWLAS (Chametzky, 2019). The data analysis from the semi-structured online interview forms includes the following phases of content analysis: transcribing, organizing, coding, interrelating, interpreting the data, and building theories from it (Creswell, 2014). The data are coded according to the traditional approach, which allows emerging in the course of data analysis. To this end, applying all the procedures for analyzing the qualitative data gathered, the themes of language learners' experiences are winnowed, and the underlying rationale for the language learners' online foreign language anxiety is determined. In this study, the data have been presented by considering the questions and variables with the aim of interpreting the obtained data for the reader in an understandable way.

Findings and Discussion

The findings are determined to be presented considering categories revealed in the codes as a result of the content analysis and the present online foreign language education conditions during the COVID-19 pandemic: 1) demographic variables, 2)

comfort, 3) distress resulting in extra anxiety, 4) concerns experienced in the online FL learning environment, 5) requesting help, 6) experience interference, 7) listening anxiety, 8) inadequacies in the process of FL learning, 9) speaking anxiety, 10) feeling the need to practice work before submission, 11) enhancing positivity,12) feeling of inferiority 13) COVID-19 effect. All the categories are analyzed and presented accordingly.

Demographic Variables

Initial questions of the instruments are designed to investigate the demographic variables of the study. Nearly 95% of the learners have online education for the first time, while the rest of them have more than a year of online education experience. Almost half of them claim that they are good with technology while the nearly other half are not sure about it. Out of 75 learners, 40 of them prefer using a computer, while the rest prefer smartphones as a mediating tool for online education. Approximately 70% of the learners are suffering from poor internet connection problems while they are taking online education.

Comfort

Taking the complex online education environment into consideration, it seems clear that almost half of the participants feel comfortable in the technically demanding nature of online education, there are still a significant number of learners who do not have positive feelings towards technology use. Regarding the interview responses about learners' comfort while using technology, it is discovered that learners' level of comfort is generally affected by external technological factors. There exist a number of learners who associate technological tool use skills with their comfort. This finding confirms a set of previous research (Anderson & Williams, 2011; Kostina, 2013; Nsomwe-a-nfunkwa, 2010; Rogerson- Revell, 2007; Sun, 2014) which claim that there exists a relationship between anxiety and technology use. It seems possible that these results stem from the lack of technology use skills of learners.

To go on with the debilitating factors which make learners uncomfortable during online classes, some of the learners point out that they are not feeling comfortable just because of poor internet connection or lack of the required technology devices rather than their lack of skills in technology use because some learners are not well equipped with the demanded technology for taking online FL

education, which poses a significant problem. These results agree with the findings of other studies in which opportunities and challenges of distance education are researched by Layng (2008).

In accordance with the responses, it can be inferred that learners do not want to take any other online foreign language class. The reasons behind this are delved into, and it is figured out that learners primarily relate their online education experiences with sharing comfort zone, course instructors, or the course itself and the workload assigned to them.

Using a webcam during the course is determined as an anxiety-provoking factor because of its sharing feature. This finding is in agreement with Kozar's (2015) findings which show perceptions of teachers and learners about webcam use in the context of computer-assisted foreign language learning as well as studies of Burger (2013) and Telles (2010), although these results differ from some published studies (Jauregi et al., 2012; Marcelli et al., 2005) which report the engaging and motivating effects of using webcam in the process of online foreign language learning. More than half of learners also state that they feel more uncomfortable when they are supposed to turn their webcams on, while some indicate that they feel more comfortable even if they are required to turn on their webcams compared to traditional class experiences. In other words, learners favor the face-saving environment of online education, and most of them put that they feel more comfortable behind the screens. There have been similarities between the attitudes expressed by present learners in our study and those described by Salcado (2010), who supports the view that giving learners the opportunity to hide behind the screen has a facilitative impact on their anxiety in the process of foreign language learning. A possible explanation for this might be that learners feel comfortable hiding not to feel anxious when they happen to make mistakes, which result from human beings' nature due to the instinctive desire to hide when something goes wrong.

Furthermore, almost half of the learners also note that they are feeling more comfortable because of being at home compared to traditional FL classless, even if they are required to open their webcams. However, family interruptions that occur during the courses have been ascertained to be another concern for learners to make them feel uncomfortable. These results match those found in an earlier study that

investigates interruptions in online education and their effects on learners' learning by Federman (2019). These rather contradictory references about webcam use may be due to learners' different lifestyles, including different problems, such as: having mentally disabled people at home or inconvenient conditions of the place where they sustain their lives; they simply do not want to share the atmosphere of their homes to save their face against their instructors and peers.

To go on with the course instructor factor affecting learners' comfort, some learners associate their feeling of discomfort with the manners of course instructors by referencing their experiences both in online and traditional FL classes. The present results demonstrate that ill-manners of instructors are prominent factors that have an effect on learners' comfort as well as their level of anxiety in accordance with previous studies (Drewelow & Theobald, 2007; Egberg, el al., 2009; Nsomewe-a-nfunkwa, 2010).The present findings seem to be consistent with other research conducted by Pino (2008), which finds that educators place learners at a psychological disadvantage in distance education context by ignoring possible effects that technology might have on them as also stated by Blake (2008). This finding agrees with the findings of another study conducted by Beebe et al. (2010). When instructors experience a poor transition to online education, it has been revealed that adverse consequences exist for learners during online education. Therefore, it may be inferred that instructors' feelings of anxiety due to the swift transition from a traditional setting to an online setting, which they are not familiar with before, and the second cause may be due to inexperience of instructors to manage online foreign language learning process; therefore, they do nothing but expect learners to keep up with all the assignments or tasks given flawlessly.

