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RESEARCH ARTICLES

Dear Reader,

The ELT Research Journal draws upon a range of research articles addressing language learning and teaching, methodology and teacher training. Volume 11 Issue 1 of the ELT Research Journal has been published. The five contributions in this issue address a number of issues in the field of English Language Teaching. The first article investigates the correspondence between students' grammar achievement and type and frequency of errors and finds that errors are indicators of learning. The second paper presents a multimedia learning environment and investigates the effects of redundant on-screen text, learner control and self-regulatory skills on students learning. The third study presents an analysis of ELT coursebooks with regard to the role of English as Lingua Franca. The fourth study presents a systematic review of graduate studies between 2013 and 2021 on flipped learning in English language learning in Turkey. The last study of the issue aims to explore student perceptions about peer feedback in writing. I would like to thank all the researchers who have contributed to the current issue of the journal with their invaluable academic works. I would also like to thank all editors, co-editors and reviewers of the ELT-RJ for their voluntary contribution to the journal by managing the review process.

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

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

Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL

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A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF GRADUATE STUDIES ON FLIPPED CLASSROOMS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TURKEY

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Abstract

In recent years, the flipped classroom approach has drawn attention from practitioners and researchers in English language teaching (ELT) with technological advances. However, there is no research systematically reviewing graduate studies conducted in Turkey. For this purpose, this systematic review aims to investigate graduate studies' main features and findings concerning the flipped classroom approach in the field of ELT, reveal possible benefits and challenges in the Turkish context, and make suggestions for practitioners and future research. The study examined all the master theses and doctoral dissertations (n= 32) on flipped classrooms in ELT based on Turkey's Council of Higher Education (CoHE) Theses database between 2013 and 2021. It adopted a systematic review, and qualitative content analysis was utilized as a research method. Findings revealed that there had been a growing interest in flipping English language classes in Turkey since 2014. Along with the advantages of the flipped classroom approach outnumbering the disadvantages, flipping classrooms has brought new challenges for teachers and learners. Therefore, there is still room for further research to investigate teachers' and learners' autonomy and readiness to flip at K-12 levels.

Keywords: flipped classroom approach, English language teaching, systematic review, Turkish context

Introduction

Within the last two decades, technology has advanced over the most vital experiences of human life. Education has become one of these most critical experiences. Instruction has been enriched with technological tools in almost all educational fields, including foreign language education. Learners are supposed to aim to acquire knowledge through multi-faceted

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means by appealing to their different senses and intelligence. In this sense, blended learning as a recent approach is essential for integrating technology into education. For example, Staker and Horn (2012) define blended learning as "a formal education program with face-to-face instruction, in which a student learns at least in part through online delivery of content and instruction, with some element of student control over time, place, path and pace" (p. 3).

For the blended learning approach, flipped learning has become a critical method of applying technological instruments to in-class and out-of-class activities. Flipped learning is simply a model suggesting schoolwork at home and homework at school (Braiek & Onaiba, 2018; FLN, 2014), and it was coined by Bergman and Sams (2012), who emphasized that the teacher can allocate more time to communication in English inside and outside the classroom through the flipped model. Still, they were not the first practitioners who attempted to invert instruction. Prior to this phase, a group of teachers and researchers had applied a model in which conceptual knowledge and specific grammar points were delivered via videos and other supplementary materials before school (Long et al., 2016). However, learners and teachers need a certain level of technology integration in and out of the classroom to provide content and practice learned information.

In traditional teacher-centric instruction, students are expected to complete the activities requiring higher-order thinking skills at home. At the same time, content comprising factual and conceptual knowledge is delivered in the classroom, which requires a lower level of thinking skills (Nentl & Zietlow, 2008). In foreign language classes, this factual and conceptual knowledge delivery generally consists of grammar instruction and specific aspects of language skills which constitute the basis for comprehension and communication in the language. There are several benefits of the flipped classroom compared to a traditional classroom. For example, if out-of-class activities in a flipped classroom provide the knowledge and comprehension-based information, students might have more time for communicative activities (Temizyurek & Unlu, 2015). Moreover, flipped instruction has been reported to be more engaging and interactive among peers (Chuang et al., 2018), to have improved academic achievement (Karakurt, 2018), and to have developed positive attitudes toward self-efficacy beliefs in EFL (İyitoğlu, 2018).

The number of studies on flipped learning (named under flipped classroom and inverted classroom) is manifold. These studies have extensively been conducted on the effectiveness of flipped learning, its benefits and disadvantages, and the relationships between flipped learning and other constructs relevant to learner characteristics and classroom dynamics. Some of these concepts studied with flipped learning are learner autonomy (Kömeç, 2018), self-regulation

skills (Shyr & Chen, 2018; Tosun, 2020), attitudes and motivation towards foreign language, and flipped classroom (Girgin, 2020), foreign language anxiety (Gök, 2016). By conducting such studies, researchers aim to contribute to the efficiency of foreign language instruction. Though plenty of studies have already been present in the literature, there is still room for research on flipped learning and its effects on diverse dimensions of language learning. Significantly, the conditions in which inverted instruction takes place, and its impacts on instruction vary widely across age groups, levels of education, distinct cultures, and courses for which flipped learning is implemented.

Previous research needs to be investigated to determine which aspects of flipped methods, such as the learning process, teacher preparation, or its influence on learner motivation, should be focused on. Therefore, researchers working on flipped learning might need to review related literature to learn what exists and is missing in research. To this end, there are several review articles on flipped learning research. These articles are either systematic reviews or literature reviews recompiling studies conducted to seek explanations for the effect of flipped learning method in various fields such as math, engineering (Karabulut-Ilgu et al., 2018), nursing education (Presti, 2016), sciences (Sakar & Sagir, 2017), and on particular levels of education as in higher education (Brewer & Movahedazarhouligh, 2018).
As to the field of English language teaching (ELT), there is a limited number of review studies on flipped learning. For example, Zou et al. (2020) conducted a systematic review on flipped classrooms from the perspectives of theoretical foundations, learning tools and activities, and research topics and findings. In parallel with this study, Filiz and Benzet (2018) undertook a content analysis study sincerely inquiring to identify trends and patterns in flipped learning research in Turkey and abroad. With a particular focus, Tütüncü and Aksu (2018) systematically reviewed converted classroom studies in Turkish education. Studies revealed that students instructed with flipped learning are generally motivated, develop positive attitudes, and achieve more.

To the best of the authors' knowledge, there has been no detailed investigation of flipped classroom research in the Turkish context, which solely focuses on the field of ELT. In addition, considering the increasing number of graduate studies in the flipped classroom and the lack of research systematically reviewing graduate studies conducted in Turkey, this systematic review intends to investigate the main features and findings of graduate studies concerning the flipped classroom approach in the field of ELT, reveal possible benefits and challenges in the Turkish context, and make suggestions for practitioners and future research. In this paper, the answers to the following research questions will be sought:

1) What are the descriptive treats of graduate studies on flipped classrooms in the field of ELT in Turkey between 2013 and 2021 in terms of publication year, research type, university, research methodology, sample group, and focused language skills?
2) What are the main findings with regard to benefits and challenges in these graduate studies?

Methodology

This study adopted a systematic review method, "a detailed and comprehensive plan and search strategy derived a priori, intending to reduce bias by identifying, appraising, and synthesizing all relevant studies on a particular topic" (Uman, 2011, p.57). Moreover, systematic reviewing aspires "to have explicit, rigorous and accountable methods," according to Gough, Oliver, and Thomas (2017, p. 5). In addition, concerning the definition and aim of the systematic review method, this study aims to provide a detailed and allegedly unbiased review of literature in three steps by identifying relevant research, assessing them, and creating a holistic account of separate findings in the studies.

Data Collection

The first step in this process was to search for the related theses and dissertations with the terms 'flipped,' 'ELT/EFL/ESL,' 'inverted,' 'ters-yüz,' and 'ters-düz' in the database CoHE. Theses database preserves Turkey's validated and published theses and doctoral dissertations. A purposive sampling method was implemented by selecting only theses and dissertations, aiming to select "information-rich" samples (Patton, 2015, p. 546). In other words, the samples in which in-depth information can be obtained regarding the research purpose were included. The purpose of this inclusion criterion is that theses and dissertations adopt fully comprehensive approaches and aim to present a more profound understanding of a phenomenon or subject. The studies on flipped learning in English language classes in Turkey were set aside. As a result of searching and screening the database indicated above, 32 theses were identified. Furthermore, full texts of theses were reviewed for eligibility. Finally, after they were related to flipped classrooms, ELT, and the Turkish context, the studies (n=32) were included.

Data Analysis

The qualitative content analysis method was employed to analyze all the studies. The theses were meticulously examined, focusing on chosen constructs of meaning relevant to the research questions. A rigorous content analysis was performed, and each study's descriptive features and main findings were coded. The codes were categorized under themes and sub-themes in an Excel program. The codes were computed, and the frequency and percentages

were calculated. The two researchers coded 10% of the graduate study codes separately to ensure inter-rater reliability. The interrater agreement technique was calculated according to the formula "the number of agreements/ (the number of agreements + the number of disagreements) x 100" by Tawney and Gast (1984). It was .85 and demonstrated a high degree of reliability, which demonstrated that raters reached a consensus on the themes and codes of the data (Gwet, 2014). Finally, the revisions were made by either excluding some codes or assembling them with others.

Descriptive Features of Flipped Learning Studies

The first research question corresponded to the descriptive features of flipped learning/classroom studies conducted in Turkish education in ELT and the subcategories examined by publication year, study program, university, research methodology, sample group, and focused language skills. The subcategories will be handled under subtitles.

Publication Year

According to the publication year, Figure 1 shows the distribution of studies by year. As seen in Figure 1, there has been an increase in the number of flipped learning studies in the last three years in the Turkish context.

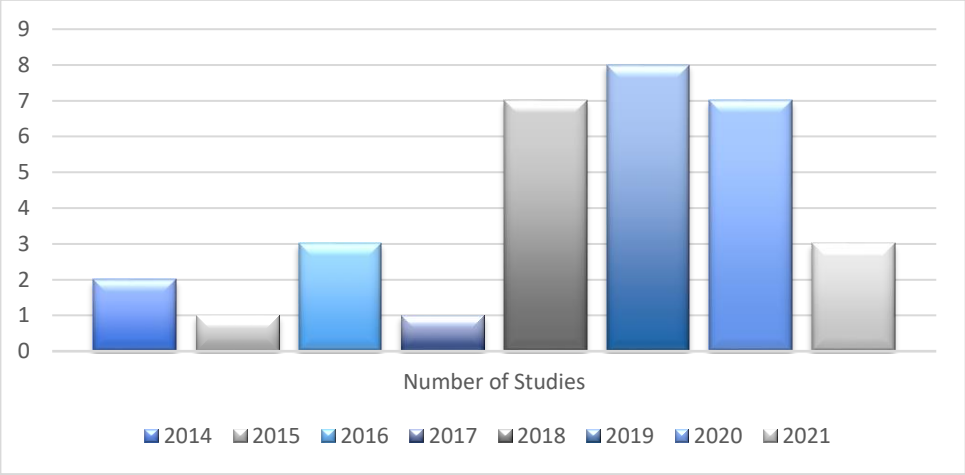

Figure 1. The distribution of studies by years

Research Type

The frequency distribution of the studies regarding their research type (thesis or doctoral dissertation) is displayed in Table 1. As seen in Table 1, the number of master's theses (78,12%) conducted in flipped classroom instruction in English language teaching is higher than the number of doctoral dissertations (21,88%).

Table 1

Frequency Distribution of The Studies According to the Study Program

Research Type	***f***	**%**
Master's Thesis	25	78,12
Doctoral Dissertation	7	21,88
Total	32	100

University

By the universities in which the studies were implemented, Table 2 shows that Gazi University (15,6%) was the university where the studies on flipped classroom instruction in English language teaching were most frequently conducted. It is followed by Çağ University (9,3%), Yıldız Technical University (6,2%), Middle East Technical University (6,2%), Bursa Uludağ University (6,2%), and Bahçeşehir University (6,2%). The rest of the universities publishing studies on flipped classroom research concerning English language teaching published one study at all.

Table 2

Distribution of studies regarding the institution publishing them

University	***f***	**%**
Gazi University	5	15,6
Çağ University	3	9,3
Bahçeşehir University	2	6,2
Bursa Uludağ University	2	6,2
Middle East Technical University	2	6,2
Yıldız Technical University	2	6,2
Abant İzzet Baysal University	1	3,5
Afyon Kocatepe University	1	3,1
Ataturk University	1	3,1
Balıkesir University	1	3,1
Bülent Ecevit University	1	3,1
Hacettepe University	1	3,1
İnönü University	1	3,1
İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University	1	3,1
Kafkas University	1	3,1
Karabuk University	1	3,1
Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	1	3,1
Mersin University	1	3,1
Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University	1	3,1
Suleyman Demirel University	1	3,1
Ufuk University	1	3,1
Yeditepe University	1	3,1

Total	**32**	**100**

Research Methodology

The research methodology of flipped classrooms in ELT is shown in Figure 2. The mixed-method research approach (84%) was employed most often in the studies, followed by the quantitative research approach (16%). On the other hand, the findings designated that no research preferred the qualitative approach.

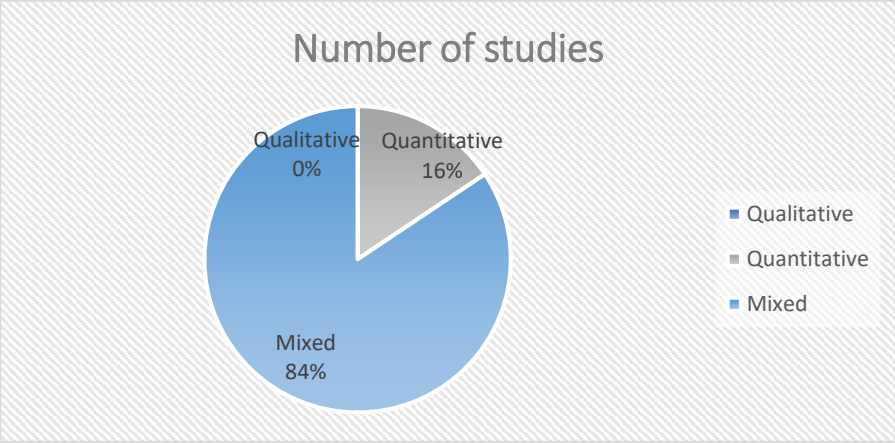

Figure 2. Types of research methods used in the studies

Sample Group

Concerning the sample groups embodied in the studies, Figure 3 presented that most of the studies were materialized with students in higher education. These participants encapsulated students at preparatory language schools and foreign language education departments. The higher education sample group is followed by the high school and middle school sample groups at lower levels. However, merely one study investigated flipped learning from English language teaching at the primary school level.

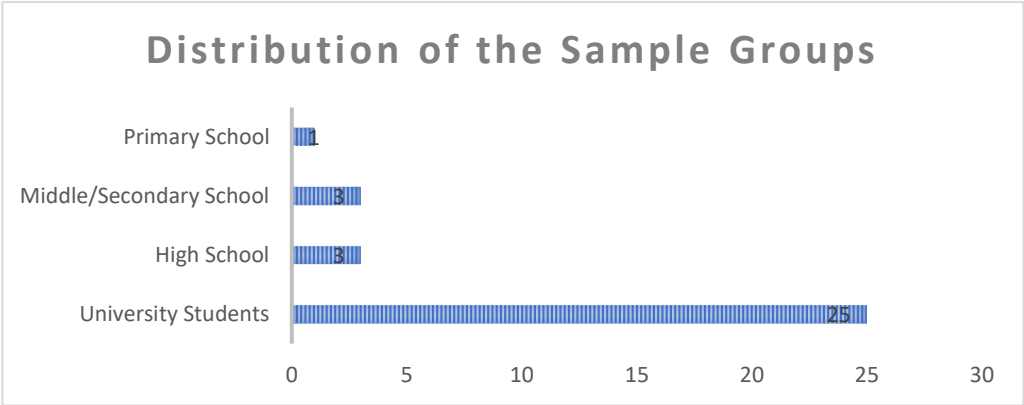

Figure 3. Distribution of the Sample Groups

Focused Language Skills

Among studies on flipped methods for English language teaching in Turkey, grammar (32%) was the most commonly explored language skill, whose effect in the flipped classroom was examined. As reflected in Figure 4, it is followed by writing skills (21%), reading skills (12%), speaking skills (16%), listening skills (9%), pronunciation (5%), and vocabulary (5%), respectively.

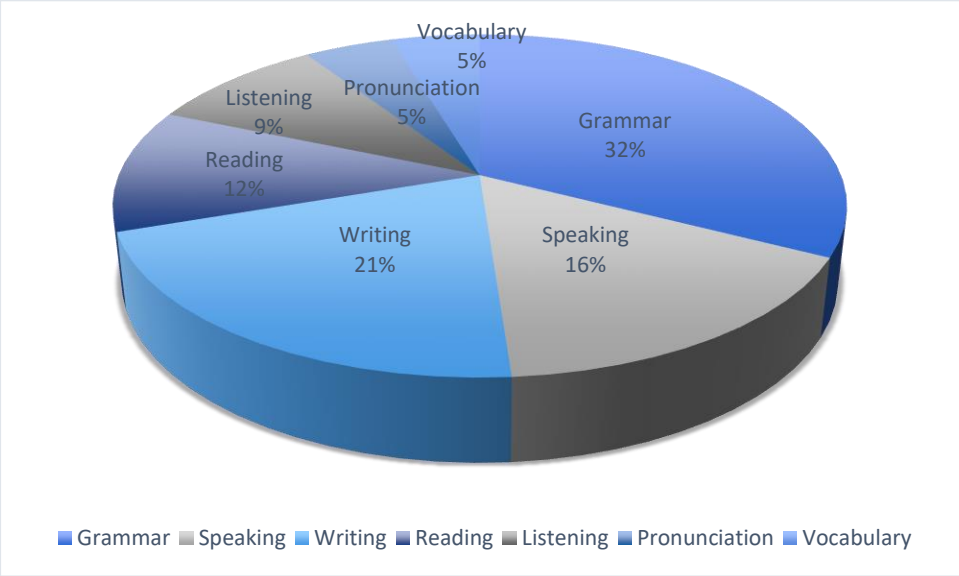

Figure 4. Most Commonly Explored Language Skills through Flipped Method

Major Findings of the Flipped Learning Studies

Benefits of Flipped Classroom

As exhibited in Table 3, the emergent codes for benefits of flipped learning method in studies were listed under eight themes: learner autonomy, fostering language skills, enhancements inside the classroom, learner perceptions, interaction, out-of-classroom, materials, and cognitive skills. According to the emerging themes, learner autonomy is essential with 40 codes. This theme is followed by fostering language skills with six codes encountered 39 times. The third most frequently discussed benefit of the flipped method is that it enhances language learners' flexible, enjoyable, and collaborative learning environment (f=31). What is more, in connection with the learners' point of view, the findings displayed that flipped method positively impacts learners' self-confidence, concentration, and attitudes towards English lessons (f=29). Additionally, the flipped approach may involve more instantaneous interaction between teachers and students (f=24). Therefore, it is surprising that

the benefits of flipped approach on outside activities (f=13), cognitive skills (f=11), and easy access to materials (f=10) were found at lower levels in the studies.

