

# The Literacy Trek

**JOURNAL OF LITERACY AND  
LANGUAGE STUDIES**

**E-ISSN: 2602-3768**



***JOURNAL***

***VOLUME 8 ISSUE 2, DECEMBER 2022***

# The Literacy Trek

JOURNAL OF LITERACY AND  
LANGUAGE STUDIES

E-ISSN: 2602-3768

*VOLUME 8 ISSUE 2, DECEMBER 2022*

## EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

**Prof. Dr. Leyla Harputlu**

## EDITORS

**Dr. Ali Erarslan**

**Dr. Özgehan Uştuk**

# CONTENT

## Research Articles

[1. An error analysis on Turkish EFL learners' writing tasks](#)

Berfu DUYGUN Pınar KARABACAK

**Page: 121-141**

[2. Does developing research skills increase academic motivation among foreign language learners?](#)

Ferdane DENKÇİ AKKAŞ Işıl TEKİN Selami AYDIN

**Page: 142-164**

[3. Professional identity of language teacher trainees during practicum: A metaphor analysis](#)

Burcu TURHAN

**Page: 165-185**

[4. Structural repetitions and discourse relations in English-Turkish translations of TED talks](#)

Özgür ŞEN BARTAN

**Page: 186-202**

[5. Exploring the relationship between L2 writing self-efficacy and language proficiency level](#)

Tuba DEMİRKOL Hakan DEMİRÖZ

**Page: 203-222**

## Literary articles & essays

Art and Literature

[6. Stand-up that stands out: Analysis of gendered sequences from a Foucauldian perspective](#)

Nur SÜRÜÇ ŞEN

**Page: 223-241**

RESEARCH ARTICLE

**An error analysis on Turkish EFL learners' writing tasks**

Berfu Duygun<sup>1</sup>

Pınar Karabacak<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Sakarya University, Turkey / Contact: [berfuduygun@gmail.com](mailto:berfuduygun@gmail.com) 

<sup>2</sup>Sakarya University, Turkey / Contact: [kkarabacakpinar@gmail.com](mailto:kkarabacakpinar@gmail.com) 

**Abstract**

This descriptive qualitative study aimed to investigate the types and sources of errors committed by Turkish students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in their foreign language (L2) writings as well as find out whether there is a difference in terms of the number, classification, and sources of errors between students at two different proficiency levels. To this end, the study was carried out at the School of Foreign Languages at a non-profit foundation university in Turkey in the 2020-2021 academic year. The students participating in the study (N= 32), who were selected using the convenient sampling method and participated in the study voluntarily, were Turkish preparatory class students having two different English proficiency levels, namely A1 level (n= 16) and A2 level (n= 16). Data for the study came from three different narrative paragraphs (each ranging in a 100 - 200 word band) written by the students, and a total of 96 paragraphs were collected for the study. The analysis revealed that the most frequent type of error was grammatical errors overall, a large part of which was the inappropriate use of verb forms. Moreover, findings concerning the potential differences between two proficiency levels showed that A1 level learners committed more errors than A2 level learners in all types except the semantic errors. Based on these findings, a number of implications for L2 writing teachers are discussed.

© 2022 The Literacy Trek & the Authors – Published by The Literacy Trek

**APA Citation**

Duygun B. & Karabacak, P. (2022). An error analysis on Turkish EFL learners' writing tasks. *The Literacy Trek*, 8(2), 121-141. <https://doi.org/10.47216/literacytrek.1117158>

**Keywords**

Error analysis, L2 writing, error, grammatical errors

**Submission date**

16.05.2022

**Acceptance date**

01.08.2022

**Introduction**

Writing, a complex productive skill that requires thinking and cognitive processes, is a significant skill for language learners because it allows them to clearly express their ideas and thoughts. It goes through many stages of pre-writing, while-writing, and post-writing as well as requires several overlapping factors, including organization, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, coherence, cohesion, and others (Prasetyawati & Ardi, 2020). In writing, the majority of students, learning English as a Foreign

Language (EFL), make mistakes and commit errors (Erdoğan, 2005; Hamouda, 2011; Kaweera, 2013; Mustafa et. al., 2017; Phuket & Othman, 2015; Wu & Garza, 2014). The study of errors and the understanding of their sources are essential in supporting students in successfully acquiring writing skills. The errors of language learners should be carefully examined since they reveal the process of acquiring the target language. Richards and Schmidt (2002) identify error as the use of a linguistic component in a way that a fluent or a native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning. Errors are an inevitable part of learners' writings, and even if they seem disadvantageous, they might be informative in some ways. Corder (1967) implies that errors are valuable for learners, teachers, and researchers for they give the idea of how the learning process takes place. Along similar lines, Gürsel (1998) utters that error is an inevitable part of a learning process. Therefore, they shouldn't be seen as an indicator of failure. On the contrary, identifying and recognizing errors is one of the most essential components for the learning process to proceed more accurately.