Along with the course instructor factor, learners are frequently expected to multitask with the aim of accomplishing tasks, and this workload (assignments, homework, etc.) in online classes is determined as another discomforting factor. This finding further supports the ideas of Chametzky (2013), who claims that the complex setting of online foreign language education, which requires multitasking, has an effect on learners' anxiety and comfort. A possible explanation for these results may be the lack of adequate practice in an online language learning environment which includes multitasking in its nature. Considering pandemic, it is also noticed that assigning too much homework and strict manners of instructors are basic challenges

that affect learners' psychology along with COVID-19 affected social environment, which causes unfortunate deaths around them. First, considering the workload, the findings of the current study are consistent with those of Bollinger (2017), who examines foreign language anxiety in distance learning foreign language classrooms and finds out that there exists a positive correlation between the number of assignments and anxiety of learners, and Kostina (2013), who investigates learner autonomy and student satisfaction in online Russian language courses reveals that high workload negatively affects learners. Learners are generally found crushed under the workload assigned to them, which increases the effectiveness of the depression caused by the pandemic in this process of online foreign language education.

Considering comfort factors in both written and oral exams, findings differ in terms of learners' level of confidence and anxiety. In written exams, almost all of the learners feel more confident and less anxious, while in oral exams, they feel less confident and more anxious; this anxiety has been mostly established to be related to poor speaking skills and feelings of embarrassment.

What has been obtained so far turns out that the speaking skills sufficiency of the learners affects their anxiety level in online classes' oral exams. Almost two-third of the learners state that they mostly feel anxious when oral communication is a necessity, and they associate this anxiety with insufficient language skills they have together with test anxiety. According to the data gathered through interview forms, one of the other factors that make learners feel uncomfortable during online education is when they are supposed to speak, especially when family members are at home. The data also implicate that learners feel more anxious when they are supposed to speak in the target language than when they are expected to write in a foreign language. These responses become understandable when it is considered that these two media differ in terms of temporality. In an oral communication context, there is rather limited time to think about the wide range of grammatical structures which suit best for an understandable response. In writing, though, one has an opportunity to revise their work before submitting it. If seen from this perspective, then writing would appear to be simpler than speaking; however, submitting written assignments is also anxiety enhancing activity for some learners regarding no chance of error correction after appointments. The findings observed in this study mirror those in the

previous studies (Chametzky, 2013; 2019), which examine the effects of oral and written exams on learners' anxiety; however, the reasons behind the anxiety experienced during exams are offered in detail in this study, such as being at home with family, it is because learners are concerned about being interrupted by any family member during oral exams. Therefore, living with family could be a significant factor, if not the only one, causing anxiety during oral exams that require sharing a comfort zone.

It is realized that comfortable learners associate their comfort with their language skills proficiency and online learning experience, assigned topics considering their familiarity with the subject matter, and technological skills. The time spent on online education is found as an affective factor in online foreign language education because some learners state that they are feeling more comfortable with multitasking as time passes. In other words, poor language skills that learners have is determined as a factor affecting learners' comfort that increases learners' level of anxiety, which is also asserted by Horwitz et al. (1986) years ago; however, the feeling of not being able to express ideas properly through online platform is counted as one of the factors which are also found in the study of Symeonides and Childs (2015), who investigate personal experiences of language learners in online settings. This result may be explained by the fact that learners are not acquainted with the online education environment and have a fear of being misinterpreted by anyone in the language learning setting due to their poor language skills.

Distress Resulting in Extra Anxiety

The interview questions are prepared with the aim of revealing stress-provoking reasons in the online education environment. Reviewing the related responses to the interview questions, the underlying reasons behind learners' anxiety generally result from four main issues, which are educator attitude, social pressure, fear of low-grading, and web-based problems.

According to the findings, participants experience embarrassment in oral practice. In this study, there are almost two-thirds of the learners who strongly associate their speaking anxiety directly with the attitudes of instructors, while the other one-third of them relate comfy in making mistakes in the course of oral

production with the instructor. It is revealed that learners are feeling less anxious with a considerate instructor compared to inconsiderate ones, according to them. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Balemir (2009), who investigates the sources of foreign language speaking anxiety not online but in traditional undergraduate foreign language classes. These findings, though preliminary, suggest that the role of instructors does not significantly change based on foreign language learning settings, as well.

Social pressure is encountered very frequently in environments when oral production is required to be experienced either in a small group or large communities. However, it is encountered in an online foreign language education environment. Furthermore, some learners claim that they are affected by other learners' high language proficiency skills and have hesitations about peer criticism considering their relative standing in the classroom. According to the findings, having concerns about peer criticism along with fear of inferiority negatively affect learners' anxiety. It is encouraging to compare these findings with the ones obtained by McConnell (2005), who ground that peer views can decrease or increase the anxiety level of language learners in a learning setting. Furthermore, the present findings show a perfect match with the studies conducted by Duncan et al. (2013) as well as Symeonides and Childs (2015).

Being aware of the situation while you are being graded is an anxiety-increasing factor in any learning environment, including a foreign language learning environment, too. More than half of the learners report the spring of their anxiety as the fear of not receiving recompense for their works. The finding is in agreement with the ideas of Lazarus (2000), who investigates the effects of assessment on language learners' anxiety levels due to ambiguity, and unknown and unfamiliar assessment methods in the context of online foreign language education. Additionally, these findings support the results presented in the study conducted by Hillard et al. (2020), who reveal that anxiety is commonly experienced because of fear of negative evaluation. The findings may show that learners need to be informed beforehand about assessment criteria and methods. One of the issues that emerge from these findings is that learners are anxious about the online delivery of exams because of ambiguity and unfair grading.