Table 3

Themes and Codes for Benefits of Flipped Learning

Themes	***Codes***	***f***
Learner autonomy (40)	self-paced learning	20
	active and autonomous learners	13
	learning by himself/herself	5
	taking one's responsibility for learning	2
Fostering language skills (39)	positive impact on grammar skills	13
	positive impact on speaking skills	8
	boosting lexical development	6
	positive impact on writing skills	5
	improvement in reading skills and strategies	4
	positive impact on listening skills	4
Enhancements inside the classroom (31)	flexible learning environment	11
	more enjoyable in-class activities	9
	positive classroom atmosphere	5
	positive views towards the course	4
	collaborative learning environment	2
Learner perceptions (29)	enhancing concentration	5
	enhancing self-confidence	12
	positive attitudes towards learning English	12
Interaction (24)	quicker interaction with the teacher	13
	increase in peer interaction	11
Out-of-Classroom (13)	having fun in out-class activities	11
	having more practice outside	2
Cognitive skills (11)	retention of knowledge/permanent learning	9
	positive impact on critical thinking skills	2
	positive impact on creativity	1
Materials (10)	ease of access to materials	10

Challenges of Flipped Classroom

Table 4 illustrates the main challenges in implementing flipped learning method. The number of challenges seemed to be lower than the benefits in general. The three themes and their codes might become real challenges to the flipped learning method; therefore, they must be handled in detail. Learner-centered problems (f=30) appeared as the first rigor in the flipped method. For example, some learners may be less proficient in using technology, get distracted by notifications and advertisements on mobile devices, ask subject-related questions to teachers immediately, and lack an appropriate place to study in dormitories. The following theme about challenges is technical problems (f=15). Applying flipped method requires an integration of technology. Although the procurement of high technology devices had been a problem by 2021, this seems to have been no longer a problem in studies generated after the Covid-19

pandemic, which obliged learners to own tablets and computers for distance education. The materials utilized by the teacher (f=14) were the last problem. Students may sometimes find before-class materials long and tedious; thus, they specified they were not interested in watching videos, which makes in-class practices difficult for them, and using discrete programs for flipped and non-flipped courses were complicated.

Table 4

The Challenges and Disadvantages of Flipped Learning Method

Themes	Codes	*f*
Problems with learners (30)	students' unfamiliarity with flipped learning	8
	students' having difficulty in in-class tasks when they do not watch videos	7
	increase in workload at home	6
	students' need to ask their Qs right away during lectures	4
	students' becoming distracted by other online stuff while watching videos	3
	some learners' being less technology-proficient	1
	students' not having a decent place to study	1
Technical problems (15)	students' having difficulty in reaching the materials (internet and/or device problems)	15
Problems with materials (14)	video lectures can be tedious and lengthy for SS	8
	problems with programs/websites	6

Discussion

The current study demonstrated that the number of studies on the flipped learning method in ELT has sharply increased in the last three years. However, it can be interpreted that the popularity and benefits of this method are blazed across the flipped research literature.

To begin with the first research question, among the descriptive features of graduate studies on flipped learning in ELT in the Turkish context, the findings of the present study displayed that the mixed research approach is the most frequently preferred one, followed by the quantitative method. This finding is in line with the studies of Turan and Akdag-Cimen (2020) and Tutuncu and Aksu (2018). By contrast, Filiz and Benzet (2018) found (detected) that most flipped learning studies in foreign language education were administered with quantitative methods, followed by mixed-method research and qualitative research, respectively.

Regarding the research type, the number of master's theses is higher than doctoral dissertations, which shows that the topic may not have been investigated thoroughly enough to

obtain a deeper understanding, and there are still many more aspects to inquire about. For instance, considering the findings of sample groups, it is clear that most flipped learning studies were implemented with students at the higher education level. Hence, plenty more studies can be conducted with K-12-level groups of English language learners. These findings reflected those of Filiz and Benzet (2018) and Akcayir and Akcayir (2018), who also reached a similar result that higher education level is the most commonly selected learner group for flipped learning research. The purpose of this preference might be attributed to the self-responsibility of the learner; in other words, the younger the sample group is, the more difficult conducting a study might be for researchers.

Another interesting finding was that grammar instruction is the most extensively investigated language instruction with the flipped learning method. With respect to this finding, grammar knowledge is delivered via online materials such as videos, podcasts, and audio recordings in the analyzed studies, while class time is utilized more for purposeful communicative activities. In contradiction with this finding, Filiz and Benzet (2018) concluded that more studies were conducted to gauge the flipped learning method's effect on teaching 'all skills' than on teaching grammar. On the other hand, Turan and Akdag-Cimen (2020) found (discovered) that speaking skill was more commonly studied than the other skills, including grammar, in the flipped learning method.

In correspondence with the second research question, the flipped learning method's benefits are manifold. The emergent themes extracted from codes are consistent with other review articles in the literature (e.g., Akcayir & Akcayir, 2018; Filiz & Benzet, 2018; Turan & Akdag-Cimen, 2020; Zou et al., 2020). The most outstanding findings of these studies in the Turkish context can be listed: fostering motivation, preparing learners for the lessons, having learners become autonomous, and having them control their learning at their own pace, enabling them to participate in and engage with the course and getting learners to have positive attitudes with the English language.

Lastly, the main challenges encountered within these studies while applying the flipped learning method were identified with ten principal codes, and these challenges are categorized under three themes. First, the initial significant problem during the implementation of this method was spotted to be related to students' having a lack of interest, autonomy, readiness, and motivation. To illustrate, they act irresponsibly by not watching videos or not studying out-of-class materials. Some researchers use Edmodo or Edpuzzle to monitor if students have done assignments. However, these learning management systems do not give sufficient data about how long students have watched the videos assigned. For example, Unsal's (2021) study used

the Academic Learning Management System (ALMS- Advancity) to check their out-of-class works and video-watching process.

Nevertheless, the fact that most of the challenges were experienced with learners suggests that more studies might focus on learners' perspectives, like learner autonomy, readiness, and motivation. In addition to learner perspectives, the findings indicated few studies on teachers' perspectives in the literature. For example, it could be more informative if further studies included teachers. Similarly, the researchers might investigate teacher autonomy, readiness, and motivation levels for the flipped method. This aspect was concluded as a research gap in flipped learning studies.

Another challenge is technical problems, comprising lack of internet access and electronic devices to study out-of-classroom. In contrast to earlier studies, however, the latest studies indicated that there had been a decrease in internet access problems. On the other hand, having electronic devices such as laptops remains a problem, which could partly be explained by the moderate economic conditions in Turkey. The last problem is with materials. Even though teachers seemed to prefer more user-friendly programs such as Edmodo, learners reported that some programs are complicated, not user-friendly, and it is difficult for them to alternate between Edmodo for a flipped course and another program for a non-flipped course. Also, they tended to find videos lengthy and tedious. Thus, all these findings suggest that more software programs can be developed to find common grounds among flipped and non-flipped courses, follow whether students have watched their videos and done their work, and produce more creative and abridged videos.

Conclusion

This paper systematically reviewed theses and dissertations focused on flipped learning research in the field of ELT in the Turkish context. The systematic review was conducted by the criteria defined in the methods section, and the studies found eligible were analyzed through content analysis. The results of this present review remarkably indicated: (1) there has been growing interest in the flipped language classrooms in Turkey recently, (2) the research method used in studies is mixed-method, (3) no single university dominates flipped method research, and (4) findings in reviewed studies are primarily in favor of flipped learning method from the perspective of both students and teachers.

This present study intended to give insight into graduate studies on flipped classroom methods in a given discipline and Turkish context. This study is critical because it is the first study systematically reviewing theses and doctoral dissertations examining flipped learning methods in the ELT context in the Turkish education system. As graduate studies aim to

produce extensive and comprehensive work, they are expected to reach enlightening results. In this sense, the findings of this review have brought to light the under-investigated areas in graduate studies and paved the way for further research.

The findings of this study possess several practical implications for ELT researchers and teachers of the English language. One of those for researchers is that there is a definite need for studies with primary and secondary school students as studies have been generated mostly with college students or high-school students. With regard to the graduate studies handled in the current review, findings are prone to be mostly student perceptions of learning language skills though they may lack tests that assess the language skills or areas taught with flipped classroom method. Results tend to rely primarily on perceptions; however, students' perceptions may differ from their actual learning, which requires further research in which meticulously designed assessment procedures are implemented to evaluate the actual effect of the flipped model. Second, studies are needed to investigate the development of students' cognitive skills such as creativity and critical thinking during language learning through flipped learning. Thus, further research should focus on these areas. Third, the flipped model might need to be investigated from both learners' and teachers' perspectives. Still, the studies seem to lack the extent to which learners and teachers are ready, competent, and motivated to implement and integrate this method into their instruction.

In sum, this review article informs readership about why flipped classroom methods can be preferred over others, what challenges the implementers can encounter, and which research topic can be combined with the flipped method in ELT. This method may grant promising results when applied in ELT as a relatively new pedagogical approach.

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STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT PEER FEEDBACK FOR WRITING: THEIR EFFECT ON REVISED TEXTS

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Abstract

In EFL writing classes, peer feedback has attracted much attention from researchers. The collaborative learning theory designates that peer feedback promotes learning and improves writing skills (Hu & Lam, 2010). The present study aims to investigate Turkish EFL students' perceptions of peer feedback in their writing classes and the effect of peer-feedback in their writing development. The data in this study was conducted from students who study at an English language teaching department in a private university in Turkey. The initial part of the data was collected through pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire to delve into any change in students' perceptions about peer-feedback. With regard to the second part, students' essays written before and after the treatment were scored by the researcher and a second rater to see the impact of peer-feedback. The results indicated improvement in students' second drafts after receiving peer feedback and provided evidence for the importance of collaborative learning theory. The questionnaire could not investigate a significant change in pre- and post-questionnaires. Nevertheless, this can be a substantial implication for the field underlying that EFL students may not be aware of the importance of peer feedback even feedbacks affect their scores positively.

Keywords: Peer feedback, student perceptions, writing development

Introduction

Academic assessment is one of the most controversial issues in the L2 writing area. There have been various methods and approaches to assess L2 learners' written texts. When assessing written texts, the assessment process intends to enhance the quality of learning and balances knowledge and performance (Boud, 1990). These two purposes can be identified as

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formative assessment and summative assessment. While formative assessment helps to monitor student learning and provide ongoing feedback to students, summative assessment evaluates student learning at the end of the teaching process by comparing it against some standards or benchmarks. Since formative assessment is neglected by many instructors, other alternative assessment methods could be applied in L2 writing classes. To improve students' learning, assessment-oriented learning can be applied which has grounded some principles such as learner engagement in assessment process, learner centrality, and significance of feedback (Farhady, 2018). Moreover, self, peer or collaborative assessments can be utilized to raise active and reflective learners (Sambell & McDowell, 1998).

Recently, peer feedback, which is an avail collaborative activity for L2 writing classes, has called attention of various researchers and instructors around the world (Hu & Lam 2010; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Liu 2012; Rollinson, 2005; Zhu & Mitchell 2012). Liu and Hansen's (2002) definition of feedback is adopted in this research: "the use of learners as sources of information and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher, tutor, or editor in commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing" (p.1). Peer feedback in L2 writing classes has drawn a number of theoretical underpinnings incorporating collaborative learning theory, sociocultural theory and second language acquisition research which all highlight the importance of interaction by collaboration, learner autonomy (Yang, Badger & Yu, 2006), self-regulation in learning and negotiation of meaning (Liu & Hansen, 2002).

Various studies focus on the topic of student peer response interaction and participation because peer feedback gives the chance for interaction and negotiation of meaning among L2 learners. These studies have examined students' scaffolding strategies and revision strategies (de Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Tang & Tithecott, 1999), linguistic strategies for giving peer feedback and student-student interaction styles and in group dynamics (Nelson & Murphy, 1992).

Related Literature

Although finalized written texts of L2 learners were the focus in prior years, process writing theory has started to substitute it (Hayes & Flower 1980; Hayes 2012). Process writing theory focuses on writing as a process rather than a product; therefore, this perspective claims writing as a recursive, evolving, nonlinear and dynamic process (Chenoweth & Hayes 2001). Moreover, peer feedback provides the opportunity to apply the theory in L2 classes by giving

chance to learners to negotiate meaning and practice by interacting actively in the learning process (Hu, 2005). Although peer feedback is supported theoretically, there has not been a consensus of the effectiveness of peer feedback in L2 writing classes.

A substantial amount of studies has emphasized the importance of peer feedback in EFL writing classes (Farah, 2012; Lee, 1997; Kuyyogsuy, 2019; Nguyen, 2016; Sato, 2013; Rollinson, 2005; Tang & Tithecott, 1999). Peer feedback helps students to enhance writing competence through mutual scaffolding since they read, critique and provide feedback to their peers' written texts (Hu, 2005; Zhu, 2001).

Students' perceptions in correspondence with peer feedback has been also seen as an important factor affecting the quality of peer feedback (Farah, 2012; Lee, 1997; Tang & Tithecott, 1999). As Tang and Tithecott (1999) states, students' perceptions change positively during the semester as they use it appropriately. Moreover, they get involved discrete cognitive, social and linguistic activities during these peer works. To utilize peer feedback effectively in language classes, instructors need to consider some issues. For example, they can assign students into groups where they are comfortable or give them distinct roles where they can participate actively. Moreover, instructors can explain the instructions and purpose explicitly and use peer feedback as a regular class activity (Lee, 1997). As a result, students may develop positive attitudes towards peer feedback in the class. Positive attitudes towards peer feedback also enhance students' critical thinking skills, creativity, motivation and confidence in their L2 writing classes (Farah, 2012).

Besides, there is a common belief that teacher feedback is more beneficial than peer feedback in EFL context. Nevertheless, literature displays that peer feedback is more helpful for students than self- and/or teacher feedback (Diab, 2010; Yang, Badger & Yu, 2006; Zhao, 2010). Peer feedback helps students to reduce the rule-based errors in their written texts compared to self-feedback groups. Furthermore, peer feedback can increase students' awareness to build the relationship between meaning and form by collaborative work and negotiations opposed to self-feedback groups (Diab, 2010). In addition to self-feedback, comparisons between teacher and peer feedback have been done in EFL context. For example, Yang et al. (2006) compared teacher feedback and peer feedback in a Chinese EFL writing class. While over 90% of students found feedback 'useful' and 'very useful' in the teacher feedback group, 60% of students reported feedback as 'useful' and 'very useful' in the peer feedback group. The results also revealed that the peer feedback group made more meaningful changes compared to the teacher feedback group. Therefore, it can be specified that peer feedback and teacher feedback are both useful in EFL writing classes, but it might be in discrete

ways. In line with this study, EFL learners may apprehend their peers' comments more than the teacher comments, hence they benefit from their peers' comments more than teacher comments. Therefore, peer comments were incorporated more than teacher comments into revisions by students (Zhao, 2010).

Along with the importance of peer feedback, explicit instruction about peer feedback training is additionally seen to have an influence on students' writing skills. Thus, the impact of peer feedback in EFL classes can be maximized with the help of some training (Hu 2005; Yang& Meng 2013; Crinon 2012; Rahimi 2013). Such training can strengthen the quality of peer feedback, revised texts and writing performance. Rahimi (2013) and Lam (2010), for instance, claimed that trained students develop their writing skills in the long run and write higher quality texts compared to untrained participants. The training programs may involve different kinds of peer feedback training exercises which are awareness-raising, demonstration, practice, reflection and instruction, explanation of procedures and pre-response review (Hu, 2005). Besides, online peer feedback training also enhances students' writing skills and the effectiveness of their feedback to their friends.

In the Turkish EFL context, the prominence of peer feedback has been documented by various scholars (Bilki & İrgin, 2021; Ciftci & Kocoglu, 2012). Turkish EFL students find peer feedback in writing classes functional and believe that using peer feedback lowers their anxiety and enhances their confidence. On the other hand, Kaya (2021) discovered that students had negative emotions for identifiable peer-feedback while the results were positive for anonymous peer feedback. Moreover, peer feedback helps Turkish EFL students to learn from each other by collaborating (Yastibas & Yastibas, 2015; Kurt & Atay, 2007). Ciftci and Kocoglu (2012) investigated that students' revised drafts were affected positively by means of peer feedback. Similarly, Kaya and Yaprak (2020) explored the contribution of training on students' peer feedback and critical feedback performance. Results demonstrated that students' performance in giving peer-feedback heightened. In time, they could provide more efficient and high-quality feedback to their peers. Nevertheless, more studies need to be generated to investigate the effect of peer feedback training on students' writing skills and perceptions about it.

Despite the growing interest in peer feedback in writing classes, there have been a number of previous studies that investigated various distinct findings. One of the arguments against peer feedback addressed is the issue of reliability of peer feedback in writing classes. Maarof (2011) discovered that EFL students found peer feedback less helpful to enhance their writing skills than teacher feedback. Students were in the idea that they have an equal status with their peers, thus their peers were not proficient enough to give effective feedback as their

teachers. Suparma (2013) and Annisa et al. (2017) claimed that peer feedback has a positive effect on the writing skills of students who have low anxiety level; nevertheless, it is not functional for students with high writing anxiety. Another argument against peer feedback is about familiarity with this technique. Suba (2014) believes that students are not familiar with using peer feedback in their classes since the writing classes are mostly teacher- centered and product oriented. Therefore, utilizing peer feedback is not an effective technique for EFL writing classes.