### *Identification of errors*

Identifying an error entails more than just stating what the error is. However, as linguists are concerned with the distinction between an error and a mistake, it's necessary to review the definitions of the two terms. A learner makes a mistake while writing or speaking due to lack of attention, exhaustion, carelessness, or other elements of performance, according to the Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (1992). When the learners pay attention, they can self-correct their mistakes. An error, on the other hand, is the usage of a linguistic item in such a way that a native or fluent speaker of the language considers it to be incorrect or incomplete learning. In other words, it occurs because the learner is unable to self-correct because he or she does not know what is correct. To distinguish between an error and a mistake, Ellis (1997) recommends that a mistake occurs when the learner uses the correct form sometimes and the incorrect form other times. However, if he consistently uses it wrongly, it is called an error.

### Literature review

The errors of the students are crucial because they provide “insight into how far a learner has progressed in acquiring a language and showing how much more the learner needs to learn” (Ringbom, 1987, as cited in Huang, 2014, p.69). Error Analysis (EA) is a sort of linguistic analysis that concentrates on the errors that students make. Corder (1967) known as the "father" of the Error Analysis discipline is strongly related to this field. He approached errors from a completely different perspective than previous scholars. Errors were once seen to be "flaws" that needed to be eliminated, but Corder (1967) saw them as vital “devices” that students utilise to learn. Later, with the emergence of contrastive analysis, which depends on behaviourist and structuralist theory, the effects of errors made in the mother tongue on second language learning began to be studied (Fisiak, 1985, p. 67).

In the field of English Language Education, many scholars and researchers have been studying error analysis within the scope of second language achievement. There is a rapidly growing literature on error analysis (Altiner, 2018; Atmowardoyo, 2018; Ellis, 2019; Eroğlu et. al., 2022; Hadi, 2021; Iqbal et. al., 2021; Navidinia et. al., 2018; Pokrivčáková, 2019; Sürüç Şen & Şimşek, 2020; Wulandari & Harida, 2021) which indicates that it has a crucial impact on students’ success. The current study’s literature has focused on the previous studies related to the number of errors committed more often by the students, the classification of the errors, and lastly, the sources of errors.

At the outset, Saltık (1997) conducted in the tertiary level Turkish EFL context to scrutinize in which part of the written language the students have most difficulty and which language items need special attention. To this end, he identified the errors committed by intermediate level Turkish preparatory school EFL students (N= 80) who were from social and physical science departments. The data collected through essays of at least 2 paragraphs in 80 mid-term exams were analysed through error analysis. The study revealed that the most problematic parts are in the three main areas of linguistics, orthography, lexicosemantics, and syntactico-morphology. Another similar study was conducted by Gürsel (1998), who aimed to classify errors of the writings of engineering students in a preparatory school. Participants were

Turkish EFL students (N= 76) at a state university. The study revealed that Turkish learners had problems in morphology, syntax, and prepositions respectively. Along similar lines, Şimşek and Sürüç Şen (2020) carried out a study with intermediate level preparatory class students (N= 17) chosen by convenience sampling method from various departments that require English proficiency at a certain level. The participants were asked to write an advantages and disadvantages or effect essay of the given topics in the range of 350-450 words. According to Corder's Error Analysis scheme, the data collected from the participants were then identified by the researchers and described as the next step. According to the findings, it was found out that areas where students are most prone to making mistakes were grammatical and lexical aspects of language. With the aim of investigating the sources of errors in writing, a study was conducted by Sermsook, Liamnimitr, and Pochakor (2017) with the help of second-year Thai EFL students (N= 26). The study revealed that both interlingual and intralingual interference have an effect on students' writings combined with the students' carelessness. Based on the same purpose Çepni (2014) conducted a study on the writings of bilingual students (N= 16) of Turkish and Kurdish majoring in English at a state university. The data gathered in the study suggest that Turkish has a higher effect on the errors of students' writings and grammatical errors generate most of them. In terms of the sources of errors, it was found out that intralingual transfer has the highest percentage among the sources of errors.