Web-based problems constitute poor internet connection; almost half of the learners hold poor internet connection or tech-based difficulties, such as insufficient technological infrastructure, responsible for their anxiety in online foreign language education, as also stated in the study conducted by Coke (2009), as one of the factors for digital natives to hate technology.

Concerns Experienced in the Online FL Learning Environment

The swift transition from a traditional setting to an online environment in foreign language education directly affects learners' feelings toward foreign language classes. The data reveal that learners have concerns about failing in their online FL classes, exams, and being comfortable about following online classes. Furthermore, some learners indicate a lack of rapport between them and the instructors, referring to the instructors' manners as if learners try to cheat all the time. This finding may result from differences in styles of lecturing and communication, as is given in a previous study conducted by Capdeferro and Romero (2012).

Comparing the degree of anxiety experienced in between traditional and online classes, the data extracted from interview forms reveal that learners' anxiety in the traditional setting outperformed online foreign language anxiety. It is found that the primary source of anxiety in an online setting, especially for online oral communication examination, is technical problems that may be encountered during the examination. Although there are several possible explanations for this result, one is the face-saving effect of online learning, which allows learners to hide behind their screens. However, learners who do not feel more or less nervous comparing traditional and online foreign language education contexts highlight the reason as the similarity of the subjects and curriculum both in online and traditional FL education.

Learners' over nervousness in foreign language classes compared to other classes may be associated with an anxiety-provoking amalgam of foreign language learning and online environments' demanding nature, which have different effects on learners' anxiety. To find out the distinctively different experiences of the learners in an online education context, interview questions are designed to figure out learners' experiences by making them compare traditional and online foreign language class settings' effects on their anxiety, especially in the event of speaking. Learners express that they suffer from forgetfulness which comes around in the course of

speaking in an online setting. However, there are numerous grammatical rules which are required considering foreign language speaking that's why learners are feeling overwhelmed in online foreign language classes in comparison with other classes. The following two reasons have been established to better understand this overwhelm: the number and complexity of grammar rules, and the existence of unmatched grammar rules in the mother tongue. Nearly one third of the learners feel overwhelmed by various grammatical rules they are required to figure out to speak a foreign language effectively. This also accords with the study conducted by Chametzky (2019). It is also ascertained that some learners who are ambivalent about their feelings do not care about grammatical rules at all. Although some learners do not feel overwhelmed, on the contrary, they enjoy and find it beneficial to learn them for speaking.

Not only giving oral responses or recording a video but also submitting a written work makes learners feel anxious, and they relate this anxiety with having a limited opportunity for error correction along with tech-based difficulties. Although it has been discovered that even if they feel anxious, they still favor writing rather than speaking because they have a chance to check what they have done properly before submitting their work. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research conducted by Chametzky (2019), who reveals that language learners taking foreign language courses online experience anxiety in this sense due to misinterpretation of their written or oral responses. A possible explanation for this might be previous negative experiences of learners about misinterpretations of their responses by instructors.

Requesting Help

Asking for help constitutes a significant part of foreign language learning. When it comes to asking the instructor a question, between asking for help publicly or privately, nearly half of the learners prefer asking for help from the educator in question privately rather than asking on a discussion board. The responses show that learners tend to hide their ignorance in public; they want to save their faces from their classmates. Reviewing the responses to the related interview questions, the reasons behind learners' preferences of asking for help mostly from their peers have been mainly found as follows: getting a quick response from peers and having concerns

about being labeled as ignorant by the instructors. The impatience of 21st century learners may be counted as such factors in previous literature (Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Prensky, 2001). The second reason may be related to Mendelson's (2010) ideas which suggest that asking for help from peers does not stimulate as much stress as the interaction between the teacher and the learner. Almost half of the learners make their preferences about asking for help, whether from the course instructor or classmates, depending on the subject matter, while others prefer to ask for help from instructors rather than peers because they find instructors more reliable, and they have concerns about being underestimated by their peers. The responses show that learners tend to hide their ignorance in public; they want to save face from their classmates. These findings corroborate the ideas of Symeonides and Childs (2015), who conclude that asking questions publicly on an open discussion board and judgment from peers are anxiety-provoking activities in the online collaborative learning environment. The present findings also seem consistent with other research (Baralt & Gurzynski-Weiss, 2011; Ahmadi & Sadeghi, 2016), which suggest that educators may cause more significant anxiety when they are asked for help because of differentials in power relationships. The findings also corroborate the ideas of Martin and Valdivia (2017), who suggest that educators have a critical role in online environments while answering questions and giving feedback. These findings may indicate that not only instructors but also peers are counted among the factors which increase anxiety.

Experience Interference

The place of previously experienced language learning adventures cannot be denied in foreign language learning not only in traditional settings but also in an online foreign language learning environment. It is not absurd to expect words and ideas learned in former experiences to come out when studying a new language.

Regarding the interviews, except for two learners, the rest have not taken any online foreign language classes before. They highlight the facilitative effect of being experienced in online foreign language education, such as being more confident in online platforms without hesitation of doing something wrong. This accords with an earlier study (Pichette, 2009), which shows that more experienced learners demonstrate less anxiety than beginners in an online foreign language learning setting. These findings may help us understand that earlier online foreign language

class experiences have a facilitative effect on subsequent online foreign language classes.

Listening Anxiety

According to the findings, the learners' listening anxiety stems from three main causes: time limitation given for the task, poor internet connection, and weak listening skills. Those who are not feeling anxious state that their listening courses are not different from a traditional classroom, so they are not feeling anxious.