In summary, these studies from literature expose that peer feedback is found to have both positive and negative effects on the learning process in EFL writing classes. Moreover, it was explored that students' ideas change when they use peer feedback effectively in their writing classes. When some students were asked to compare teacher and peer feedback, some of them found peer feedback more beneficial. Students' writing skills and attitudes towards peer feedback changed positively with peer feedback training sessions, too.

The primary aim of the present study is, therefore, to investigate the effect of explicit training on Turkish EFL students' perception change in peer feedback in their writing classes and the effect of peer-feedback on their writing development. In line with the aims of the study, the following research questions are reflected to analyze the data:

1. Are there any significant differences in EFL learners' perceptions about peer-feedback before and after the treatment?
2. Does peer-feedback have an effect on EFL learners' writing skills development?

a. What types of error correction codes are used in peer feedback after the training?

b. Did peer feedback lead to significant improvement in students' revised drafts?

c. Did peer feedback lead to significant improvement in students' writing skills when texts written with and without feedback were compared?

Methodology

Research Design

The present study adopted a single group quasi-experimental design based on the quantitative research paradigm. Two types of pre- and post-tests were conducted to investigate the impact of the treatment: pre- and post- writing tasks to check the participants' writing performance development and pre- and post- questionnaires to find out students' peer feedback perception changes.

Participants

The present study was administered in an English Language Teaching Department of a foundation university in İstanbul, Turkey. 61 freshmen Turkish EFL students between the ages of 18-22 participated in the study. Since all the participants passed the proficiency test implemented by the preparatory school, their language proficiency could be described as somewhere in between B2 and C1 according to Common European Framework for Languages. All the participants were enrolled in a Fall 2020 writing skills-I course which aimed to guide students to become better writers in divergent types of essays by reading, thinking, drafting, and revising. Their role was also to work as revisers for each other, and help each other become better writers. The participants took the course in an online setting because of the coronavirus pandemic regulations. Since it was the second semester taking all the classes online, participants got used to the online education procedures. The teacher and the students came together virtually for two hours on a video conferencing platform. The lectures were materialized by sharing the book or PPT slides on the screen, so that students could follow the teacher easily. Some pair or group works were implemented in breakout rooms to strengthen students' critical thinking. They wrote their writing tasks out-of-class time and sent each other via email to provide peer feedback.

Instruments

Quantitative data was gathered and analyzed in order to find the answers to the research questions of the present study. The data in this study was collected through:

1. Pre-questionnaire and post questionnaire
2. 1 pre-writing performance task and 2 post-writing performance tasks
1. Questionnaires

In order to investigate students' perceptions of peer feedback, Kuyyogsuy's (2019) peer feedback questionnaire was adapted. Once the adaptation was completed by the researcher, a focus group meeting was arranged to ask their views on the items. In accordance with their comments, some additions and deletions were also generated.

Pre-questionnaires and post questionnaires were conducted to explore perception changes of participants in connection with peer feedback in writing assignments before and after the treatment. The pre-questionnaire included 5-point Likert scale items with anchors at "1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neutral, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree." The post-questionnaire included 4-point Likert scale items which included the same options as the first one except 'neutral'. This option gives the students the chance of not having any opinion

(Brown, 2000). If the questionnaire does not have the 'neutral' option, participants will be forced to specify their preferences. In the pre-questionnaire this option was given because students may really have no idea about the particular issue. Subsequent to the treatment, students were expected to think more critically on peer feedback; therefore, that specific option was taken out. In the questionnaires, students read 32 statements and chose the appropriate option among the numbers. The statements in the questionnaire asked for students' appraisal of peer-feedback as an instructional method, perceptions as a writing process, employment of affective strategies and critical thinking skills. In addition to measuring students' perceptions about peer feedback, the questionnaire also embodied questions about students' age and year in faculty.

2. Writing Performance Tasks

The pre-writing performance task was collected prior to the treatment without any peer feedback. After the treatment, two post-writing performance tasks were conducted with their first drafts including peer feedback and revised drafts. Revised drafts were considered as an indication of the effect of peer feedback in their written products.

Data Collection

The researcher, who was the instructor of the course, came together with the participants every week regularly. The course lasted 15 weeks but the data was collected in 9 weeks (from week 6 to week 14). Before collecting the data, participants signed a consent form to participate voluntarily in the present study.

In the primary week of data collection, the pre-questionnaire was distributed to students without giving any instruction about peer feedback (see Fig. 1). In the second week, students submitted a narrative essay without any peer feedback. In the fourth week, students were trained to give meaningful and critical feedback to their peers. The training initiated by informing students about the distinction of peer feedback for their development of writing skills. Then, the criteria for peer feedback were explained in detail. Depending on the criteria, the students were reflected how to provide feedback related to different categories such as structure and organization. Finally, students practiced giving some constructive feedback by using error correction codes and received feedback by the instructor.

In addition to the training, the instructor distributed a rubric sheet and list of error correction codes to be used while giving peer feedback. The rubric comprised statements with regard to the organization of essay and use of appropriate grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, capitalization and APA style. Participants were asked to use the error correction codes while reading their peers' essays. A week after the training, participants performed their first post

writing performance task. They sent their first drafts to their peers, received feedback and revised their first drafts. They sent both the first and revised drafts along with the peer feedback sheets to the instructor. Participants wrote one more post writing performance task at an interval of two week following the same procedures as the first one. At the end, the post questionnaire was given to the participants.

procedures as the first one. At the end, the post questionnaire was given to the participants.

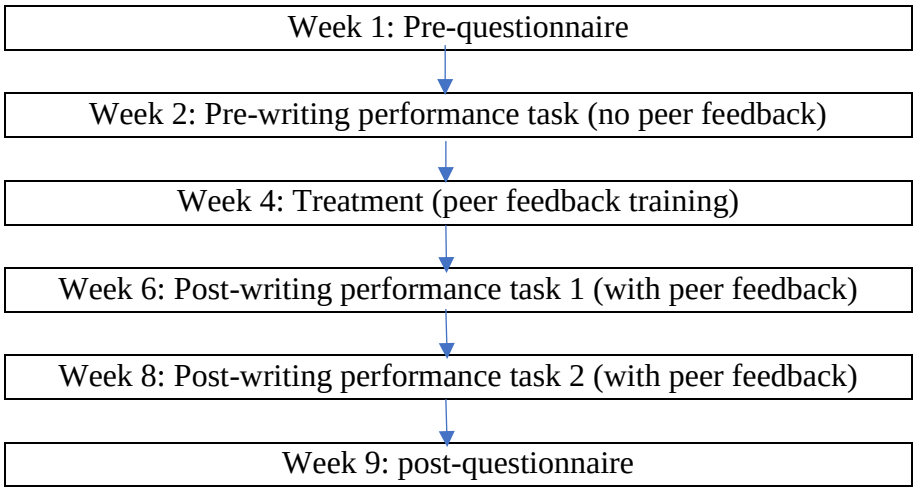

Figure 1. Steps designed in the writing cycle

Participants were paired up randomly by the instructor as Female-Female, Male-Male and Female-Male patterns. They emailed their essays to their peers and gave online written feedback out of class hours. The essay topics were provided by the instructor for consistency.

Data Analysis

First, the prequestionnaire and post questionnaire were analyzed to gain insights into participants' perceptions of peer feedback in EFL writing classes. The questionnaires were analyzed by paired sample t-test to find the differences of students' perceptions before and after the training. Since one of the items in the 5-point Likert scale was taken out in the post questionnaire, students' responses in prequestionnaire and post questionnaire were also compared.

Second, the writing tasks were analyzed in three ways: (1) counting the error correction codes in post-writing performance tasks, (2) checking writing skill development from first draft to second draft and (3) writing skill development from prewriting task to post writing tasks. Written texts were evaluated considering the points mentioned in students' peer feedback rubrics.

Results

Students' Perceptions About the Use of Peer Feedback in EFL Writing Classes

In order to investigate the effect of treatment on Turkish EFL students' perceptions of using peer feedback in writing classes, prequestionnaire and post questionnaire were analyzed. Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics with reference to student perceptions measured by the questionnaire. Table 1 indicates that students' perceptions of appraisal of peer feedback as an instructional method and writing process changed positively from pre-questionnaire to post-questionnaire. On the other hand, their perceptions changed negatively in terms of affective strategies and critical thinking skills from pre-questionnaire to post-questionnaire.

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics for students' perception changes of peer feedback

	Pre-questionnaire		**Post-questionnaire**		
Questionnaire parts	M	SD	M	SD	N
Appraisal of peer feedback as an instructional method	2.32	.56	2.38	.57	61
Writing process	2.48	.62	2.56	.67	61
Affective strategies	2.65	.44	2.33	.56	61
Critical thinking skills	2.17	.55	2.10	.63	61

To compare the mean scores of these two questionnaires, a paired sample t-test was performed. There was no statistically significant difference found between prequestionnaire and post questionnaire (see Table 2). Thus, treatment on peer feedback did not change students' perception about the use of peer feedback in EFL writing classes.

Table 2.

Paired samples test of students' perceptions of peer feedback

		Mean	**SD**	**Std. Error Mean**	**Sig (2-tailed)**
Pair 1	**Pre-q.**	2.4099	.20833	.10416	.555
	Post-q.	2.3491	.18874	.09437	

One reason behind this might be that one of the items (neutral) in the 5 point Likert scale was deleted in the post questionnaire to see what participants really think. The item 'neutral' states that the respondent has neither a positive response nor a negative response

(Brown, 2000). Therefore, the percentages were calculated for each response in the questionnaires to see students' perception changes. In Table 3, the results indicate that the number of 'disagree' was marked more in the post questionnaire when 'neutral' was eliminated.

Table 3.

Students' perception changes about peer feedback

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**
Pre-questionnaire	17.68%	39.04%	30.09%	4.38%	8.81%
Post-questionnaire	19.75%	47.49%	0	7.38%	24.93%

Students' writing skills development in writing performance tasks

The present study tried to investigate whether there was a difference between writing performance of Turkish EFL students receiving peer feedback after a training on how to give peer feedback. In total, students wrote three written texts: one before the treatment (pre-writing task) and two after the treatment (post-writing task 1 and post-writing task 2).

Altogether, Table 4 designates that 61 students used 775 error correction codes in their post-writing task 1. Among these error correction codes in post-writing task 1, 34.1% were corrections related to grammar, 48.5 % were about spelling/punctuation/capitalization/APA style and 17.4 % were related to organization. In post writing task 2, students employed 845 error correction codes in total while giving feedback to their peers. Among 845 peer feedback codes, 34.2 % were related to grammar, 47.5% were about spelling/punctuation/capitalization/APA style and 18.35% were about organization. Moreover, the results reflect that practicing peer feedback helped students to increase the number of correction codes in their feedback to their peers.

Table 4.

Types of peer feedback in post-writing performance tasks

TASK	**Total Error Correction Codes**	**Grammar**	**Spelling/Punctuation/ Capitalization/APA**	**Organization**
	775	264	376	135

Post-writing task 1				
Post-writing task 2	845	289	401	155

Students were asked to send their first and second drafts to the researcher for both of the post writing tasks. First drafts embodied their peers' feedback and the second drafts were the revised versions. To compare the difference between these before and after measurements, a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test was performed. It was aimed to determine if there was any statistically significant difference between the first and second drafts of the two post-writing performance tasks. In Table 5, the results indicate that the revisions led to improvement in students' essays.

Table 5.

Writing skill development from first draft to second draft

Draft	**Mean**	**SD**	**z**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)**
Post writing task 1-1st draft	81.68	5.694	-6.864[b]	.000
Post writing task 1- 2nd draft	91.03	5.909		
Post writing task 2 – 1st draft	91.29	5.979	-6.788[b]	.000
Post writing task 2- 2nd draft	96.66	3.875		

(b) Based on negative ranks
Wilcoxon signed ranks test

To see the effect of peer feedback on students' written texts, scores of pre-writing task and post-writing tasks were compared. Table 6 revealed that there was a statistically significant difference among scores of three tasks. Therefore, it can be remarked that peer feedback led to significant improvement in students' written texts.

Table 6.

Writing skill development from pre-writing task to post writing task

Task	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Sig (2-tailed)**
Pre-writing	61	82.13	5.422	.000

Post-writing task 1	61	91.29	5.979	.000
Post-writing task 2	61	96.66	3.875	.000

Discussion

The current study set out to examine Turkish EFL students' written texts before and after using peer feedback. Moreover, the present study aimed to investigate Turkish EFL students' perceptions of peer feedback in their writing classes.

Turkish EFL students' perceptions about peer feedback

To answer the first research question, responses to the prequestionnaire and post questionnaire were analyzed. Students' perceptions concerning appraisal of peer feedback as an instructional method changed positively but did not change statistically significantly before and after using peer feedback. Under this category, students believed that comments reflected by the teacher carry more weight than peer comments do (Liou & Peng, 2009; Paulus, 1999). The reason behind this might be that students did not believe their classmates to be eligible to give solid comments on their compositions. This finding collaborates with Kaya (2020) who investigated that students had negative emotions about peer feedback because. The reason behind this was that they believed they and their peers did not have the ability to evaluate an essay.

Perceptions with respect to affective strategies and critical thinking skills from pre-questionnaire to post-questionnaire changed negatively. Students felt anxious while giving feedback to their peers. Similarly, Kaya (2020) and Kaya and Yaprak (2020) investigated that providing peer feedback was stressful for students because some thought that this might affect the bond of their friendships.

Writing development

To answer the second research question, students' written texts were analyzed considering three aspects. In the present study, three writing assignments were assigned. The first one was without any peer feedback training and peer feedback intervention. After the treatment of peer feedback training, students gave feedback to their peers and revised their first drafts in second and third tasks.

Firstly, types of peer comments on second drafts were compared with those of the third assignment. It is evident that students' use of suggested error correction codes increased in all types in the last written text (from 775 to 845 as in Table 3). Increasing number of correction codes in the last written text can be interpreted as students becoming more actively involved

in the feedback process as the class progressed. That is to say, the majority of the students did not have any experience on peer feedback before the present research. As the class went on, they received training on how to give peer feedback and they had a chance to apply what they have learnt. This leads them to feel more comfortable with the assignments and peer feedback process. Similarly, Liou and Peng (2009) detected in their study that students made more comments in the last writing task. Moreover, it seems that students mostly focused on spelling, capitalization, punctuation and APA style in their peers' written texts. These changes can be considered as local changes. Compared with Liou and Peng's (2009) and Ryoo and Wing's (2012) studies where revisions were classified into two categories, local changes were more dominant in this study. These two studies intended to analyze peer comments considering local and global writing problems in EFL students' peer comments. They spotted that comments concerning global writing problems were used more than local writing problems in EFL learners' written peer feedback.

Secondly, students' scores of 1st and 2nd drafts of written texts which were written after the treatment were compared to see if there were any statistically significant differences. The results signify that the revisions improved in students' written tasks as it is seen in Table 4. True to claim that peer feedback is useful for writing performance development (Ciftci & Kocoglu, 2012; Ting & Qian, 2010).

Finally, comparisons between peer feedback before and after treatment (i.e. pre-writing task and post writing tasks) designate that students were more successful in revising their written texts. As certified in several studies (Crinon 2012; Hu 2005; Liou & Peng, 2009; Min, 2005; Min, 2006; Rahimi 2013; Yang & Meng 2013), training students about how to give peer feedback has a positive impact on students' comments and revised draft scores. An explanation for this can be that students learnt not only how to give peer feedback in this process but also how to use their peers' comments in their revised drafts. Moreover, their scores represented that students could learn from interactions and improve their writing skills accordingly.

Conclusions

The findings of the current study have substantial implications for both educational researchers and EFL writing instructors as it is found that peer feedback has significant improvement in students' written texts. The results suggest that training on peer feedback can be involved in EFL writing classes as suggested by Min (2005) and Liou and Peng (2009) as well. Students may then be able to give purposeful feedback to their peers to be used in revised written tasks. The results, which showed improvement in students' second drafts after receiving peer feedback, provided evidence for the importance of collaborative learning theory. The

findings highlight the importance of interaction by collaboration and negotiation of meaning (Liu & Hansen, 2002).

Furthermore, the questionnaire could not investigate a significant change in pre and post questionnaire. Nevertheless, this can be a momentous implication for the field underlying that EFL students may not be aware of the importance of peer feedback even feedbacks affect their scores positively. Therefore, EFL instructors need to do more to break down the prejudices of students. In order to constitute positive perception toward peer feedback, instructors may explain the importance of peer feedback in more detail with some examples from their own experiences. Moreover, they may indicate some samples of essays written before and after peer feedback to demonstrate the improvement with the help of peer feedback.

Further research can be done with students from different proficiency levels and findings might be compared to see the differences between a number of proficiency levels. Retrospective interviews could be done to see how students decide to give feedback on specific points and how they decide to use the feedback coming from their peers.

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INVESTIGATING REDUNDANT ON-SCREEN TEXT, LEARNER CONTROL AND SELF- REGULATION IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING CONTEXT

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Abstract

There are not sufficient guidelines with reference to designing a multimedia learning environment for language teaching. This study aimed to examine the effects of the redundant on-screen text, learner control and self- regulatory skills on students' learning simple past tense in an online tutorial that were variably used. English as foreign language learners (n=132) with beginner level of English studying at the preparatory school of English and Vocational School of Justice participated in this quasi-experimental study. All the groups received narrated slides, but additional instructional components in four treatment conditions were changed: Text with student control, text without student control, student control without text, and without text and student control. Each participant was given a prior knowledge test, an academic self-regulation scale, a retention test and a transfer test. Statistical analysis of data designated that redundant on-screen text is not a hinder in language learning context; and that providing novice learners with a learner-controlled system would result in a deterioration in learning. Rather, it is more useful if the learners are guided through a pre-structured and controlled system, which would alleviate the cognitive burden in the novice learners with low experience and prior knowledge in the course material. Further, results for self-regulation are not congruent with each other: In some conditions students with low self-regulation outperformed students with high self-regulation in retention or transfer tests, and in some others vice versa. The study discussed findings and presented some implications.

Keywords: redundancy, learner control, self-regulation, foreign language learning

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Introduction

Many teachers, researchers and instructional designers try to make use of the advantages of today's technology to provide better teaching and learning environments. Even though it is a long process when different types of learners, limited interaction ways and the amount of course structure are considered, none of these seem unsolvable as long as there are teachers in the physical classrooms, and moderators or instructors in distant education platforms. Yet, when it comes to online tutorials in which learners try to learn and practice the subject all by themselves, degree of learner control should be considered.

To begin with how people are assumed to learn, Mayer (2017) claims that learning occurs when words and images are selected, organized and integrated with the prior domain knowledge of the learner. The presentation of the words and images might vary from one learning material to another. While words can be in a printed or narrated form, pictures can be either static like photographs, or dynamic like animations and videos. This theory is called Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML). According to CTML, when learning occurs with two modes of representation – verbal or pictorial – being selected, organized and integrated by the learners, the assumption that learners have limited capacity for information processing in visual and auditory channels cannot be ignored. Also, students learn better with narration and animation than narration, animation and on-screen text that duplicates the narration. What happens when the redundant on-screen text is provided in an online tutorial is an increase in the extraneous cognitive load in the working memory, difficulty in concentration, missing the visual content in the animation, all of which serve as a detriment to learning. Studies documented by Mayer (2017) reported to validate this argument. However, most of these studies utilized science course materials in the experiments. Research displays that this principle may not apply to foreign language courses (She, Wang, Chen, & Chen, 2009; Samur, 2012). In English Language Teaching (ELT), listening and reading inputs foster learners to produce speaking and writing outputs. However, the reading material which is essential in ELT can be redundant when it duplicates narration in CTML. Therefore, the on-screen text that is added to the learning material given as the treatment conditions in this study will be referred as "redundant" based on the substantial amount of literature.

Unlike the redundant on-screen text, providing students with learner control has been found to decrease cognitive load (Mayer & Chandler, 2001; Hasler, Kresten, & Sweller, 2007). By means of control given, students would have the opportunity to navigate between slides, move back and forward in an animation, thus reviewing the parts they have missed. Similarly, self-regulatory skills, which help students do their best in their learning, might be required to

overcome the problems with regard to the design of the online tutorial or the context of the learning material.

Significance of the Study

There is a lack of research on educational technology in terms of redundancy principle in a foreign language learning setting. Also, in most of the studies briefly outlined above which found on-screen text non-redundant could only help students remember words or labels. With the online tutorial designed for this study, the authors aim to test the transferable skills in language learning, the results of which will add much to the literature of CTML. Finally, many studies employed redundant on-screen text in non-user-controlled systems in the experiment phase. This study aims to contribute to this literature as well by finding out whether self-regulatory skills promote learning in an online tutorial with redundant on-screen text and learner control students are provided with.

Multimedia Learning, Cognitive Load Theory and The Redundancy Principle

CTML is a theory of learning that is based on the idea that learning occurs when verbal and pictorial information is selected by the sensory memory, organized by the working memory and integrated by the prior knowledge within the long-term memory. So as to materialize learning, there needs to be some links between the verbal and pictorial representations of the learning material. However, cognitive load theory (CLT) is based on the idea that when new information is presented to learners, the instruction should be designed in the way that it doesn't create an extraneous cognitive load in the working memory and that it should take the constraints of the working memory of the learner into account (Sweller, Ayres, & Kalyuga, 2011). The design of the learning material, therefore, should aim to decrease the extraneous cognitive load that can occur in the learning process while the learner is focusing on the new material. If the material has some distracting or extra elements on it, learners will have adversity in focusing on the material, which causes cognitive load that most probably affect learning negatively.

The redundancy principle of CTML is based on the idea that when written text and narrated audio give the same information and if there is an animation or image, the written text is considered redundant. However, there are not strict guidelines or standards to follow in terms of this principle as it has been found that results might change depending on the learning domain, prior knowledge or learner control. Mayer et al. (2001) have explored that there is a decrease in student learning performance when they are given narration and on-screen text at the same time. These results are consistent with what Chandler and Sweller (1991) argued when they examined the redundancy effect of CLT. Students had to read the text and watch the

animation at the same time, which causes extraneous cognitive load that in most cases hinder learning. However, it can also be specified that the setting of the experiment, the learning material and/or the fact that students had no control over the learning material might have had an influence on the results of this study.

Craig, Gholson and Driscoll (2002) tested the effectiveness of animated pedagogical agents in students' learning the formation of lightning used in Mayer et al. (2001). They spotted that it is better to present the instruction material as spoken text only rather than printed-only or printed and spoken texts combined. The spoken-only group with an agent performed better in the retention, matching and transfer tests. These results are consistent with Kalyuga et al. (1999) with an addition of animated pedagogical agents.

Another study that supports the redundancy principle of CTML (Jamet & LeBohec, 2007) revealed that when on-screen text, whether sequential or static, is added to a multimedia presentation which consists of diagrams and narration, it causes an impairment in retention and transfer tests. The researchers relate the reason for this result to the overload in the visual channel, and note that the results might differ if the students had the control of the learning process as this could contribute to the reduction of the cognitive overload. Further, Leslie, Low, Jin and Sweller (2012) revealed that when students have prior knowledge about the subject, the on-screen text is redundant: However, when the students have little or no knowledge about the subject, then the on-screen text becomes necessary, or at least as the authors suggest the visual presentation does not hinder learning performance. This study is crucial as it provides evidence for the fact that redundancy principle might not be applicable when the learners have low knowledge about the subject.

In a study conducted by Atkinson-Ari, Flores, Inan, Cheon, Crooks, Paniukov, and Kuruçay (2014), an instance of reverse redundancy was observed. Although the students in this study had the control over the learning process and the on-screen text was short, they could only perform better on labelling and reconstruction tests. Overall, the authors suggest that the redundant on-screen text does not always decrease the performance of the students, instead it may even help students improve their learning. The learning mentioned here is not comprehensive and transferable learning, but it is based on memorization and retention. It would be better to redound the settings in Atkinson-Ari et al.'s (2014) study by aiming to enhance students' amount of transferable learning in a different, e.g. EFL, context.

To sum up, when students receive an instruction material regarding a science-related lesson, where they easily apprehend the narration in their language, it has been reported in many cases (e.g. Craig, Gholson, & Driscoll, 2002; Leslie, Low, Jin, & Sweller, 2012; Pociask,

& Morrison, 2008) that the on-screen text that duplicates the narration is redundant. However, it is worth examining the redundancy principle in language learning context.

Redundancy Principle in Language Learning

Plass, Chun, Mayer, and Leutner (2003) tested the influence of different types of annotations on learners' reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. Overall test results demonstrate that visual only group had lower scores in the text comprehension test compared to visual-verbal group. The authors conclude that visual only annotations can hinder learning in reading comprehension, denoting that the visual annotations cause cognitive load while reading a text. The study conducted by Diao and Sweller (2007) suggests that the on-screen text is necessary, and it may facilitate learning rather than being redundant when the aim of the presentation is to improve student's EFL (English as a Foreign Language) reading comprehension. Another study which focuses on Chinese language teaching and the redundancy principle was conducted by She et al. (2009) to teach technical vocabulary items. The study revealed that the on-screen text together with narration and animation was much easier to comprehend, and the lesson was more interesting when text, animation and narration were given as an instructional tool. In contrast, Moussa, Ayres, and Sweller (2012) conducted a series of experiments to test the effects of reading and listening materials on students' listening skills in an EFL context, and showed that the read-only group did better on the listening test compared to the read and listen group. In Turkish context, Samur (2012) focused on the on-screen text and whether it is redundant or not on to teach words to non-Turkish participants. The retention results of this study are consistent with the perception study of She et al. (2009) on the instruction types. Additionally, as in Diao and Sweller's (2007) study, this study helps us see that the area of EFL may have different needs in contrast to the areas of science when a multimedia learning environment is going to be designed.

The previous research outlined above demonstrates varying results in reading comprehension, vocabulary acquisition and listening skills depending on the students' needs and prior domain knowledge. Therefore, instructional designs are not likely to be standardized due to varying students' needs when the context is learning a language unlike science lessons.

Learner Control and Multimedia Learning

The learner control principle is based on the idea that learners are allowed to decide upon the pacing, sequencing and selecting the information in the learning material (Scheiter & Gerjets, 2007). For Scheiter (2014); If a learner does not have the basic information about the learning material, a linear environment would be a better option in terms of guiding and directing the learner. However, for a learner with high prior knowledge, it is better if they have

control over the pacing, sequencing and selecting of the instruction material. Mayer and Chandler (2001) found that when learners were given control over the material, cognitive load could be reduced during the learning process leading to higher scores in the transfer test. Similarly, in a study where learners, along with controlling the pace and order of the learner material, could interact with the agent by reflecting questions and receiving answers from it, Mayer, Dow, and Mayer (2003) observed that students performed significantly better on problem solving tests when they were provided with an interactive instructional material. The authors, therefore suggested that learners be allowed to control the pace and order of the learning material.

Hasler et al. (2007) tested the effects of learner-controlled environments on the test performances of the learners who were instructed the determinants of day and night, and the segmented and the stop-play groups outperformed the narration and system-based groups in the post-test. Thus, it can be concluded that it is better if students were provided with control over the learning material. Further, Tabbers and de Koeijer (2009) indicated that students with the learner control performed better on the transfer tests compared to the students without learner control in an experiment to test the interactivity principle. However, they also detected that the learners in the learner control group spent a lot of time on task, and they could not find a relation between interest, prior knowledge and cognitive involvement and the effectiveness of learner control. Still, it can be said that learners perform better when they have control over the learning material.

To sum up, it has been observed that learner control principle is an effective way to help reduce the cognitive load during the learning process, to help learners enhance their performances and understanding. The question is whether the integration of a linear learner-controlled environment reduces novice learners' cognitive load when learners are presented a redundant on-screen text which duplicates the narration, and which is reported to have increased cognitive load in most cases. In this study, the amount of the control given to the learners is limited to a linear control because the learning material is a detective story having a linear scenario and the participants are novice learners with low level of prior knowledge about the learning material.

Self-regulation

For students to stand out from other members in their classes, self-regulatory skills play a crucial role, claims Zimmerman (1998). The students who are considered self-regulated are, therefore, their own facilitators in their learning process, not just behaviourally, but motivationally and metacognitively as well (Zimmerman, 1986).

According to Lange and Costley (2018), intrinsic cognitive load results from distinct reasons. Amount of interaction and the complexity of the learning material are two of them. They conclude that intrinsic load can be compensated through the self-regulated effort. Therefore, the amount of self-regulated effort can be deduced to decrease the disadvantages caused by the complexity of the content and learning material.

Apart from its positive relationship with germane cognitive load, self-regulation has been reported to have been positively related to the willingness to speak in English as a foreign language (Arkavazi & Nostratinia, 2018). EFL learners usually find it somewhat more challenging to speak in conversations in the target language (Bailey & Savage, 1994). Communication in real life situations, especially in a foreign language, requires active participation of the person who speaks. MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement, and Noels (1998) suggested that self- confidence and readiness to speak are two essential factors that influence the willingness to speak, along with the attitude to the target language culture, the context of the conversation and other personality factors.

Ping, Baranovich, Manueli, and Siraj (2015) claim that self-regulatory strategies ought to be taught to students for vocabulary learning purposes. With the help of those strategies, awareness and effective use of vocabulary learning strategies of the students are likely to improve. Learning to use vocabulary is essential since it is considered to be the internal link between all other major language skills, and a determining factor in achieving language acquisition (Jordan, 1997). Jordan reflected that the insufficient vocabulary knowledge of the students results mainly from the deficiency in applying cognitive strategies, metacognitive control strategies such as goal- setting and planning, and low self-efficacy and motivation. These results highlight the necessity of enhancing students' self-regulation in academic environments.

Similarly, according to Kinzie (1990) for an effective interactive instruction, learner control, self-regulation and continuing motivation should be taken into consideration. Besides, learner-controlled instruction can be improved through self-regulatory strategies. Further, Kinzie claims that learner control can also assist students in developing self-regulatory strategies: When students are allowed to shape their learning in line with their personal needs and interests, they will have more opportunities to explore and practice instructional strategies which will then increase the likelihood of improvement in their self-regulation.

With the suggestion that no single cognitive learning strategy has an equal influence on students and the fact that self-regulatory skills play a major role in academic life, it is worth testing those skills in different conditions. In this study, they were tested with redundant on-

screen text and learner control variables. The question is whether self-regulatory skills help decrease the disadvantages created by redundant on-screen text and learner control given to students.

Purpose of the Study

The study aims to find out the effects of learner control over the learning material and the redundant on-screen text on students' retention and transfer performances in simple past tense in English by employing an online tutorial, and examine if self-regulation has an impact on learning. In that regard, the study aimed to find answers to the following research questions:

A. How does on-screen text affect students' retention and transfer scores on the simple past tense unit when they are

1. given learner control?
2. not given learner control?

B. How does learner control condition affect students' retention and transfer scores on the simple past tense unit when they are

3. given on-screen text?
4. not given on-screen text?

C. Is there a significant difference between the retention and transfer scores of students with high self- regulation skills (HSR) and those of students with low self-regulation (LSR) skills when they are

5. given on-screen text, but not given learner control?
6. not given on-screen text or learner control?
7. given on-screen text and learner control?
8. given learner control but not given on-screen text?

This study aims to examine the effects of the redundant on-screen text, learner control and self-regulatory skills on students' learning in a foreign language teaching tutorial. The results are aimed to help designers to better understand what is better for language learners and the sufficient level for it.

Methodology

Research Design

The present study adopted a single group quasi-experimental design based on the quantitative research paradigm. Two types of pre- and post-tests were conducted to investigate the impact of the treatment: pre- and post- writing tasks to check the participants' writing performance development and pre- and post- questionnaires to find out students' peer feedback perception changes.

Research design and sample

The study was conducted with a pre-test and post-test quasi-experimental design (Creswell, 2012). The academic self-regulation scale scores, prior knowledge test scores, and one of the four different versions of the online tutorial acted as the independent variables of the study; the dependent variables were the students' retention and transfer test scores in the subject of simple past tense in English. The target population was students with a beginner level of English at universities in Turkey who haven't studied the unit. Convenience sampling method was implemented due to the accessibility of the students who study in a foundation university. The participants were determined with the decision of the school coordinator, who assigned the available classes to attend the experiment considering that they hadn't studied the simple past tense unit yet, so the groups were randomly assigned. Participants were students taking beginner level English courses according to their departmental programs and English Preparatory school. Data were collected on a voluntary basis from 150 students, aged 17 to 33, from 10 classes in the preparatory school of the foundation university. Eighteen students were dropped from the sample in data analysis stage because they didn't take one or more tests.

Material

All the groups in this experiment operated an online tutorial developed by the researchers on Articulate Storyline. Each group was provided with a different version of the material. The tutorial was regularly checked during the design process by one of the teacher trainers in English Language Programs in terms of context and content of the material, and by an instructional designer in terms of multimedia principles. These regular checks were made to ensure validity and effectiveness of the learning material. This tutorial aimed to teach simple past tense to the students, who then studied the subject in 15-20 minutes depending on the experimental group they were in.

There were four steps in the learning material based on the context: The introduction of the case, the presentation of the main learning gains, the practices and clues (two steps) and the conclusion. The treatment of the four groups is listed in Table 1, and examples of screen layouts are given in Figure 1.

Table 1.

Groups and Treatments

Group	Multimedia Condition	Abbreviation	Number of Participants
1	Narrated Slides with On-Screen **Text**, but **No** Learner **Control** is Given	TNC	33
2	Narrated Slides without (**No**) On-Screen **Text** and **No** Learner **Control** is Given	NTNC	33
3	Narrated Slides with On-Screen **Text**, and Learner **Control** is Given	TC	32
4	Narrated Slides **without** On-Screen **Text**, and Learner **Control** is Given	NTC	34

The material is a self-study tutorial which encapsulates a specific content and activities which are not available in the course-book the students use. However, the objectives of the course were in line with the course book used in the English Language Programs. The tutorial comprised 4 steps and 30 screens/slides in total. Eight of the slides were introductory slides in which students were explained what to do next; Ten slides were designed to ask questions to the students about the slides earlier. Eight slides embraced animations or images about the context in which students followed the story. Finally, four of the slides were conclusion slides in which students were presented the end of each step. After the completion of the prior knowledge test, students were asked to start the tutorial in the university's computer lab. About the theme and the context of the material, students were given a criminal case to be solved with the help of the clues given at each stage. Regardless of the condition, the participants were given a small introduction about the case. Then they investigated the witnesses one by one, and they did some practices by trying to question the suspects of the crime. Finally, they were expected to write the name of the person who they think was the criminal (for details, see Cananoglu, 2020).

Figure 1. Screen layout examples in the four versions

Procedure and Data Collection Tools

Four data collection instruments were utilized in this study. Before the treatment, students were expected to respond to an online academic self-regulation scale (Kaplan, 2014) with a Cronbach alpha coefficient value of .969, and a prior knowledge test. After the treatment, students were given a retention test and a transfer test. The prior knowledge test, the retention test and the transfer test were developed by the researchers, and were revised by a committee of testing coordinators at the English Language Program of the university the research was conducted in. The first part of the test contains 10 fill-in the blank type of questions. However, all five questions in the second part required full-sentence answers. In total, the maximum score a student could get was 20. The retention test, with a maximum score of 10, asked to match 10 events with 5 characters to test if the on-screen text or level of learner control causes cognitive load and influenced recall of the learning material. The transfer test was designed to assess if

students would be able to transfer what they have studied in the learning material into, in this case simple past tense, a different environment: Students were expected to write 10 sentences about a person's past. In this test, with a maximum score of 20, students were asked to use 10 verbs which they had studied in the learning material.

Data collection was completed at the participants' school in one day. First, the students were given the consent form. Second, the students were told to complete the "Academic Self-Regulation Scale" online in 10 minutes. Third, the prior knowledge test was completed in 10 minutes. Subsequent to the treatment, the retention and the transfer tests were given to the students successively, respectively taking 10 and 15 minutes to complete.

Data Analysis and Results

The normality tests, conducted on the data sets, demonstrated that it is acceptable to conduct parametric tests to compare the means of prior knowledge, retention and transfer test scores of each matched group. With reference to the analysis of self-regulation variable, non-parametric tests were used, and verified with their parametric equivalent tests.