In the listening skills exam context, learners feel anxious about the time limit given for the listening exam. This may result from the unfamiliar nature of online learning settings, which require commitments and dealing with difficulties with time management compared to traditional language learning settings, as suggested by Brindley et al. (2009) because the unfamiliar nature of the online learning setting may be counted as a prominent source for anxiety rather than listening anxiety.

Inadequacies in the Process of FL Learning

There are various factors affecting learners' anxiety in online foreign language classes, just as in traditional language classes. Three main factors are handled in this part of the questionnaire. The data indicate that nearly two-third of the learners cannot take advantage of online foreign language classes due to certain reasons: personal inadequacies, professional inadequacies, and technical inadequacies. When personal inadequacies are considered, it is stated that learners do not regard themselves as adequate for an online FL education. While some learners support the idea that instructors are responsible for learners' failure considering their lack of knowledge to use online education platforms, many learners find technological problems guilty of their feeling of unsuccessfulness. These findings may be related only to the inexperience of anyone responsible in the online education process due to the swift transition from traditional to online education.

Speaking Anxiety

The interview items' focal point is oral production. Learners feel anxious when they are required to speak in the target language. According to responses, obviously, many learners are found anxious when they are required to speak or record themselves while giving a speech in a foreign language. When the participants are asked whether

they are taking advantage of being given time before giving an oral response or not. Considering interviews, more than half of the learners express that they have an opportunity and enough time before giving an oral response in online classes. When online classes and traditional classes are compared in having preparation time for getting ready to respond opportunities, learners report that there may not be any difference in having an opportunity to respond orally between online classes and traditional classes. Most of the learners complain about technological problems, such as poor internet connection or device-related problems, rather than getting ready to respond.

Feeling the Need to Practice Work before Submission

The role of confidence is a well-known and well-investigated issue in FLA studies; the data gathered for the related items reveal that learners are encountered to be in need of being aware of the fact that mistakes are expected to certainly happen in nature foreign language learning environments where flawlessness is a fantastic dream. Considering the data collected, it might be safe to conclude that an association may be available between the need to practice what will be said and the desire to save face in front of peers and instructors, and not to be embarrassed. Naturally, anyone does not want to feel embarrassed in front of their classmates. Except for a few, most of the learners state that they prefer to make some preparations beforehand, and they mostly have time for it. When online classes and traditional classes are compared in this case, learners do not differentiate between online learning and traditional learning, considering the preparation part before speaking. Some learners express that they need to write just because they have generally no idea about the topic assigned to them to feel more relaxed in the course of oral production. This may result from feelings of inadequacy, lack of self-belief, or lack of self-confidence, which are also confirmed by the findings of Harnett's (2015) study. It is also consistent with Hamouda's (2012) study, which shows that in non-English speaking learning settings, learners tend to show hesitation in speaking no matter how proficient they are in English. It is difficult to explain this result because there may be several reasons when speaking is considered. Still, it might be simply related to the nature of foreign language speaking anxiety and online foreign language education settings.

Enhancing Positivity

Learners mostly practice positive thinking or try to be optimistic about decreasing the anxiety and stress that results from the online foreign language class. It is reached that based on their actions, a significant number of learners feel anxious and try to decrease their anxiety level. It cannot be extracted from the data whether positive thinking and reinforcement are the only ways learners alleviate anxiety. Learners are asked what they do to feel relaxed and think positively, and we get various responses. It is revealed that learners prefer to have a conversation with their classmates to take advantage of peer support. This finding corroborates the ideas of McConell (2005), who suggests that peers could evoke enthusiasm and decrease FL learning anxiety.

Along with peer support, learners prefer to do positive self-talk or make themselves busy with hobbies to forget about their anxiety. It is also found that some learners do not believe in the anxiety decreasing effect of positive thinking and just keep practicing in order to feel less anxious. This study has produced results that corroborate the findings of Hauck and Hurd's (2005) study, which is confirmed by the work of Hurd (2006) in terms of anxiety alleviating strategies produced by language learners in the online FL education environment. There are, however, other possible explanations but personal preferences mainly determine the strategy to be used by the learners themselves.

Feeling of Inferiority

The feeling of inferiority or superiority inhibits language learning in foreign language learning contexts. Considering the results, it might be indicated that learners are not able to or do not see their classmates in a superior position than they at all. It would be safe to claim that if learners feel that "other learners [were] doing better in the class", then their anxiety levels would have existed and even increased. The ones who report that they are affected by their classmates' success during courses express that they may be affected either positively or negatively, or both ways. It is uncovered that learners have been affected by each other's successes or failures either positively or negatively, although they generally do not feel down compared to their classmates. It has also been found that the classmates' failure also affects each other either positively or negatively, while there are some learners who express that they are not affected by anyone's success or failure around them. In other words, findings indicate

that this situation changes from learner to learner. At the same time, some become happy and motivated when they see their classmates' success; others get sad and feel demotivated, finding themselves less successful than their classmates. It seems safe to conclude that creating a cooperative learning environment may be a solution for such situations. There are similarities between the attitudes expressed by current participants in this study and those described by Donelan and Kear (2018), who reveal that learners' performances and attitudes could be affected by others in the same online learning setting. This result may be explained by the competitiveness that exists in the traditional language learning environment, which still keeps its seat in online language learning education.