Table 2 depicts matched groups for the research questions. Table 3 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of prior knowledge test, retention test and transfer test for the treatment groups. Table 4 provides the same statistics with the self-regulation variable for the treatment groups.

Table 2.
Research questions and matched groups

Question-1	TC vs. NTC
Question-2	TNC vs. NTNC
Question-3	TC vs. TNC
Question-4	NTC vs. NTNC
Question-5	HSR + TNC vs. LSR + TNC
Question-6	HSR + NTNC vs. LSR + NTNC
Question-7	HSR + TC vs. LSR + TC
Question-8	HSR + NTC vs. LSR + NTC

Prior Knowledge, Retention and Transfer Test Comparisons

A one-way ANOVA test [F (3, 128) =.031, p=.993] showed that the means of the prior knowledge for all groups were identical. Similarly, further one-way ANOVA tests showed that there were significant differences between groups for both retention test [F (3, 128) =3.010, p=.033] and transfer test [F (3, 128) =8.205, p=.001].

Therefore, independent t-tests were conducted to analyze each group in terms of text and control variables.

Table 3.
Descriptive statistics of prior knowledge test, retention test and transfer test

		Prior Knowledge		Retention		Transfer	
	n	Mean	*St. Dev.*	Mean	*St. Dev.*	Mean	*St. Dev.*
TNC	33	3.121	4.967	4.788	2.190	8.667	6.541
NTNC	33	2.939	4.220	3.848	1.822	7.333	5.823
TC	32	3.188	4.130	4.125	1.979	3.906	5.082
NTC	34	3.235	3.585	3.294	2.250	2.735	4.925
Total	132	3.121	4.202	4.008	2.116	5.652	6.075

Text and Control Condition Comparisons

The follow-up independent t-tests showed that mean retention scores of TNC (M=4.78; SD=2.19) and NTC (M=3.29; SD=2.25) conditions significantly differed (t=2.733; df=64; p=.008), favoring TNC condition (Cohen's d=0.67). However, the differences between mean retention scores of TC and the NTC conditions, TNC and the NTNC conditions, NTC and the NTCN conditions, and TC and the NTNC condition were not significant. Regarding transfer test scores, second series of follow-up independent t-tests showed that there was a statistically significant difference (t=3.493; df=65; p=.001) between the mean transfer test scores of NTC (M=2.73; SD=4.92) and NTNC (M=7.33; SD=5.82) conditions (Cohen's d=0.27), and (t=3.269; df=63; p=.002)between the mean transfer test scores of TC (M=3.90; SD=5.08) and NTC (M=8.66; SD=6.54) conditions (Cohen's d=0.23). Nevertheless, the differences between mean transfer scores of other condition groups were not significant. These three significant differences obtained through t tests were also confirmed considering Bonferroni correction (alpha/6=0.0083). Because Cohen's d coefficients for the transfer tests of NTC, NTNC, TC and NTC are small, depicting small effect, the significant differences obtained should be interpreted cautiously, and the findings should be replicated with larger samples.

Table 4.
Descriptive statistics of the tests based on self-regulation grouping

		Prior Knowledge		Retention		Transfer	
	n	Mean	*St. Dev.*	Mean	*St. Dev.*	Mean	*St. Dev.*
HSR-TNC	25	2.640	4.812	5.000	2.327	8.200	6.409
LSR-TNC	8	4.625	5.475	4.125	1.642	10.125	7.180
HSR-NTNC	18	3.222	4.796	3.889	1.567	6.722	5.808
LSR-NTNC	15	2.600	3.541	3.800	2.144	8.067	5.957
HSR-TC	16	2.688	3.700	3.625	1.784	2.938	3.750
LSR-TC	16	3.688	4.585	4.625	2.093	4.875	6.108
HSR-NTC	20	2.550	3.219	4.150	1.871	3.250	5.514
LSR-NTC	14	4.214	3.964	2.071	2.234	2.000	4.019
Total	132	3.121	4.202	4.008	2.116	5.652	6.075

Self-Regulation Effect

To examine whether self-regulatory skills of the participants had an influence on the retention or transfer scores, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, showing that there was no statistically significant difference on self- regulation scale scores (see Table 5) between the treatment groups [F (3, 128)=0.375, p=.771]. Further, the participants' self-regulation survey scores were divided into two groups depending on the mean (4.98) score of total participants: Low (LSR) and high (HSR). As the group sizes got smaller due to that division, data distribution in some of these small groups did not show normality, hence the follow up tests were non-parametric tests, ie., Mann-Whitney U tests.

Table 5.
Descriptive statistics for students' self-regulation scale scores

Groups	n	Mean	*St. Dev.*
TNC	33	5.152	1.101
NTNC	33	4.917	1.232
TC	32	4.941	.910
NTC	34	4.921	.973
Total	132	4.982	1.054

Retention and Transfer in LSR and HSR Groups

Mann-Whitney U tests indicated that:

i) *in text without control condition***,** high and low self-regulation groups' retention test scores [*U* (31) =75000, *z*=-1.066, *p*=.287] were similar, also both group's transfer test scores [*U* (31) =84500, *z*=-.653 *p*=.514] were identical.

ii) *in no text and no control condition***,** high and low self-regulation groups' retention test scores [*U* (31) =133500, *z* =-.055, *p*=.956] were similar, and both groups' transfer test scores [*U* (31) =114500, *z*

=-.747 *p*=.455] were not significantly different.

iii) *in text and control condition***,** high and low self-regulation groups' retention test scores [*U* (30) =94500,*z*=-1.281, *p*=.200] were identical, and their transfer test scores [*U* (30) =114000, *z*=-.565 *p*=.572] were similar.

iv) *in no text but with control condition*, students with high self-regulatory skills outperformed the students with low self-regulatory skills in the retention test [*U* (32)=58000, *z*=-2.904, *p*=.004], (Cohen's r= .49), mean rank of HSR NTC=21.60; mean rank of LSR NTC=11.64; However, the second test indicated thatboth groups' distribution of the transfer test scores [*U* (32)=128500, *z*=-.460 *p*=.645] were similar.

Discussion and Conclusion

The Redundancy Effect

In the light of the results, it can be concluded that the redundant on-screen text doesn't hinder the retention of the content presented in the material or the transfer of the new vocabulary items. According to CTML, when on- screen text duplicates the audio, the text is redundant since it causes extra visual load in the learner's mind. First of all, most studies that contradict with these results are generally those which employed science course materials in their experiments (Craig et al., 2002; Kalyuga et al., 1999; Mayer, 2001; Mayer et al., 2001). It may be interpreted that it is redundant to add a text that duplicates the narration when a student studies to learn the lightning formation or how brakes work in their mother language. Mayer et al. (2001) has spotted that the text is redundant as it makes it difficult for the learner to focus on the animation which presents the formation of a lightning. The narration already completes the animation and contributes to the creation of meaning images in students' minds with the integration of the visual and audial inputs. However, when it comes to learning a foreign language, students' needs and the efforts they make might differ, as the results in this study suggested.

Although the difference was not significant, it was reported that the mean scores of the redundant text groups were higher than the other two groups. These results are consistent with earlier studies about learning a foreign language. For instance, Garza's study (1991) concluded that subtitled videos help students integrate reading and listening inputs; Borras and Lafayette's study (1994) demonstrated that on-screen text provides students with valuable linguistic input, resulting in communicative output. Also, Markham (1999) displayed that captioned videotapes significantly enhance EFL learners' word recognition. Further, She et al. (2009) argued that

when presented together, on-screen text and narration are better for foreign language learners, and Samur (2012) supported that presenting redundant on-screen text facilitates students' vocabulary learning.

Unlike science courses, language courses rely chiefly on written and spoken inputs with neither superior to the other. In order to speak a foreign language, one needs to hear the correct pronunciation, and to write, one needs to know how words are spelled. Since the two skills speaking and writing cannot be separated while learning a language, the role of a text cannot be ignored as seen in the results. The transfer test in this study is designed in the way that asks students to write grammatically correct past tense sentences with the words practiced in the online tutorial, so not including text, even if there is narration, would cause students to spell words incorrectly and write fewer correct sentences. Overall results suggest that designing a language learning tutorial is different from designing a science course tutorial.

In addition to the different course types, students' being novices has had an impact in these results. The prior knowledge of the participants in the experiment were so low that they were considered to be novice learners. A study with low-experienced learners (Moreno & Mayer, 2002) indicated that students remembered and transferred the relevant learning inputs significantly more when they were given redundant on-screen text plus animation and narration. Therefore, this study is in consistency with Moreno and Mayer's study (2002).

Similarly, Leslie et al. (2012) concluded that adding visual information to an audio presentation would be useful and beneficial for novice learners. It could be argued that students with less knowledge about the foreign language material made use of any kind of inputs to apprehend the subject better. In this case, contrary to the expectation that the redundant text would cause cognitive load, it can be asserted that the text, the audio and the images worked together in the organization of meaning creation and in its integration of it in the students' mind. This conclusion is consistent with Persky and Robinson's (2017) suggestion that learner expertise is one substantial factor that should be taken into consideration when determining an effective instructional strategy and that integrated text with diagrams and visuals with auditory narration are two of those recommended. To conclude, considering the results in the study and the overview of the related literature, it can be reported that redundant on-screen text, although it was not significantly confirmed to enhance learning, is not a hinder in language learning context.

Learner control

Based on the results, it can be suggested that learners benefitted from the absence of a learner-controlled material. When students were given control when using the online tutorial,

they did not make use of the "back" and "next" options that allowed them to read and listen to the screen one more time. In contrast, the students who were not given an opportunity to move back and forth took the advantage of being guided by the system itself.

One of the reasons why these results do not accord with CTML is the total duration of the online tutorial. As an example, to this claim, these results contradict with Mayer and Candler's (2001) results which suggest that providing learners with control would enhance learning with a significant difference. However, the total amount of time allocated to the animation was only 140 seconds in their study. Students who could not navigate between slides spent less than 3 minutes to learn about the formation of lightning. The amount of time being controversial itself must have been insufficient to the learners who were expected to understand the formation of lightning in less than three minutes. Similar to Mayer and Candler's (2001) study, the results of Hasler et al.'s (2007) study do not accord with the results found in this study. The system-based group were outperformed by the segmented and stop-play groups. The animation used in that experiment lasted 3 minutes and 45 seconds for the system- based group. Although the researchers tried to minimize the disadvantages of this unfair situation by allowing the system-based group to restudy the animation and ensuring that all groups studied the material in 10 minutes, results reflected that providing learner control affected the results significantly favoring learner-controlled groups. In contrast, students who took part in this study spent nearly 15-20 minutes to study the online tutorial. This length of time might have enabled students who were not provided with learner control to better understand the context and the learning unit. Additionally, students might have benefitted from the content of the material, which incorporated exercises and some review screens. However, this solely explains why the groups without learner control did not get lower scores than the groups with learner control. The possible reasons why they got significantly higher scores in the transfer test than learner-controlled groups are discussed below.

First, the prior knowledge of the students was low. Research displays that students whose prior knowledge is low find it hard to navigate between slides in learner-controlled systems (Kelly, 1993; Last et al, 2001). Besides that, a learner-controlled system is reported to hinder learning and cause insufficient learning outcomes (Lawless & Brown, 1997; Potelle & Rouet, 2003). In a similar manner, Chen, Fan and Macredie (2006) have found that students with low prior knowledge need more instructional support in terms of learner control and that it would be better if they are provided with a more structured design. Chen et al. (2006) concluded that the structured e- learning material would ensure a better opportunity for the learners to organize and integrate the input.

Considering this overview of the literature, it can be argued that the low prior knowledge of the students has been a determining factor in the results favoring the groups without learner control as they followed a structured path during the learning process.

Second, being novice learners, students had difficulty handling the online tutorial. It can be suggested that students were overloaded with the difficulty of a new content due to the fact that they were beginner level students of EFL, and it has been only 2 months since they started taking English courses at the university. Research suggests that novice learners have complications in making decisions when it comes to managing their own learning (Koriat & Bjork, 2005). In this study, there was no time limit for the groups with the learner control, so they had the chance to review the screens and benefit from the learner-controlled environment. However, it is obvious that students failed to manage their time as well. This conclusion is consistent with Brown's (2001) and Granger and Levine's (2010) study results which argue that novice learners do not necessarily use the time given to them efficiently. Also, Persky and Robinson (2017) affirm the arguments above by adding the suggestion that novice learners are not fully aware of the idea that they have mastered or understood the input provided in the online tutorial.

To conclude, it can be suggested that providing novice learners with a learner-controlled system would result in a deterioration in learning. Rather, it is more rewarding if the learners are guided through a pre-structured and controlled system, which would alleviate the cognitive burden in the novice learners with low experience and prior knowledge in the course material.

Self-regulation

The results in accordance with self-regulation presented above are not congruent with each other. In some conditions students with low self-regulation outperformed students with high self-regulation in retention or transfer tests, and in some others vice versa. The number of the participants might have had an impact on those inconsistent results. Also, the fact that students have very little prior domain knowledge relating to the course material has prevented the self-regulatory skills to become activated. This assumption accords with Moss and Azevedo's (2007) argument that self-regulated effort and prior domain knowledge are significantly related to each other. Students might have implemented some of their self-regulatory skills, but they may be overwhelmed by the amount of the input unfamiliar to them.

When students were given learner control over the material without redundant on-screen text, those with high self-regulation performed significantly better than those with low self-regulation. As discussed earlier, the presence or absence of redundant on screen-text did

not make a significant difference in retention or transfer tests. However, it was also reported that students performed significantly lower in the transfer test when they were given learner control. Therefore, in this NTC condition, the students with high self-regulation outperformed the students with low self-regulation in the retention test scores (Cohen's r= .49) because they handled the controls more efficiently, being aware of the advantages offered by the control provided to them. This conclusion is consistent with Zimmerman's (1998) suggestion that learners with low self-regulation tend to depend on other factors to master the provided course material.

Overall, it was not surprising that the only significant difference concerning self-regulation group comparisons was observed in one learner-controlled group. When students have more self-regulatory skills, they have more chance to be more successful in a learner-controlled environment. It can additionally be concluded that students with high self-regulatory skills can be considered to overcome the learner control condition despite being novice learners.

Implications and Further Work

The implications of this study could be specified as follows: (1) on-screen text might be helpful for novice EFL learners, (2) a pre-structured, system-controlled online tutorial that minimizes cognitive load should be preferred by the instructional designers, (3) exercises or small tasks that activate self-regulatory skills can be integrated in the course material instead of giving students all the control over the learning material. The first limitation of the study was that it was not conducted in a true experiment design as the participants were not randomly selected. The participants of this study were preparatory school students aged between 18-33. Therefore, the results are limited to samples and populations with similar characteristics. The results of this study can be misleading in different learning and teaching contexts, so they should be generalized with caution. Second, retention and transfer tests were given to the students right after they completed the online tutorial training. Repeated or delayed tests would give further information about how much students remember and what they could transfer. Thirdly, the instruments provided to the students might have had more variation. An additional survey concerning cognitive load measurement after the treatment or concerning self-study skills would give critical information for the research. These findings of CTML should be verified in the field of ELT in augmented and virtual reality settings as emerging technology.

Availability of Data and Materials

The datasets and teaching material used during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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RELATION BETWEEN GRAMMAR ACHIEVEMENT AND TYPES AND FREQUENCY OF ERRORS IN GRAMMAR COURSE

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Abstract

This study aims to analyze the correspondence between the students' grammar achievement and types and frequency of errors they make in grammar course. The relevant data were gathered from an EFL class at a state university in Turkey by means of two sources; students' average scores of three midterm exams and audio recordings. The analysis of the data revealed that the students mostly made phonological errors followed by grammatical errors encapsulating syntactic and morphological errors. According to the results, high achievers tended to have larger number of errors while low achievers tended to have fewer errors supporting the claim that errors are an indication of learning. However, it is adverse to infer a direct relation between these variables. The analysis of the data also indicated that there might be further factors affecting the frequency and types of errors such as number of the turns that students take, students' personality traits, their willingness to participate and to take risks for testing their knowledge.

Keywords: types of errors; frequency of errors; grammar achievement; grammar courses; EFL learners

Introduction

Errors have been considered as substantial in language classrooms since they provide information about the students' learning process. Shahin (2011) implies that for foreign language learning, considering the significance of the errors, producing language without errors is not regarded as essential anymore. In agreement with this opinion, Chastain (1971)

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states that "more important than error-free speech is the creation of an atmosphere in which the students want to talk" (p. 249).

Some of the previous studies focus on the importance of errors. Corder (1982), for instance, claims that errors in classroom are significant in three ways: (1) errors provide the teacher with information about how much the learner has learned; (2) they provide the teacher with evidence of the way the language was learned; and (3) they help the learners to discover the rules of the target language. He argues that errors are indispensable for learners because errors are regarded as a device learner use to learn. He further adds that by means of errors, learners can test their previous assumptions about the rules and structures of the language.

Supporters of the natural acquisition of language theory also agree with the strength of errors in language learning. As specified in Shahin (2011), Ellis (1990) argues that errors are considered as an essential part of the learning process. He adds that errors are inevitable, and they provide evidence for the language acquisition. He also asserts that language teachers can evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching method by means of errors. By this way, they can additionally make the necessary adjustments to their teaching methods considering their needs. Considering the significance of errors, Atmaca (2016) believes that they are a sign of improvement. Similarly, Rattanadilok Na Phuket and Othman (2015) state "errors used to be recognized as the undesirable problems which teachers tried to prevent, but recently, errors are differently considered as a sign of learning progress" (p. 100). In alignment with these studies, Farrokh (2011) and Montrul (2011) also underline that people make some systematic errors during the process of learning a foreign language and this is an indication of their progress. Lin (2016) also considers errors to be a substantial indication of acquisition of the related items.

More recent literature on errors also highlights the significance of errors and self-initiated error corrections during the process of learning a foreign language although error correction is not the focus of the study at hand. Anton (2011) claims that thanks to the analysis of errors and self-initiated error corrections, researchers might identify learners' actual abilities. In agreement with Anton (2011), Ellis (2018) underlines that the frequency of self-initiated error corrections could be considered as significant evidence of L2 learners' awareness. Similarly, Bestgen and Granger (2011) indicate that increased frequency of self-initiated error corrections could help the learners to learn and utilize the linguistic items better. Focusing on self-initiated error corrections, Ewald (2015) and Salido (2016) also indicate that thanks to self-initiated error corrections, learners might apprehend linguistic discrepancies and they might address these differences.

Purposes of the Study

Errors are a strong indication that learning is taking place. As mentioned in Shahin (2011), educators including Burt and Kiparsky (1972), Selinker (1972), Allwright (1975), Corder (1973), Hendrickson (1978), and James (1998) argued the significance of errors. It is considerably believed that students learn from their errors and errors are inevitable and helpful in learning. In the specific context where this study was implemented, the author herself was teaching, the class. She noticed that there were many errors made by the students during the grammar courses most probably because of the students' proficiency level. The students in this class got lower scores in English Proficiency Exam at the beginning of the fall term compared to the other preparatory classes. Considering the literature on errors, the researcher tried to test whether those errors in this specific class were also an indication of learning or not. Therefore, this study aims to explore the relationship between the grammar achievement level of the students and frequency and types of errors they make. The main aim is to designate whether high achievers make more errors than the other students during the learning process in grammar course.

Definition of 'Error'

Errors have usually been defined with some reference to the native speaker form of a linguistic item. Chan et al. (1982) describe an error underlining the linguistic fluency of its user. They define an error as "the use of a linguistic item in a way, which according to fluent users of the language indicated faulty or incomplete learning" (p. 538). Their definition implies that errors occur in language learning because of deficiency in competence.

Compared to the previous description, Lennon (1991) employs a more flexible description for errors. He defines an error as 'a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would in all likelihood, not be produced by the speaker's native speaker counterparts' (p. 182). His definition underlines that errors are linguistic forms that native speakers do not normally produce.

Based on the native speaker's form, Allwright and Bailey (1991) also introduce a similar definition for errors. They define an error as the production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form. However, they also indicate that using departures from the native speaker norm to define an error is too narrow and inadequate. They imply that the target language model the learner is exposed to may not be the native speaker norm considering the increasing number of the non-native speaking teachers who are doing a great deal of the world's foreign language teaching.

Sources of Errors

Erdoğan (2005) suggests two major sources of errors in second language learning. The first source is interference from the native language which is also called interlingual transfer. Second source is usually believed to be intralingual and developmental factors.

Interlingual Transfer

Interlingual transfer could be defined as a significant source for language learners. When they are learning a new language, learners consciously or unconsciously compare the new language with their mother tongue. Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (1992) defines interlingual errors as being the result of language transfer, which is caused by the learner's first language (as cited in Erdoğan, 2005). There exist positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer facilitates the target language learning while negative transfer results in errors. There might be distinct types of interlingual errors such as phonological, morphological, grammatical and lexical-semantic errors.

Intralingual Transfer and Developmental Errors

Previous studies on the sources of errors claim that apart from the interferences from the students' own language, there is another source for errors in language learning. As mentioned in Shahin (2011), Ellis (1997) denotes that some errors are universal in which learners try to make the process of learning a new language simpler. Overgeneralization is sometimes the reason for these errors. An example for overgeneralization is the use of past tense suffix '-ed' for all verbs. Regardless of their mother tongue, these errors are common in the speech of second language learners.

Touchie (1986) remarks that intralingual errors may also result from partial learning or lack of practice of the target language. They may be caused by the influence of one target language item upon another. For example, sometimes learners attempt to use two tense markers at the same time in one sentence since they have not had enough practice. When they say: "He is comes here", it might be because the singularity of the third person requires "is" in present continuous, and "-s" at the end of a verb in simple present tense. In short, as underlined by Touchie (1986) intralingual errors are results of language learners' attempt to test hypotheses about the new language with which they have limited experience.

Types of Errors

There have been discrete views on the types of errors in literature. As mentioned in Touchie (1986), some researchers distinguish between performance errors and competence errors. Performance errors usually result from lack of attention, fatigue or carelessness. These errors are not regarded as serious since the speakers can correct them with little effort. They

are also called mistakes in some studies. Competence errors, on the other hand, are more serious than performance errors since they result from a deficiency in learning. As already mentioned, speakers are not able to correct their competence errors since they do not know the correct answer.

As signified in Touchie (1986), Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguish between local and global errors. According to their distinction, local errors do not hinder communication and comprehension of an utterance. However, global errors are more serious than local errors because they cause communication breakdowns. Examples for local errors encapsulate noun and verb inflections, and the use of articles, prepositions, and auxiliaries. Global errors might involve incorrect word order in a sentence.

Some studies agree on the phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic errors. An example of a phonological error is an incorrect pronunciation of a word. Touchie (1986) claims that examples for morphological errors might incorporate the production of such errors as womans, sheeps, and furnitures. A lexical error comprises the use of wrong vocabulary in the second language. He further adds that they may also result from inappropriate direct translation from the learner's native language. To illustrate, 'the clock is now ten' might be regarded as a lexical error. Finally, syntactic errors are usually related to word order and subject-verb agreement.

For the present study, a model suggested by Levelt (1983) is used for determining the types of errors. This model includes three main types which are phonological errors, grammatical errors and lexical errors. Grammatical errors are also grouped into two subcategories: syntactic and morphological errors.

Considering the findings and assumptions of previous studies, this study tries to find the answers to the following questions:

1. What is the frequency of errors for each student in a grammar course?

2. What types of errors does each student make in a grammar course?

3. Is there a correlation between the students' grammar achievement level and the frequency of the errors?

4. Is there a correlation between the students' grammar achievement level and types of errors they make in grammar course?

Method

For this study, ethics committee approval was obtained from Aksaray University, Human Research Ethics Committee, and the document number is 2020/12-01. It was obtained on the 9th of November, 2020.

Error analysis was employed to investigate the frequency and types of errors for each student.

Participants

For the present study, there were 19 pre-intermediate level participants. They were preparatory class students at a state university. Their departments were English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature. There were 8 male students and 11 female students in this specific class. There were 7 foreign students who were accepted to the university without any exam. Therefore, it should be noted that neither their Turkish nor their English was good enough to follow the lectures. The rest of the class were from divergent parts of Turkey. At the beginning of the fall term, they took English Proficiency Exam and they were placed to different classes according to their level of English. The students in this class got lower scores compared to the other students in the other classes. During the one-year preparation class, they have Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking and Grammar courses every week. They had their grammar course seven hours a week. The students had four midterms and pop-up quizzes; therefore, they were supposed to be ready for the quizzes any time.

Instruments for Data Collection

For the present study, relevant data were gathered by means of two sources: students' average scores of three midterm exams and audio recordings.

Students' Exam Scores

Until the implementation of this study, students had three midterm exams and six quizzes. For this study, the average results of three midterm exams are provided for each student to get a clear and more reliable understanding of their grammar achievement. These exams usually embodied filling in the blanks questions, rewriting and matching questions. There was not any multiple-choice question in the exams. So as to calculate the average scores, quizzes were not taken into consideration because some of the students missed several of the quizzes. Moreover, quizzes were not comprehensive compared to midterm exams.

Recordings

For the present study, six different hours in pre-intermediate grammar class were recorded. In these recorded lessons, the author herself was teaching. These recordings were

used for determining the frequency of errors, types of errors and number of turns students take. In these grammar courses, there were discrete activities embracing matching, filling in the blanks, rewriting and open-ended questions.

Results

Students' Average Grammar Scores

As already mentioned, students had three midterm exams so far from the beginning of the academic year. In order for the study to be more reliable, average scores of all the exams were calculated. These exams were out of 100 and average grammar score of these three midterm exams for each student are provided in Table 1.

Table 1.

Average grammar scores for each student

Students	Average score of 3 midterm exams
Student 1	66,3
Student 2	50,3
Student 3	67,6
Student 4	64,6
Student 5	65,3
Student 6	55,3
Student 7	56,6
Student 8	64,6
Student 9	78,3
Student 10	75,6
Student 11	17
Student 12	21,3
Student 13	29,6
Student 14	75,6
Student 15	77,3
Student 16	35,3
Student 17	22

Student 18	45,3
Student 19	16,6

Table 2.

Three different levels of students

High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers
Student 9	Student 1	Student 11
Student 10	Student 2	Student 12
Student 14	Student 3	Student 13
Student 15	Student 4	Student 16
	Student 5	Student 17
	Student 6	Student 18
	Student 7	Student 19
	Student 8	

As Table 2 indicates students were mostly middle and low achievers in this class considering their grammar achievement levels. Even the average scores of high achievers were not very promising. There was not any student whose average score for grammar course was above 80. There are various reasons for these results. First of all, the score that is required to be registered to the Department English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature is quite low at that state university. Another reason is that there were seven foreign students in that specific class and they were accepted to the university without any exams. Due to their lack of proficiency in both English and Turkish, the process was very challenging for both the students and instructors.

Frequency of Errors for Each Student

While doing the analysis of the recordings, each and every error for each student was counted one by one to discover the frequency of errors for each student. The results of error analysis and number of turns for each student in six hours of grammar course are provided in Table 3.

With regard to the comparison of frequency of errors, number of turns and average grammar scores, the results in Table 3 show that it is adverse to infer a direct relationship between these variables although students with high grammar scores tended to have more errors because of the number of turns they took and their willingness to participate. There are also other factors affecting this relationship. First of all, there were four high achievers in this class based on their average grammar scores. Students 10, 14 and 15 had relatively high number of errors. However, the other student, student 9, had only three errors. This might suggest that high grammar scores do not necessarily indicate fewer or more errors. The reason for this difference might lie in the personality traits of these students. As can be seen in the number of the turns they took, Students 10, 14 and 15 were quite outgoing and willing to take risks. On the other hand, although student 9 had relatively high grammar scores, she was not very willing to participate since she was an introverted learner. Sometimes the teacher used direct nomination to make her participate. However, direct nomination was not used very often in order not to discourage the learners since each learner has a different personality.

The comparison between the frequency of errors and grammar scores for middle achievers was also in alignment with the results for the high achievers. As can be noticed in Table 2, there were 8 middle achievers in this class. Some of them such as Student 1 and Student 8 had more errors while Student 2 and Student 4 had very few errors. One reason for this difference is that Student 1 and Student 8 were more willing and hardworking than the others in the middle achievers group. Since they took more turns in the class, they tended to have more errors. On the other hand, Students 2, 3, and 7 were not very interested in the class and they seldom participated.

There were 7 low achievers in this class and all of them were the foreign students who were accepted to the university without a valid exam. Although all of them were low achievers, some of them were more willing and hardworking than the others. Students 13, 16 and 18 were more outgoing and willing to participate; therefore, they took more turns during the lectures which resulted in more errors. In addition, their achievement levels for both Turkish and English were better than the other students in the low achievers group. On the other hand, Students 11, 12 and 17 knew neither English nor Turkish. They almost never volunteered to participate. As is reflected in Table 3, these students had very few errors because of the number of turns they take.

All in all, the comparison between the frequency of errors and average grammar scores suggests that high achievers tended to have more errors while low achievers tended to have fewer errors because of the number of turns they take. Although this was not valid for each and

every student, it might be remarked that high achievers usually tried to test their knowledge and learn from their errors. However, it is still difficult to infer a direct relationship between the frequency of errors and grammar scores. Although they were high achievers, some students might not have been so enthusiastic to participate because they were more introverted. This resulted in fewer errors.

Types of Errors for Each Student

In this study, types of errors for each student were also identified. For types of errors, the model suggested by Levelt (1983) was used for this study. According to this model, there are three different types of errors which are phonological, grammatical and lexical errors. He also divides the grammatical errors into two groups: morphological and syntactic errors. As already mentioned, in these recorded grammar lessons, students had various activities for practicing the grammatical structures. These activities included matching, filling in the blanks, rewriting and open-ended questions. However, open-ended questions and rewriting activities were not so frequent. Still, students' lexical errors were also analyzed in these open-ended and rewriting activities. In Table 3, the numbers and percentages of the errors for each type of error and the number of turns taken by the students in six recorded hours of grammar course are given.

Table 3.

Types of Errors for Each Student

Students	Phonological Errors	Morphological Errors	Lexical Errors	Syntactic Errors	Total	Number of Turns
Student 1	9 (32%)	2 (7%)	4 (14%)	13 (46%)	28	33
Student 2	1 (33%)	-	-	2 (66%)	3	6
Student 3	4 (66%)	-	1 (16,6%)	1 (16,6%)	6	7
Student 4	1 (50%)	-	-	1 (50%)	2	4
Student 5	11 (91,6%)	-	-	1 (8,3%)	12	16
Student 6	10 (71 %)	-	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	14	12
Student 7	5 (55,5%)	1 (11,1%)	1 (11,1%)	2 (22,2%)	9	8
Student 8	12 (80%)	-	2 (13,3%)	1 (6,6%)	15	14
Student 9	3 (100%)	-	-	-	3	5
Student 10	7 (58,3%)	-	1 (8,3%)	4 (33,3%)	12	15

Student 11	1 (100%)	-	-	-	1	3
Student 12	1 (100%)	-	-	-	1	4
Student 13	13 (86,6%)	1 (6,6%)	-	1 (6,6%)	15	17
Student 14	10 (55,5%)	3 (16,6%)	-	5 (27,7)	18	21
Student 15	12 (44,4%)	3 (11,1%)	2 (7%)	10 (37%)	27	26
Student 16	11 (68,75%)	3 (18,75%)	-	2 (12,5%)	16	19
Student 17	5 (83,3%)	-	-	1 (16,6)	6	5
Student 18	8 (66,6%)	-	2 (16,6%)	2 (16,6%)	12	14
Student 19	1 (100%)	-	-	-	1	2
Total	125 (62%)	13 (6%)	15 (7,4%)	48 (23,8%)	201	

The results in Table 3 show that in these 6 hours, students mostly made phonological errors. Phonological errors compose the 62% of all the errors. It is followed by the grammatical errors with 29,8%; morphological errors compose 6% and syntactic errors compose 23,8% of the grammatical errors. Lastly, lexical errors are the least common errors. These results illustrate that students had problems with phonology which is most probably because of their lack of practice in speaking. During those classes, they did a lot of grammar activities in their book and checked them with the teacher. Therefore, it is not surprising that they also had a lot of grammatical mistakes. They had few lexical errors since the activities in these lessons were quite mechanical such as filling the blanks and matching activities. Although students were also expected to respond to open-ended questions and rewriting activities, there were not many activities concerning vocabulary and communication. Still, students' lexical errors were also included in order to analyze their errors in open-ended and rewriting activities.

In the following section, examples for each type of error are provided from the transcripts of the recordings.

Extracts for Phonological Errors

In this section some of the phonological errors of the students are provided with extracts from the class recordings. In these extracts, pseudonyms are used instead of the students' real names.

In the first extract, the class is doing an activity in which they are expected to cross out the unnecessary parts of the sentences. It is in correspondence with avoiding repetition in

English by means of some words such as one, ones and that. The teacher chooses students from the volunteering ones. Student 18 is also willing to participate. He is a foreign student from Iraq. Although English proficiency level of the foreign students is not very promising, Student 18 is one of the best among the foreign students. He is usually active in the class. When Student 18 gives the answer for the question, he makes a phonological error. He pronounces the word determined /dɪˈtɜːrmɪnd/ as /dɪˈtɜːrmaɪnd/. The teacher uses recasting to correct the student's error.

Extract 1

t: I guess you are ready. Shall we start?
several students: Yes.
t: Ok, you are going to cross out the words that are not
necessary. Yes, Ahmet. (chooses from the volunteering
students)
s8: This venue was the ideal place to see for myself if all
the media hype about this new Scottish singer was true. It
did not take me long to find out it was true. True omit.
t: Yes, fine. We should omit true. Mehmet. (chooses from the
volunteering students)
s18: From the opening number 'I Dreamed A Dream' it was clear
that the fans were determined /dɪˈtɜːrmaɪnd/ to have a good
time and that is exactly what the fans did.
t: Ok, that is true. It was clear that the fans were
determined /dɪˈtɜːrmɪnd/. (uses recasting for correction).

In Extract 2, the class is doing activities about the formation of adjectives by means of the prefixes. Student 4 wants to volunteer who is one of the middle achievers and not very active in the class. When he is giving the answer, he pronounces the word untidy /ʌnˈtaɪdi/ as /ʌnˈtidi/. The teacher again uses recasting for the correction of the error.

Extract 2

t: Now we will complete the letter with suitable adjectives.
Who would like to start? Fatma. (chooses from the
volunteering students)
s1: This unusual bad behavior has come as a shock to us as
Matthew had previously been an excellent student.

t: Ok, unusual means not usual and excellent comes from the verb excel. Next one, Murat. (chooses from the volunteering students)
s4: In recent weeks I have also noticed that his clothes are untidy /ʌnˈtidi/ and he seems unhappy.
t: His clothes are untidy /ʌnˈtaɪdi/ and he seems unhappy. (uses recasting to correct the student's error)

In Extract 3, the class is again doing activities on word formation. There is an activity in which there are some mistakes about the formation of the adjectives. Students are expected to correct them. Student 15 is one of the high achievers and as already mentioned she is one of the most outgoing students. When she responds to the question, she makes two phonological errors. The first one is the pronunciation of the word wear /wer/. She pronounces it as /wɪər/. The other error is related to the pronunciation of fashionable /fæʃnəbl/. She pronounces it as /fæʃneɪbl/. Both of her errors are corrected by means of recasting.

Extract 3

t: There are six more mistakes in this activity, we will find and correct them. Let's start. Mustafa. *(chooses from the volunteering students)*
s14: I'm sorry but this answer is completely uncorrect. Uncorrect değil incorrect.
It is not uncorrect, it is incorrect.
t: Yes, it should be incorrect. Second sentence, Melek. *(chooses from the volunteering students)*
s15: They are models so they always wear */wɪər/* fashionable */fæʃneɪbl/* clothes. It must be *fashionable*.
t: Ok, instead of fashionful, we should say they always wear */wer/* fashionable */fæʃnəbl/* clothes. *(uses recasting for correction)*

Extracts for Morphological Errors

Students' morphological errors usually include problems with the usage of plural *-s*, third person singular *-s*, and use of incorrect prefixes. Some examples of the morphological errors from the recordings are illustrated in this section.

In the following transcript, the teacher wants the students to form some sentences using the linking words. Student 7 also volunteers to give the answer. She is one of the middle achievers and she sometimes participates. In her sentence, she makes a morphological error; she forgets to use the plural *-s*. She says *several novel* instead of *several novels*. The teacher helps her correct her error by means of elicitation technique. Turkish does not have pluralization of nouns for more than one item; therefore, this error might be a result of negative transfer from the student's L1.