COVID-19 Effect

With the World Health Organization declaration of COVID-19 as a global health pandemic, universities across the globe have closed their doors as a temporary measure. Most of them have immediately adopted online learning practices to prevent the spread of the virus. The unexpected global shift to online classes has been a widespread change in language learning education, too. The COVID- 19 Effect is included in the study because there is ambiguity about what will happen next, which influences learners' psychological states, and therefore their anxiety. Depending on the findings of Lazarus' (2000) study, it has been suggested that feelings of anxiousness are aroused under the conditions of ambiguity, unknown or unfamiliar methods of research and assessment brought by a significant change in lifestyles. Learners' opinions are obtained considering two aspects: their attitudes and psychology. Therefore, learners are asked how they have been affected in this educational transition and asked about their attitude towards online foreign language classes considering the changes brought by COVID-19. It is revealed that there exists no consensus among learners' attitudes. While nearly thirty percent of the learners imply that their attitudes would be different while around another thirty percent of them state there would be no difference if COVID-19 never exists. The learners who consider their attitudes would be different make statements grounding on several reasons which are generally based on stress resulting from the coronavirus pandemic and lack-of-sociability which are also determined in the study conducted by Chametzky (2019) as anxiety increasing factors in an online education setting.

The learners who think that there would be no difference considering their attitudes toward online foreign language classes generally support the idea that they are responsible for their way of thinking which cannot be affected by any other factor; however, they are strict minded about online classes as well. At the same time, some directly relate their FL anxiety to only the pandemic.

Although there has been no specific study on the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and online foreign language education before, in accordance with the responses, a possible explanation for this might be that feelings of ambiguity and survival issues have a significant impact on learners' general anxiety, and consequently their FL anxiety to some extent.

Conclusion

This study aims to find answers to the following questions: What kind of effect does online learning have on foreign language learners' anxiety in the process of online foreign language education? Also, what are the challenges for online foreign language learners? What are learners' perceived reasons for anxiety in an online foreign language learning environment? In this sense, our study yields certain significant results.

In accordance with the findings, it seems safe to infer that learners mostly experience foreign language anxiety in online language education. Considering the findings extracted from the data collected, seventeen factors affecting learners' foreign language learning anxiety in the online world context can be listed as follows:

1. Insufficiency in technology use skills
2. Poor internet connection
3. Sharing comfort zone via webcams
4. Ill-manners of instructors
5. Multitasking requirements of online foreign language education
6. Social-pressure / Peer-pressure
7. Poor language skills for the skill courses

8. Intransparency of the assessment process
9. Fear of unfair grading
10. Asking for help publicly from instructors
11. Previously experienced foreign language learning adventures
12. Overload of responsibility of their learning
13. Feeling of inferiority
14. Unknown and unfamiliar methods of study
15. Conditions of ambiguity
16. Lack of sociability
17. Depression caused by the pandemic

Suggestions for Future Studies

The sample of this study is limited to students of only one state university in Turkey due to feasibility and focus reasons. It is suggested that similar studies be carried out in other universities. However, in their future studies, researchers should take not only the views and expectations of the students, who are taking only speaking courses at the time of the study but also faculty to reach more conclusive results in their studies.

To this end, certain major suggestions to be offered can be as follows:

1. Faculty and learners should be informed about the process of assessment and assignments as well as the methodology of courses in advance.
2. Faculty should be made aware of the possible challenges brought by technology use during online education so that they create a relaxed teaching environment both for themselves and learners.
3. Learners and faculty should be contemporaneously given extra tech-based and motivating education in line with the courses to take more advantage of online foreign language education.
4. When foreign language anxiety and technology use anxiety co-occurs, the level of anxiety might be doubled, which should not be underestimated in the process of online foreign language education by instructors.

5. Faculty should be offered workshops to be trained about online assessments to understand better the requirements of the online foreign language evaluation process.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Effects of explicit corrective feedback on writing skill: A private middle school example

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Abstract

This study investigates and discusses the effects of explicit corrective feedback (ECF) on foreign language writing skills. In the process of learning a second language, the ability to write is one of the most important skills for gaining meaningful access to the target language. ECF is an indispensable part of practising writing while learning a second language. Despite the importance of ECF in language learning, many scholars often neglect the idea by accepting it as a behaviourist technique. The article first focuses on the definition of ECF and then reviews various research in the field. Besides, it discusses the research findings of the writing tasks applied to 43 private middle school students (B1 level) taking 5 subcategories into consideration. The study concludes that the research findings reveal a significant correlation between explicit corrective feedback and improving writing skills.

Keywords

explicit corrective feedback, writing, teacher, implicit, peer feedback, qualitative

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Introduction

The place of explicit corrective feedback (ECF) in language classes has been argued by many scholars for a long time. Beuningen, Jong, and Kuiken (2012) state that there are ongoing disagreements about the assumption because in the post-method era ECF has not been viewed as a significant part of the English language teaching and learning process. Within the scope of this practice, relatively little or no attention has been devoted to teaching the English language by using ECF. So as to state the matter

differently, under the influence of communicative language teaching, the valuable relationship between ECF and writing skills has been ignored. In this regard, Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) claim that many scholars think that in second language acquisition, errors or mistakes should be suspended for the later stages or should be handled in implicit manners.

However, many research findings (Ferris, 2010; Beuningen et al., 2012; Suzuki, 2012) show that ECF has a crucial role in the process of learning and teaching writing. From Ferris' point of view (2010), especially, real-time practitioners, in other words, teachers who work with foreign language learners in writing classes state that they potentially tend to use ECF to help their students in a meaningful manner. Furthermore, they have many substantial reasons in order to advocate why they have such a tendency to use ECF as a powerful error treatment technique in language classes such as feasibility, clarity, comprehensibility, and authenticity. At this point, Suzuki (2012) articulates that ECF provides language learners with a range of language knowledge and personal involvement to become more productive when they begin to uptake their mistakes and correct them. Otherwise, implicit feedback may not be elicited by the learner, and it may cause fossilization in the later stages. Additionally, in a long term, learners' lack of linguistic knowledge may end with a decline in their effective filter.

Among so many argumentative propositions, this study also aimed to observe whether the implementation of EFC to middle school students' writing skills. Thus, the question in mind was to see if such implementation would improve students' writing skills and how effective it would be for students' progress. So, the response was searched for the following research question:

- Is there a meaningful relationship between explicit corrective feedback and an increase in accuracy development in the aspects of *auxiliary*, *article*, *spelling*, *regular-irregular* and *preposition*?

Literature Review

The role of feedback in the education field is an important issue and is one of the fundamental steps of progress in language learning (Guanette, 2007). Previous studies

on EFC (Ferris, 2006; 2010) indicate that corrective feedback has a significant role in the process of writing in second language acquisition classes. Li (2010) states that when writing skill is compared to other skills like speaking, listening, and reading, it is a much more complicated and delayed skill because students are expected to produce well-formed meaningful sentences in a foreign language. At the same time, it requires different sub-skills like vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, coherence, and idea organization. In accordance with the aforementioned explanations, Kang and Han's study (2015) suggests that students need systematic, logical, guided, and gradual feedback throughout the writing process. In this process, there are mainly two types of correction applied in writing; explicit and implicit.

Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) both reviewed previous studies about explicit corrective feedback and implicit corrective feedback on second language acquisition (SLA) and conducted a study comparing two groups; one group was given explicit feedback whereas the other group was given implicit and delayed feedback. At the end of the study, they concluded that explicit feedback is an alternative to the implicit one, but at the same time, they also observed that implicit feedback helps learners build and progress in meta-linguistic terms. Both feedback types can be used in experimental studies because both of them are beneficial for the learners.

Biber, Nekrasova, and Horn (2011) stated that corrective feedback can be given to the children both directly and indirectly throughout the writing process. One of the significant issues about writing as a part of the process of second language acquisition is accuracy. Corrective feedback (CF) is expected to be useful, particularly in long-term accuracy development. At the end of the study, they concluded that both direct (explicit) and indirect (implicit) corrective feedback worked out to improve the accuracy of students' writing products.

In the same article, Biber, Nekrasova, and Horn (2011) also listed student and teacher drawbacks resulting from CF in terms of accuracy. First, the corrections made, may have some value for non-grammatical errors, but they are not valid for grammar errors. Second, because of error correction and feedback, students were reported to tend to avoid or do not prefer using complex or difficult constructions. Third, rather than spending too much time on corrective feedback, the teachers focus on additional writing practices.

Beuningen, Jong, and Kuiken (2012) found a slightly different result in their study while investigating the effectiveness of direct (explicit) and indirect (implicit) feedback on written accuracy. Briefly, their findings indicated that written corrective feedback was a useful tool in the process of accuracy development. However, non-grammatical errors of students should be corrected mostly by indirect corrective feedback. Schön (1983) touched upon two types of feedback as in action and on action, and then, highlights the requirements of researchers to apply studies to learners such as positivism, technical rationality, and the evolution of the modern professional school.

When the issue is looked from a different angle, it can be considered that teachers can use many different types of corrective feedback like recast, reformulation, echo-correction, clarification request, and so on. However, which of them is more applicable is uncertain. In this sense, Heift (2004) states that there are three types of corrective feedback that can be preferred for the sake of learner uptake, these are meta-linguistic, meta-linguistic and highlighting, and repetition and highlighting. In addition to that, Lyddon (2011) underlines the four types of corrective feedback; meaning-focused, implicit form-focused, metalinguistic explicit form-focused, non-metalinguistic explicit form-focused. He concentrates on pronunciation of four sounds /*a/au/en/aux/*. During the application process, improvement is observed in all four groups in terms of accuracy. Surprisingly, no benefit is observed at the end of the conditions that highlighting and repeated corrective feedback applied to the students. Lyddon (2011) suggests researchers focus on maximizing their opportunities to exceed these pronunciation mistakes with the help of meaningful communication. It is better than focusing on forms themselves.

Studies of some scholars' approaches to effective corrective feedback in various strategies and qualities are outlined subsequently. For instance, Abuseileek (2013) investigated the role of computer-mediated corrective feedback in English classes. There were 11 error types and two groups of students; one of the groups was the control group to which computer-mediated corrective feedback is applied. After the errors of the learners were analyzed with immediate and delayed post-tests, the

researcher realized that there was a considerable decrease in the amount of given feedback.

According to some scholars, some problems take place at the point of what explicit correction is and is not. Until today, error correction and grammar correction are considered interchangeable, even the same things. To make it clearer, Ferris (2010) outlined that error correction and grammar correction are mixed up with each other for several years. The disagreement among the practitioners who perform in L2 writing classes takes place also in the areas of research, theory and real-life practices. When it is considered from the theoretical and research perspectives, the conflict can also be seen in terms of methodology, terminology and interpretations of errors and mistakes.

Kang and Han's study (2015) can be considered as a concrete example of the statement which belongs to Ferris (2010). They built their study around two questions: "Does written corrective feedback help to improve the grammatical accuracy of second language writing?" and "What factors might mitigate its efficacy?" (p.1). They analyzed 22 studies that searched the effects of corrective feedback for the learners who were selected according to some criteria. For instance, they have to be written after 1980, errors should be corrected by teachers, not peers or computers and studies should be designed as experimental or quasi-experimental. The findings indicate that giving corrective feedback to the students leads to accuracy in grammatical writing. However, this result is a kind of an umbrella term, and it has some sub-groups that the variables are categorized according to some qualities like students' proficiency level, the genre of the written task and the setting.