Extract 4

t: So, for adding new information, we can use *in addition, moreover, as well as* etc. Now, you will choose one linking word for adding new information and you will use it in a sentence.
You have 3 minutes. (waits *for 3 minutes*)
t: Are you ready?
several students: Yes.
t: Who would like to share their examples? Seda. (*chooses from the volunteering students*)
s7: Yesterday, I went shopping and I bought some pencils. Moreover, I bought several novel for my sister.
t: Ok, an example with *moreover*. There is one mistake. You bought several? *(uses elicitation)*
s7: Novels.

In Extract 5, the teacher asks the students to form sentences using linking words for ordering events. Student 14 is willing to share his answer. He is one of the high achievers and usually active in the class. He makes a morphological error in his sentence; he forgets to use the third person singular *-s*. Instead of *works*, he says *work*. His error is corrected by means of recasting.

Extract 5

t: Here are some linking words for ordering events. *Before, after, as soon as, when, while, during, until, first, then, later,* etc. Choose one of them and write a sentence. *(waits for a few minutes)*
t: Shall we start?
several students: Yes.
t: Ok, Mustafa. Which one did you choose?
s14: Birkaç tane 3 cümlede kullandım.
I used several linking words in three sentences.
t: Ok, let's see.
s14: He is very hardworking. First, he wakes up early. Then, he goes to the company. After that, he work very hard every day.
t: Ok, he works very hard every day. *(uses recasting for correction)*

The following transcript is an extract from the lesson in which the students are providing examples for adjectives formed by means of prefixes. The teacher asks the students to say adjectives with the prefix *in-*. Student 15 is one of the high achievers and she is one of the active students. Instead of *uncomfortable*, she says *incomfortable*. In order to correct this morphological error, the teacher uses repetition with a change in her intonation.

Extract 6

t: *in-* is also a prefix. Can you give some examples with *in-*?
s10: Incomplete.
s6: Incorrect
t: Fine, incomplete, incorrect. Anything else?
s8: Indefinite.
t: Indefinite.
s15: Incomfortable.
t: Incomfortable? *(uses repetition with a change in intonation)*
several students: Uncomfortable.

Extracts for Syntactic Errors

The analysis of the errors reflects that students' syntactic errors usually include problems with word order, failure to use the auxiliary verb and problems with subject-verb agreement. To illustrate, some extracts are provided from the recordings.

In the following transcript, the topic of the lesson is inversion in English. The teacher asks the students to use *never* at the beginning of the sentence. Student 13 is one of the low achievers. However, she usually tries to participate in the class. Her answer is incorrect since she fails to change the word order for inversion. In order for the student to correct her error, the teacher uses metalinguistic clues. Then several other students correct the error.

Extract 7

t: She has never seen this movie before. Can you say the same sentence starting with *never*? Gizem.
s15: Never has she seen this movie before.
t: Yes, good. We need inversion when we start the sentence with *never.* I have never been to London. Can you also say this sentence with *never* at the beginning?
s13: Never I have been to London.
t: But you need inversion. *(uses metalinguistic clues for correction)*
several students: Never have I been to London.

Extract 8 is an illustration for the problem with subject-verb agreement. The topic of the lesson is again linking words. The teacher asks the students to write some sentences using linking words. Student 14, a high achiever, makes a morphological error. The subject of his sentence is plural but he uses a singular auxiliary verb. His error is corrected by the teacher by means of recasting.

Extract 8

t: Can you use some of these linking words in your own sentences in a few minutes?
s18: Only one?

t: However you like. (*waits for a few minutes*)
t: Ok, let's start. Yes, Mustafa. (*chooses from the volunteering students*)
s14: He is very rich. He spends a lot of money. Moreover, the things he buys is very expensive.
t: Ok, you have used moreover. Moreover, the things he buys are very expensive. (*uses recasting for correction*)

In the following extract, a morphological error with the failure to use the auxiliary verb is provided. The lesson is about changing the word order. The teacher wants the students to use *neither* with the sentences she gives. Student 3 wants to give an answer. She is one of the middle achievers and she sometimes participates in the class. In her sentence, she forgets to use the auxiliary verb and she corrects her sentence by means of the metalinguistic clue provided by the teacher.

Extract 9

t: I don't like pop music. My sister does not like either.
Now, we will combine these sentences.
s1: Neither mı kullanıcaz?
t: Yes. Who would like to try? Ok, Mert. (*chooses from the volunteering students*)
s3: I don't like pop music, neither my sister.
t: Ok, but where is the auxiliary? *(uses metalinguistic clues for correction)*
s3: Neither my sister does, neither does my sister.
t: Yes, neither does my sister. We should change the word order.

Extracts for Lexical Errors

As already mentioned in the types of errors section, during these six hours, students had a few lexical errors. The reason might be the nature of the grammar course. The activities in this course usually include filling in the blanks, matching, rewriting and open-ended questions. Although there was not much focus on vocabulary and communication, there were some open-ended questions and rewriting activities in which students were expected to form their own sentences. Students' lexical errors usually include wrong choice of words.

There is an incorrect word usage in the following extract. The teacher expects the students to form a sentence with *in order to*. Student 5 is one of the middle achievers and she usually seems interested in the lesson. Instead of *many*, she uses *much* with a countable noun. For correction, the teacher repeats the student's answer with a change in intonation. Then she is able to correct her answer.

Extract 10

t: Now, let's use *in order to* in a sentence. Please write a
sentence with *in order to*. (*waits for a few minutes*)
t: Are you ready? Who would like to read? Nilay yes please.
(*chooses from the volunteering students*)
s5: I should earn a lot of money in order to buy much things.
t: Yes, I should earn a lot of money in order to buy much
things? *(uses repetition for correction)*
s5: Many things, sayılabilir.

Countable

In the following extract, there is a lexical error with prepositions. The topic of the lesson is prefixes for forming negative adjectives. The teacher asks the students to form sentences with negative adjectives. Student 2 is one of the middle achievers and she seldom participates in the class. She is willing to share her answer for that task. Instead of *on*, she says *in* the table. The teacher uses recasting for correcting the error.

Extract 11

t: *Un-* is negative. It is used with adjectives. For example,
untidy. Can you give other examples?
s2: Unhappy.
t: Unhappy yes. Can you write a sentence using one of these
adjectives starting with *un-*? (*waits for a few minutes*)
t: Ok, Ali.
s6: There was something unusual in the table.
t: Ok, there was something unusual on the table. (*uses*
recasting for correction)

The last extract illustrates a lexical error with the usage of adjectives and adverbs. The topic is the linking words for giving extra information. The teacher asks the students to form

some sentences with the linking words for giving extra information. As already mentioned, Student 1 is one of the high achievers. In her sentence, instead of using an adverb, she uses an adjective. Her error is corrected by the teacher by means of recasting.

Extract 12

1 t: Now, for extra information, which words do we use?
2 s2: And.
3 s5: Both
4 t: Ok, *and, both*. Can you use *both* in a sentence? *(waits for*
5 *a while)*
6 s1: She both plays the guitar and sings beautiful.
7 t: Yes, sings beautifully. *(uses recasting for correction)*

Comparison of the Grammar Scores and Types of Errors

This study also aims to discover the relation between the students' grammar scores and types of errors. For each student grammar score and the number of the errors of each type are provided in Table 4.

Table 4.

Comparison of the Grammar Scores and Types of Errors

Students	Phonological Errors	Morphological Errors	Lexical Errors	Syntactic Errors	Total	Average Grammar Score
Student 1	9	2	4	13	28	66,3
Student 2	1	-	-	2	3	50,3
Student 3	4	-	1	1	6	67,6
Student 4	1	-	-	1	2	64,6
Student 5	11	-	-	1	12	65,3
Student 6	10	-	2	2	14	55,3
Student 7	5	1	1	2	9	56,6
Student 8	12	-	2	1	15	64,6
Student 9	3	-	-	-	3	78,3
Student 10	7	-	1	4	12	75,6

Student 11	1	-	-	-	1	17
Student 12	1	-	-	-	1	21,3
Student 13	13	1	-	1	15	29,6
Student 14	10	3	-	5	18	75,6
Student 15	12	3	2	10	27	77,3
Student 16	11	3	-	2	16	35,3
Student 17	5	-	-	1	6	22
Student 18	8	-	2	2	12	45,3
Student 19	1	-	-	-	1	16,6

The results in Table 4 illustrate that high achievers usually made phonological errors. One of them, Student 15 made a lot of syntactic errors as well. The reason for this might be that Student 15 was very active and she took many turns during the lessons. She tried to test her knowledge even when she was not so sure of her answers and this resulted in more grammatical errors.

As for middle achievers, the results show that they also mostly made phonological errors, which was a common problem for all of the students because of their lack of practice. However, Student 1 also had many syntactic errors and the reason is similar to that of Student 15. Student 1 was also very outgoing. Therefore, she took many turns and had more grammatical errors compared to other students.

Lastly, low achievers' errors were also mostly phonological. However, they had another reason for this problem. Because of their origin and their native language, they had difficulty in pronouncing some words. Some sounds were especially difficult for them to articulate. Apart from this problem, they usually participated when they were sure of their responses. Therefore, they had few grammatical errors.

In conclusion, the comparison of grammar scores and types of mistakes illustrates that there was a tendency for high achievers to take more turns which resulted in more errors. However, as already mentioned, there might be other factors affecting the students' participation such as their personality and willingness. The errors in the grammar course were not necessarily grammatical errors all the time. As is illustrated in Table 4, they were mostly phonological errors. Phonology was a common problem for the students since they did not have enough practice.

Conclusion and Discussion

This study has four research questions. The first question is related to the frequency of errors for each student. The results display that the frequencies range from 1 to 27. There are different factors affecting the frequency of errors such as number of the turns that students take, their willingness to participate and to take risks for testing their knowledge.

The second question is with reference to the types of errors each student makes. The analysis of the errors show that students mostly made phonological errors. It is a common problem for almost all of the students since they did not have much practice for speaking. They are followed by grammatical errors which can be divided into two groups: syntactic and morphological errors. The activities in the grammar course included rewriting, matching, filling the blanks tasks, etc. According to the results, common syntactic errors in the grammar course were failure to use auxiliary verbs, word order and subject-verb agreement. Morphological errors usually consisted of failure to use third person singular -s, plural -s and incorrect usage of prefixes. Students made fewer lexical errors in the grammar courses because of the nature of grammar. Lexical errors were usually related to wrong word choice.

The third research question is in connection with the correlation between students' grammar achievement level and the frequency of the errors. The results show that high achievers tended to have more errors while low achievers tended to have fewer errors, which supports the claim that errors are an indication of learning (see Ellis, 1990; Anton, 2011; Farrokh, 2011; Montrul 2011; Shanin, 2011; Rattanadilok Na Phuket and Othman, 2015; Atmaca, 2016; Lin, 2016). However, it is still adverse to claim a direct relation between the students' grammar achievement and frequency of errors. The results indicate that some of the high achievers had relatively few errors while some low achievers had more errors. First of all, each and every student had a different personality. Some students were more extroverted whereas the others were more introverted. Extroverted students were usually more willing to take risks for testing their knowledge. Even though they had more errors, students who take turns more frequently and who are more willing to participate in the class might have had higher scores in the exams. These results are in agreement with Beebe (1983) and Cervantes (2013) since they underline that students who take more risks are more successful as their willingness to make mistakes might result in a more effective communication.

On the other hand, introverted students tended to remain silent although they were interested in the lesson. As highlighted by Cervantes (2013) introverted learners are less likely to take risks in order to avoid mistakes. They did not want to lose their face in the class; therefore, they did not wish to participate unless they were sure of their answers. Several

students had fewer errors but higher grammar scores. This might also be related to the fact that they learn from their peers' errors. Another reason might be the interest level of the students. Some of the students were not very interested in the lesson even though they seemed to be listening to what the teacher was explaining.

The final research question deals with the relation between the students' grammar achievement level and types of errors they make. As already mentioned in the results section, for almost all of the students encapsulating high achievers, middle achievers and low achievers, phonological errors were a big problem. This issue was especially important for low achievers who were foreign students. Because of their mother tongue, it was difficult to articulate some sounds in English for most of the foreign students in this class. Some of the students had also a lot of syntactic errors. The analysis of the learner profiles illustrates that these students were usually the ones who were more outgoing and willing to take risks.

To summarize, the results of this study suggest that most of the students might be said to learn from their errors and errors are an important indication of learning in agreement with several previous studies including Ellis (1990), Shanin (2011) and Lin (2016). However, it should be noted that different personality types affect the number of the turns that each student takes. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize these results to all the students. Moreover, risk taking and being more willing for participation may not always result in higher scores in the exams. To illustrate, even though some students did not participate very often, they could still learn from both their own errors and their peers' errors although the process may not be visible to the observers of the class.

To the knowledge of the researcher, the relation between grammatical achievement and errors in grammar course concerning learners of English living in Turkey has not been investigated so far. This is exactly where the importance of this study lies since the findings might offer some implications for learners and teachers of English. According to the results, high achievers tend to have more errors in grammar course; therefore, motivating and encouraging the students to participate and take more turns might result in positive results. However, generalizing these results seems not to possible due to the various personality traits of the learners. As highlighted in the results section, some introverted learners had fewer errors but they had high scores in the exams. Thus, paying close attention to these personality differences and avoiding forcing the learners to take risks is another implication of this study.

Declaration of Conflicting Interest

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest for this study.

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AN AUDIAL SKILLS-BASED INVESTIGATION OF THE ELT COURSEBOOK FROM AN ELF PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

The current status of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) not only has changed the dynamics of communication in international business, cultural and economic arenas but also has led some implications for English language teaching (ELT). With the emergence of ELF and the widespread ELF interactions among the people from a different linguistic L1 background in various contexts, ELT materials need to be reconceptualized, reassessed and modified (McGrath 2013, Siqueira 2015). In order to find out whether the audial skills-based tasks in the ELT coursebook cover the view of English as a lingua franca or not, the following research questions were addressed throughout the study: (1) To what extent do the listening and video tasks in the selected coursebook expose learners to interactions among non-native/non-native and non-native/native speakers of English? (2) To what extent do the listening and video tasks in the selected coursebook expose learners to the non-native role models of English? And lastly, (3) How do the listening and video tasks in the selected coursebook approach culture? This current study applied a descriptive content analysis and all data were driven from the coursebook 'English File' upper-intermediate students' book, third edition by Oxford University Press. The results of the research reveal that the coursebook represents only one non-native role model in audial skills-based tasks, and there are just a few tentative attempts to refer to native/non-native interactions. Additionally, it seems that the coursebook adopts an essentialist view in terms of representing the cultural elements. In the light of the results, the study suggests some pedagogical considerations for language teachers and material designers in the sense that materials should be modified carefully in order to create an intercultural awareness among the L2 students.

Keywords: ELF, coursebook evaluation, ELT, intercultural awareness

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Introduction

Errors have been considered as substantial in language classrooms since they provide information about the students' learning process. Shahin (2011) implies that for foreign language learning, considering the significance of the errors, producing language without errors is not regarded as essential anymore. In agreement with this opinion, Chastain (1971) states that "more important than error-free speech is the creation of an atmosphere in which the students want to talk" (p. 249).

It is an undeniable fact that non-native speakers have outnumbered the native speakers of English today, which means the spread, use and teaching of English are mostly provided by its non-native speakers in different parts of the world (Kachru, 1996). English has gained this worldwide spread and the world's primary lingua franca status as a consequence of the various reasons suggested by Crystal (2003b) such as historical, internal political, external economic, practical, intellectual, and entertainment. This spread of English is discussed within the framework of three groups of speakers by Kachru (1985), namely the ones who speak English as a native language (ENL), the group who speaks it as a second language (ESL), and lastly the ones speaking English as a foreign language (EFL). In this context, Jenkins (2015) suggests a fourth group of English users. Known as the ELF community, this group is the world's largest English-using group. There exist two widespread definitions of ELF, and they differ in the sense of whether the native speakers of English are excluded (e.g. Firth, 1996) or accepted as a part of the communication (e.g. Jenkins, 2007; Mauranen, 2012). The definition of ELF within the framework of this study is 'any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option' (Seidlhofer, 2011: 7).

The current status of English as a lingua franca not only has changed the dynamics of communication in international business, cultural and economic arenas but also has led some implications for English language teaching. These implications are explained by Marlina and Xu (2018) as follows. Firstly, the legitimate users of English are not limited only to the NESs. Secondly, English has gained a new pluralistic aspect with its diverse use in grammar, vocabulary and pragmatic. Third, communication mainly takes place among the interlocutors whose cultural and linguistic background are unknown and diverse, which leads them to use some strategies to negotiate meaning. Lastly, the accuracy-based approach has replaced by the communication-based approach with the changing status of English worldwide. However, as Dewey (2012:143) states, "it is not enough to simply say that ELF has implications for pedagogy". Whether the ELT materials have been modified in accordance with the real needs

of learners is still questionable because of the fact that 'The prevailing orientations in English language teaching and testing, and ELT materials remain undoubtedly towards ENL, with correctness and appropriateness still widely driven by NES use regardless of learners' current or potential communication context' (Jenkins, 2012: 487). The developments in English as a lingua franca especially in the last decade have come with an awareness of English language practitioners in terms of teaching it not just as a foreign language but as a global language (Sifakis et al. 2018). On this ground, Galloway (2018) mentions a need to reconsider the ELT materials ignoring the real status of English today, and he suggests that ELF can hold a new perspective on this growing issue. However, there is a limited number of studies addressing to the analysis of English coursebooks from an ELF perspective in the context of Turkey (e.g. Çelik & Erbay, 2013; Guerra et al., 2022;). The study aims to contribute to fill this gap in the field by analyzing a course book widely used in different educational levels in Turkey from ELF perspective. Through a detailed content analysis, it mainly attempts to investigate to what extend an ELF perspective is integrated into the audial skills-based tasks in the coursebook.