Hartshorn, Evans, Merrill, Sudweeks, Krause, and Anderson (2010) claimed that there are some problems at the stage of application of the corrective feedback in real classroom settings by the teachers. They focus on the proficiency of the teachers. The teachers have confusion about the steps to be taken during practice. In general, they support the idea that corrective feedback has considerable benefits in the name of increasing the accuracy level in writing in L2 classes. The researchers developed an instructional strategy called dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) and they tested the efficiency of the methodology in two groups. One of them got conventional feedback and the other got DWCF. According to the results, DWCF did not affect

rhetorical competence very much. However, writing fluency, complexity and the improvement in the name of accuracy was found to be significant.

Lee (2013) is another researcher who focused on the feedback process, its qualities and the problems during the process. The effect of corrective feedback increasingly attracts the attention of researchers in the L2 acquisition of students. However, under the name of the practice, apparently, there is a problem with feedback that is applied to the learners. Feedback should be applied in real classroom contexts, especially during the writing process. It is claimed that there is not sufficient information about how it works in a real context and how the teacher gives corrective feedback to the learners. Kim (2004) advocates that if teachers do not give immediate corrective feedback, it may lead to fossilization in the production of learners in the later stages because they may not be able to elicit/uptake their errors and correct them by themselves.

Bitchener and Ferris (2012) searched for another aspect of corrective feedback. They explained that the teachers use feedback every day but they do not know whether it works or not. Bitchener is an SLA researcher and stated that the written modality had been marginalized. As an expert in corrective feedback, Ferris suggests that L2 writing and composing should be paid more attention by researchers.

Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) questioned the cons and pros of corrective feedback type in terms of effectiveness; direct feedback or indirect feedback and why one is more beneficial than the other. They investigated the effect of direct and indirect feedback to find out why some feedback is internalized and the other is not. The students in this study have three sessions: In the first session, they are paired up and compose a text together. They have been exposed to both direct and indirect feedback. Five days later, they see their mistakes and rewrite the texts. These texts are the evidence of uptake for feedback. 28 days later, the students write the text with the same prompt individually. Also, the third text is the evidence of retention. According to the results obtained from the study, the researchers realized that the type of feedback, the students' attitudes and beliefs towards feedback, and affective factors had a significant role during uptake and retention of feedback.

In another comprehensive study, Li (2010) reached 6 results at the end of his updating study with 33 previous meta-analysis studies which focused on the effectiveness of corrective feedback:

> (a) There is a medium overall effect for corrective feedback and the effect was maintained over time, (b) the effect of implicit feedback is better maintained than that of explicit feedback, (c) published studies do not show larger effects than dissertations, (d) lab-based studies show a larger effect than classroom-based studies, (e) shorter treatments generate a larger effect size than longer treatments, and (f) studies conducted in foreign language contexts produce larger effect sizes than those in second language contexts. (p.309)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) also underline diverse concerns of various language experts' reactions to the errors of the learner. Every expert handles it from their point of view; linguists examine it as negative evidence, discourse analysts as repair, psychologists as negative feedback, second language teachers as corrective feedback etc. To put it in a nutshell, correcting or responding to the errors of a learner is directly related to the communicative competence of the teacher/researcher.

Révész and Stefanou (2015) took a different side of corrective feedback into consideration. In their study, they searched the role of learner differences on knowledge of meta-language and grammatical sensitivity. They explored that metalinguistic comments have no significant impact on learners. The students who had both grammatical sensitivity and metalinguistic competence benefitted only from direct feedback supplementation.

Öztürk (2016) investigated Turkish EFL classroom in a state university to observe the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback. The results of the study indicated recast and explicit correction as the most used corrective feedback type. It was also observed that teachers sometimes ignored some of the oral errors to prevent affecting students negatively.

Atmaca (2016) in her study, aimed to examined teacher and student perception about written corrective feedback. It was observed that students' awareness increased when they knew what kind of written feedback they were going to get and this helped them assume their role as learners.

Methodology

Design and Implementation Process

In this study, a quantitative research method was used to conduct a statistical analysis, as the quantitative research method offers reliable measurement possibilities (Queirós et al., 2017). A quasi-experimental research design was adopted to test the relationship between variables. A convenience sampling design was chosen to conduct the study.

The study comprised two phases, beginning with a pre-test and continuing with a post-test. Before the pre-test, students watched a short story video for 10 minutes. The video was carefully selected for its suitability for the classroom. Students were then asked to neatly retell the events that took place in the video. Four days after the task, they received feedback (both written and oral) on spelling, articles, regular-irregular, prepositions and auxiliary verbs, and they saw their mistakes and corrected versions. These categories were formed according to the percentage of mistakes made by the students. The teacher gave another short lecture on the topics in front of the whole class because he noticed that there were significant deficits in some topics such as articles and prepositions. In the post-test, one week later, the same steps were repeated. At the end, the research results were analysed according to the frequency of errors committed by the students within the framework of the five categories mentioned above.

Study Group

The participants were comprised 43 Turkish-speaking students aged 13-15 enrolled in a private middle school in Sakarya province during the autumn semester of 2017, and they had the same task as "Please narrate the events that take place in the video by making sentences in the past tense". The number of female participants was 26 (60.4%) and the number of male participants was 17 (39.6%). The main reason for choosing this class was their language background. The language level of the participants was B1, which showed the homogeneity of the class. This homogeneity was clearly seen in their similar errors on the task sheet

The learners stated that they have been learning English for 8 years. Their English language competence was tested with the Cambridge Language Assessment Test. The school's approach to language teaching was based on the four skills of English as reading, writing, speaking and listening. The learners received 8 hours of English class per week.

Data analysis

To clarify the role of the ECF in the action, each participant's writing tasks, both pre- and post-test, were analysed to determine the number of errors made. The total number of errors made in the pre-test and post-test was compared to find out if any improvement occurred as a result of the ECF process. The numerical comparison is also presented in a bar chart.

Findings

The research aims to indicate whether there is a significant relationship between ECF and writing skills. The students are expected to respond the question throughout the process. "*Please narrate the events that take place in the video by constructing sentences in the past tense*". The results of the research question are given in the table and figure below.

Table 1. The total numeric results of mistakes pre and post-test according to the categories

Categories	Pre-Test Results	Post-Test Results
Auxiliary	43	28
Article	114	18
Spelling	13	7
Regular-Irregular	36	8
Preposition	23	9
Total	229	70

Looking at the results in Table 1, a significant correlation between explicit corrective feedback and an increase in accuracy development can be observed.

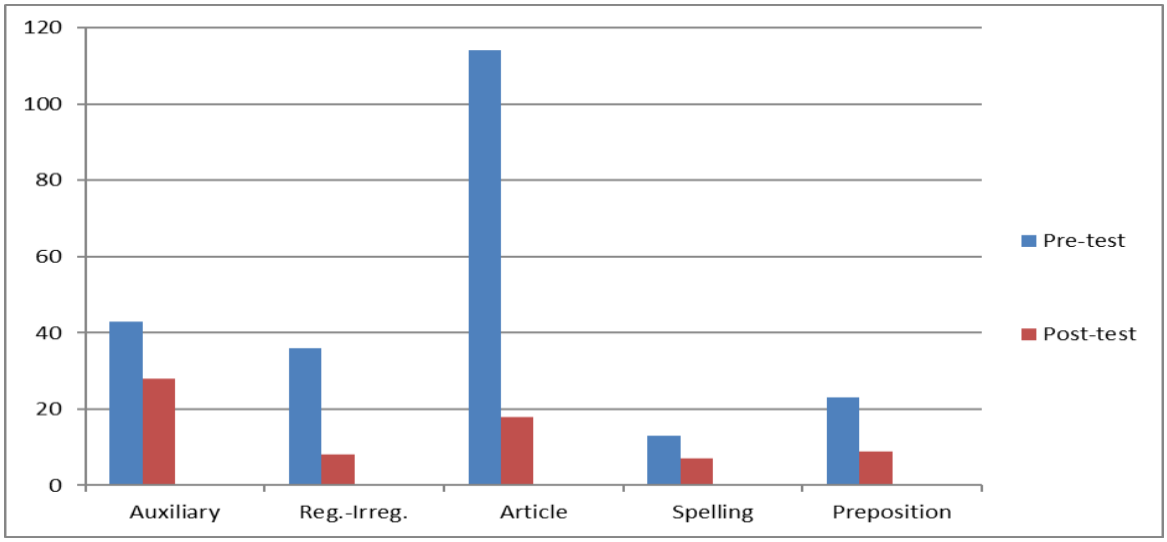

Figure 1. The number of mistakes according to categories before and after explicit corrective feedback

As can be seen in Figure 1, the number of errors has decreased significantly, especially in the article and regular-irregular categories. The decrease in errors in the use of the article is 84.2% (from 114 to 18), regular-irregular 77.8% (from 36 to 8), preposition 60.8% (from 23 to 9), spelling 46.2% (from 13 to 7) and auxiliary 34.9% (from 43 to 28).

During the process of explicit corrective feedback, students were exposed to written and oral feedback. The feedback given covered all categories and was presented to the whole class orally and in written form on their task sheet individually. As a result, there was a significant decrease in errors made by the students after the second phase of implementation. The feedback given increased accuracy in written development by 69.4% (from 229 to 70).

Discussion and Conclusion

As previously mentioned, Ferris (2010) states that grammar correction and corrective feedback are mixed up together and these are not the same concepts. When the determined categories of mistakes were analysed in this study, it was seen that most of them were related to grammatical issues such as article, regular-irregular, auxiliary, and preposition.

A similar study on written corrective feedback of prepositions was conducted by Beşkardeşler and Kocaman (2019) and they found that written corrective feedback proved helpful in improving students' correct use of prepositions

Another issue discussed by Evans, Merrill, Sudweeks, Krause, and Anderson (2010) is about the teachers' capabilities to give feedback. It is not known whether the teacher who has corrected the mistakes has sufficient knowledge/experience in the area of giving feedback or not. However, it can be assumed that the decrease rate in the amount of mistakes made by the students after the implementation of explicit corrective feedback can be regarded as a proof of the teacher's capabilities. Furthermore, contrary to the ideas of Lyddon (2011), who defends implicit correction, the decrease of mistakes in the current study proves the effectiveness of ECF.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study attempts to show a meaningful relationship between explicit corrective feedback and second language development. It also examines how a learner receives the feedback and develops a sense of his or her further language production. To arrive at more meaningful research findings, future studies could replicate similar studies with a larger number of learners of different ages. It might be logical to ask learners what types of feedback they are generally exposed to and which of them are most useful. Also, it might be more beneficial and encouraging for writing skill improvement if learners receive feedback from peers rather than from the teacher.

Notes on the Contributor

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