Literature Review

ELF as a New Perspective in ELT Materials

As Galloway (2018) states, ELT materials are one of the main pedagogical tools to foster teaching and learning process. On this ground, coursebooks, accepted as the best resource in terms of meeting the needs of learners, are supposed to have multiple roles in ELT. For example, they function mainly as a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction, as a resource for presenting material, and as a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. (Cunningsworth, 1995). With the ESP movement in 1960s and the moves towards CLT in the 1990s, most English coursebooks have adopted a more communicative approach rather than a behaviorist one (Galloway, 2018). However, it is still debatable whether these coursebooks can actually meet the real needs of learners because of 'the mismatch between the kinds of English that are thought to NNESs at all educational levels, and the kinds of English they need and use in their lives outside the classroom' (Jenkins, 2015: 155). This gap between the content of the ELT coursebooks and the real English outside also stems from the fact that "they promote native notions of correctness, where authenticity appears to be synonymous with native English" (Galloway, 2018: 470). As Seidlhofer (2011: 201) states, 'the only English represented in textbooks, grammars, and dictionaries generally is ENL, and no real alternatives are on offer'. Jenkins (2012) criticizes these typical 'global' ELT coursebooks like Headway and Oxford English Grammar for grounding their classroom models on ENL to a great extent with a very limited

number of recordings on non-native Englishes. She suggests that New English File, Real Lives and Real Listening series adopt a slightly more NESS-oriented approach when compared to them.

With the emergence of English as a lingua franca and the widespread ELF interactions among the people from a different linguistic L1 background in various contexts, ELT materials need to be reconceptualized, reassessed and modified (McGrath, 2013; Siqueira, 2015). Firstly, exposure to real-life ELF exchanges in teaching materials is likely to enable learners to raise an awareness that successful communication does not necessarily depend on native English speakers' norms (Galloway, 2018). In other words, it may not be reasonable to depend entirely on the native speakers' norms and culture in the contexts where most of the interactions take place among non-native English speakers (McGrath, 2013). Instead, Dewey (2012) suggests a more poststructuralist teaching approach including the communicative strategies through which the learners should not be penalized because of their innovative but intelligible forms. Very similarly, Tomlinson (2010: 83) proposes that 'materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes'. In this context, it is also crucial for ELT coursebooks not to 'represent non-native English speakers as being incompetent' (Galloway, 2018). In this sense, ELT materials and coursebooks are of high importance from the perspective of promoting the use of accommodation strategies which are very common in most ELF contexts (Cogo, 2009). As it is nicely and clearly stated by Baker (2012: 46), "we need to ensure that ELT materials expose learners to the communicative practices of multilingual and multicultural speakers to understand ELF communication".

Alongside with a shift from the native-based correctness and norms towards the non-native varieties, we also need a move away from the fixed native English culture to fluid, multi-cultural and trans-cultural negotiations (Galloway & Rose, 2015). As Baker (2012) points out, ELF communication is not just bound to the cultures of English-speaking countries in the inner circle. Beyond it, the interplay between language and culture is a speaker, setting, and context bound phenomena. Concerning to the evaluation of ELT textbooks with respect to their approach to the multiculturalism, Yu (2018) came up with a conclusion and suggestion that most NS-based ELT textbooks are not adequate enough to represent the lingua-cultural diversity and plurality of communication in various global contexts; however, ELF-aware classroom practices can also be implemented by means of some strategies to use the textbooks differently and to exploit some other resources. With regard to the lack of teaching materials awakening an ELF-awareness, Sifakis et al. (2018) suggest course-book designers and ELF-aware practitioners to find their own way of linking ELF to their ELT context.

As being discrete from the findings of the study carried by Yu (2018) in terms of the dominance of native speaker lingua-cultural aspect of the EFL textbooks, Çelik and Erbay's study (2013) on the analysis of the cultural diversity in a series of coursebook (Spot on 6, Spot on 7and Spot on 8) suggests that the coursebook presents the cultural elements of the home, target and international countries in a balanced way.

ELT Textbooks Analysis in Different Contexts

The studies addressing the evaluation of ELT textbooks from the ELF perspective generally touch upon the issues including the representation of users and use of English in the listening and speaking tasks in the coursebooks, the contexts in which English is utilized, cultural diversity, communication and accommodation strategies and ELF awareness raising activities by generally adopting a descriptive content analysis.

In the Japanese context where English is taught as a foreign language, some studies have been conducted to evaluate to what extent the ELT materials demonstrates the status of English in today's world. Among the outstanding ones, Matsuda (2002) conducted an analysis in Japanese EFL textbooks for seventh graders by focusing on what kinds of people are represented as English users and what kinds of English uses are represented. The results indicate that the coursebooks include a very limited number of English users and uses from the Outer circle and Expanding circle, which is not enough to change the perceptions of students in a way that English is a lingua franca today. Another coursebook analysis was conducted by Takahashi (2014) to see to what extent the English coursebooks in the secondary schools in Japan adopt the ELF perspective. Within the scope of this study, six ELT coursebooks for 7th graders and ten coursebooks for 11th graders were evaluated, and the results of the study are mostly in line with the ones of Matsuda (2002). Despite embracing some international use of English between NNSs to a certain degree, it is not sufficient to put forward that there is a shift from EFL to ELF.

With their study conducted with a corpus of ten coursebooks employed in the Italian secondary schools, Vettorel and Lopriore (2013) attempted to focus on the WE and/or ELF-oriented activities, promotion of English outside the classroom, and communication and intercultural strategies among the non-native speakers of English in these English coursebooks. The results revealed that apart from the non-inclusion of WE and ELF-awareness activities, the suggested communication strategies are not among the communications of NNs in ELF settings. Vettorel (2018) made another investigation of textbooks published by Italian and international publishers from 1990s and 2005 on ELF and communication strategies, and the

results are very similar to that of the previous one because there has not been consistent attention to this area.

In the context of Brazil, Siqueire generated two studies one of which was an exploratory analysis of three communicative English textbooks (2015), and the other one (2019) was a linguistic, methodological and ideological oriented study of a three series of a local ELT textbook approved by the National Textbook program. While the previous one suggests that most of the English oral models and the places in the world are from the inner-circle countries, the results of the latter study present a discrete perspective regarding the inclusion of representations from different countries. Siqueire (2019) additionally suggests some activities which can facilitate English integration into the leaners' local contexts.

An ELT coursebook evaluation in Iranian context by Asakereh et al. (2019) shows identical results with the studies conducted in various contexts mentioned above concerning to the integration of the ELF perspective to the ELT materials. With the analysis of listening and speaking activities in ELT coursebooks adopted in junior and high schools, Asakereh et al. (2019) stress the unrealistic and unauthentic representations of English in these series.

Lastly, with reference to Turkey which is among the Expanding Circle countries according to the classification of Kachru (1985) and where English is taught as a foreign language, the most outstanding study was carried out by Guerra et al. (2022) by analyzing ELF-aware activities in Portuguese and Turkish Coursebooks. This comparative study was materialized with the analysis of a locally and an internationally published coursebook of the secondary education from each country. Its results were similar to the ones highlighted above in the sense that the coursebooks overlook the ELF-aware activities by ignoring its lingua franca status despite some activities including references to different cultures and some international subject matters.

Method

In order to discover whether the audial skills-based tasks in the ELT coursebook cover the view of English as a lingua franca or not, the following research questions were addressed throughout the study:

1. To what extent do the listening and video tasks in the selected coursebook expose learners to interactions among nonnative-nonnative / nonnative-native speakers of English?
2. To what extent do the listening and video tasks in the selected coursebook expose learners to the non-native role models of English?
3. How do the listening and video tasks in the selected coursebook approach culture?

The present study applied a descriptive content analysis which 'is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from the texts (or meaningful matter) to the context of their use' (Krippendorff, 2019: 18). Data collection procedure was in the form of written document (Patton, 2001). All data was driven from the coursebook 'English File' upper-intermediate students' book third edition by Oxford University Press. Within the framework of this study, purposive selection guided the process of data collection, which refers to 'select information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under the study' (Patton, 1990: 169). On this ground, the audial (listening and videos) tasks in the selected coursebook were analyzed from an ELF perspective. The primary reason why this book was preferred to analyze is that it is one of the most commonly used ELT coursebooks in the tertiary level in various state and private universities' prep classes in Turkey, which means that the results of the study can also give us an idea about the ELF-awareness among the practitioners although it is beyond the scope of this study.

In accordance with the data analysis part, the compatibility of the listening and video tasks with ELF was scrutinized in terms of three aspects. Initially, the study focused on to what extent these tasks in the selected coursebook expose learners to the interactions among nonnative-nonnative/ native-nonnative speakers of English. Secondly, the related tasks were discussed in terms of their exposure to the non-native role models of English. Additionally, how they approach to culture was the last point addressed in the study. For the first research question, the data were quantified in terms of occurrences of the interactions among native-nonnative, nonnative-nonnative and native-native in the listening and video scripts in the form of dialogues. With regard to the second research question, the same quantification was done in terms of the occurrences of the native and nan-native role models in the listening and video scripts written in the form of monologues or lectures. In connection with the last research question and the approach of the activities to the cultural issues, the study followed the data analysis framework of Yuen (2011), in which the cultural elements are suggested to be divided into four categories as products, persons, practices and perspectives. In this framework, products refer to any mentioning of a location, place, food or religion etc. belonging to a specific culture while persons include a famous or a fictional character from a particular society. Any ritual, custom or a way of celebrating special days can be reflected as an example of the practices as a third category. For example, 'Fatoş began to look at very carefully at the coffee ground and tell him what she could see' (from English File upper- intermediate students' book, third edition: p.8) was counted as a Turkish coffee cup reading practice while Fatoş was included in the persons category. Lastly, perspectives encapsulate the issues such as world

views, beliefs or values of a particular nation. The number of the mentions or the depictions of these products, persons, practices and perspectives were counted and categorized as native cultural patterns (including the Inner circle countries in Kachru's model) and non-native cultural patterns (referring to the cultures of the countries except from the Inner circle). To verify the credibility of the results, the frequencies for each case were reviewed through a peer debriefing (Creswell and Miller, 2000), and then the results were presented in the tabular form.

Findings

In accordance with the first and the second research questions, a total of 70 scripts of listening and video task were analyzed. While 35 of these scripts were in the form of a dialogue, 35 of them were in the form of a monologue or lecture. In the dialogues, there were totally 37 interactions which were grouped as native/native interactions, native/nonnative interactions and nonnative/ nonnative interactions. The rest 35 scripts incorporated 49 speakers categorized as native or non-native role models in the study.

The frequencies of the cases where the interactions among natives or non-natives found in the listening and video task scripts are displayed in Table1.

Table 1.

Representation of Interactions in Video and Listening Tasks

Up-int. English file	Native/native Interactions	Native/non-native Interactions	Non-navite/non-native Interactions	Total
Listening & Video	34 (%91,9)	3(%8,1)	0 (%0)	37

As presented in Table 1, while 34 (%91,9) interactions occur among the native speakers of English (mostly either American or British and a few Scottish), only 3(%8,1) of the interactions are among a native and a non-native speaker of English. One of them is between a native and a South-African speaker of English. With this single example, the coursebook refers to the presence of English in an Outer Circle country. Through the dialogues between a native and a Dutch speaker of English, and a native and a Spanish speaker of English, there are only two references to the countries in the Expanding Circle. Lastly, from 37 interactions tallied in the listening and video tasks, none of them constitutes an example of a non-native and non-native dialogue. Based upon the numbers stated above, it can be stated that there is a clear emphasis on the native speakers of English. Tentative references to the non-native speaker in the Expanding and Inner circle countries are too limited in the coursebook.

Table 2.

Representation of Role Models in Video and Listening Tasks

Up-int. English file	Native Role models	Non-native Roles models	Total
Listening & Video	48 (%98)	1 (%2)	49

Concerning the second research question, which attempts to find to what extent the listening and video tasks in the selected coursebook expose learners to the non-native role models of English speakers, a total number of 49 scripts in monologue or lecture were scrutinized. Results were in parallel with those relating to the first research question. The book represents only one non-native role model to the students with the speech of Nelson Mandela who was the first black president of South Africa. On the other hand, the target students are exposed to various native role models, mostly British and American experts, journalists, professors or prime ministers.

Table 3

Representation of Cultural Patterns in Video and Listening Tasks

Up-int. English file	Native culture Patterns	Non-native culture Patterns	Total
Products	112 (%70,4)	47 (%29,6)	159
Persons	131 (%89,1)	16 (%10,9)	147
Practices	7 (%77,7)	2 (%22,3)	9
Perspectives	2 (%100)	_	2

Table 3 represents the native and non-native culture patterns in terms of how many times there is a reference to the products, persons, practices and perspectives belonging to a particular society. In terms of this frequency-based calculation, all the video and listening scripts totally 70 were analyzed. As it was explained in a detailed way in methodology part of the study, Yuen's (2011) framework was used to determine the cultural patterns in the selected tasks. As it is presented in the table, out of 159 products, 112 (%70,8) of them are the representatives of native culture while 47 (%29,6) of these products belong to non-native cultures. Nearly all these products ranging from the historical places such as the Old Vic

Theatre, locations like Yorkshire, books such as Warrior Scarlet, to social media items such as Facebook or Twitter belong to either American or British society with a few exceptions of references to Australia or Canada in the Inner circle. There was also a stress on some English words or expressions in this category such as 'as blind as a bat'. When it is compared to the products of native culture, there is a limited frequency of products from non-native nations, and all these cultural items refer to the countries in the Expanding Circle such as Istanbul, Saudi Arabia, Hong Kong etc.

The second category, persons, presents similar results with those of the first category, products. The table designates that the number of persons belonging to the native culture exceeds the number of persons those from the non-native nations. Mostly famous actors, actress and playwrights constitute this group. Additionally, the frequencies of cultures in terms of products and persons demonstrate that the coursebook does not follow a balanced way concerning to the representations of the non-native and native countries.

As for the category, practices, it can be denoted that the items in this category are limited compared to the first two categories. Based upon the table, it can be noticed that out of 9 practices, 7 (77,7) belong to native culture while 2 (22,3) of them represent non-native cultures. Non-native cultural elements embrace coffee cup reading from Turkey and a recycling practice particular to Germany. On the other hand, a way of organizing a festival in England, celebrating Thanksgiving and New Year's Eve or practicing of a belief belonging to Purists can be shown as an example for the cultural practices of England and America.

As can be seen in the table, perspectives are the least representative elements among the four categories. The listening and video tasks comprise merely 2 (%100) perspectives which are particular to the British society and American society. To exemplify, a passage about 'the weather and The British people' makes a reference to how British people love to talk about the weather. Additionally, with a well-known quotation from Neil Armstrong 'That's one small step for man, one giant step leap for mankind', the book refers to an American perspective.

The overall analysis demonstrates that non-native cultural patterns in each category fall behind the cultural patterns belonging to native countries. Furthermore, it can be put forward that the book does not have a concern of following a well-balanced approach in terms of neither the representation of non-native role models nor the occurrences of nonnative-native or nonnative-nonnative interactions in the audial skills-based activities.

Discussion

Findings generally revealed that English File upper intermediate level textbook does not provide a realistic picture of how English is being utilized in discrete parts of the world today. There is nearly no inclusion of ELF interactions which allow students to experience some communicational breakdowns and commutation strategies that they need to become an effective English user in the future. As Sifakis (2004) states, students should be exposed to authentic ELF settings where mutual intelligibility plays a substantial role in diverse discourses. The analysis demonstrates that the textbook presents a monolithic approach to English language teaching with the lack of awareness-raising activities and references to ELF features. Findings are generally parallel with those of previous studies (Asakereh et al., 2019; Caleffi, 2016) which were conducted in diverse educational contexts. Additionally, it seems that the textbook has a clear orientation towards native role models from inner circle countries predominantly from England and America, which is in line with Si's study (2020) which investigates the non-native role models in business English coursebooks. As suggested by Davies (1991), such a clear distinction between native and non-native speakers of English is power-driven and identity-laden. However, 'the very fact that English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it' (Widdowson, 1994: 265).

Lastly, in relation to the third research question, which attempts to investigate how the listening and video tasks in the coursebook approach culture, it seems that the coursebook adopts an essentialist view in terms of representing the cultural elements. In other words, there is a clear focus on the native cultural patterns rather than a well-balanced view of diverse cultures. A serious problem arising here is that such a tendency in one of the well-known and common ELT coursebooks in Turkey can create a misperception for learners in a sense that the culture of Outer Circle or Expanding Circle countries do not play a crucial role in learning English. Additionally, such an essentialist approach implies that native culture is superior to the other cultures. Although there are some references to the cultural patterns of non-native countries, these tentative and weak references in terms of number are not satisfactory to increase an intercultural awareness among the learners. This result is in line with the comparative study conducted in Turkey and Portugal by Guerra et al. (2022) with the findings demonstrating the dominance of native culture elements among the non-native cultural items.

Conclusion

Since the English coursebooks are one of the essential pedagogical tools in the process of teaching English and providing competent English users in the future, it is considerably vital to employ effective and global textbooks in terms of representing cultural and accent-based varieties of English. Not only teachers but also students should have an awareness of the modified reality of English today via these coursebooks. However, it seems that the coursebook analyzed within the framework of this study is not inclusive enough to reflect this new but unstoppable perspective.

In the light of the results presented above, the present study suggests some pedagogical considerations that policymakers, teacher trainer programs and English teachers should take into account. Firstly, policymakers, and material developers should update their content knowledge in relation to the research conducted on ELF and World Englishes so that they can redesign ELT materials with an ELF perspective. Additionally, teacher trainer programs should also help pre-service and in-service teachers to gain a better understanding of the real status of English today. As Bayyurt et al. (2018:252) suggest, "teacher education should include moments devoted to a critical reflection upon and analysis of existing materials within a World Englishes (WE)- and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)- ELF-aware perspective". And finally, language teachers should be knowledgeable about how to integrate some supplementary ELF-oriented materials into their teaching practices in order to increase language learners' intercultural awareness.

The study has some limitations. Primarily, only one level of English File, Upper-Intermediate, was scrutinized in terms of ELF-awareness within the content of this research. For further studies, all series of the book can be evaluated to come up with more general conclusions. Lastly, audial skills-based investigation was carried out including listening and video tasks. In the future, a more comprehensive study can cover the speaking, writing and grammar-based activities in the coursebook as well.

The Research and Publication Ethics Statement

The Ethics Committee/Board approval for this study was obtained from Gebze Technical University Ethical Committee in 10/06/2022 by No E-43633178-199-61583. No ethical considerations were violated in this study.

Declaration of Conflicting Interest

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

Contributions of author(s)

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

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