Regarding the studies that investigated the classification of errors committed by the learners, Ridha (2012) looked into the errors made by EFL Iraqi college students in writing English essays by classifying them into the following categories: grammatical, lexical, semantic, mechanics, and word order errors. The most serious and common errors were grammatical and mechanical problems as well as the Arabic interference caused the majority of the students' errors. Another study conducted by Watcharapunyawong and Usaha (2013) in Thailand demonstrated that interlingual errors fell into 16 categories: verb tense, word choice, sentence structure, article, preposition, modal/auxiliary, singular/plural form, fragment, verb form, pronoun, run-on sentence, infinitive/gerund, transition, subject-verb agreement, parallel structure, and comparison structure, respectively. The findings of this study also revealed that the frequency of errors varied by writing type. In conclusion, the written essay

analyses revealed that the native language continues to have a detrimental impact on Thai EFL students' writing. Also, Karim et. al., (2018) used the error analysis method suggested by Ellis (1997) to investigate the most frequent types of errors committed by secondary school EFL learners in Bangladesh and what their perceptions are about error correction in writing classes. Along with this, a survey of students' attitudes about error correction was adapted. According to the findings, grammar, misinformation, misordering, and overgeneralization were among the most common errors identified. Furthermore, the study discovered that EFL students prefer to have their errors corrected by their instructors.

### *Aim and Significance*

A considerable number of studies were conducted to analyse errors that learners commit in their writing in the L2 learning process (e.g., Hamouda, 2011; Saltık, 1997; Sermsook et. al., 2017; Sürüç Şen & Şimşek, 2020; Wu & Garza, 2014). However, even though many previous studies showed error sources and types, less attention has been paid to the difference in terms of the number, classification, and sources of errors between students at two different proficiency levels, namely A1 and A2. Therefore, this study attempts to fill the gap by finding out the types of errors that EFL learners who are enrolled at School of Foreign Languages at a foundation university in Turkey in the 2020-2021 academic year, make in their writings and comparing A1 and A2 level writings in terms of the errors they make.

Accordingly, a comparative error analysis between the writings of A1 and A2 levels of EFL students is carried out in line with the following research questions:

1. What type of errors do A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students make in their narrative writings?
2. What are the sources of the errors that A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students make in their writings?
3. Is there a difference between A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students in terms of
  - a. the number of errors?
  - b. classification of errors?



c. sources of errors?

## **Method**

### *Design*

This study is a descriptive qualitative study as it aims to find out the common errors in students' writings. A descriptive study is defined as a kind of research design that covers the observation and description of a pattern (Polit & Hungler, 1999).

### *Setting and participants*

A total of thirty-two Turkish university-level EFL students (18 females and 14 males) aged between 18-21 and studying at various departments at the university participated in the study. They were all enrolled in the English Preparatory School at a non-profit foundation university in İstanbul, Turkey in the 2020-2021 academic year Fall term. Specifically speaking, two different groups of students from two different language proficiency levels participated in the study voluntarily. The English level of the participants was determined according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001), which was determined by a placement test held at the beginning of the semester, which measures reading, listening, grammar and vocabulary skills in a foreign language. Accordingly, the first (n=16) and the second (n=16) group of students were selected from A1 and A2 proficiency levels respectively using the convenience sampling method. In the modular system consisting of 7 weeks, the students took a total of 12 hours of writing lessons, during the first two weeks. In the writing lessons offered by the same instructor, detailed information was provided to students on how to write a narrative paragraph.

### *Data collection instruments and procedure*

Data for this qualitative study came from 96 narrative paragraph writing tasks written by 32 students; i.e., each participant produced three paragraphs. The tasks were implemented online and they were prepared by the researcher in line with the topics covered in the classroom. Before collecting the data, both level groups were trained on how to write a narrative paragraph for twelve hours. The grammatical structures, spelling rules, and how they should ensure paragraph integrity were emphasised. At the end of the training, how data would be collected was told and general procedures

were explained. In order to minimise the risk of using an online dictionary or translation, a Moodle-based system which keeps track of the transition between the tabs was used. Participants were given three narrative writing assignments two days apart which were of about 100-120 words (see Appendix A). On the first day, students were informed about how the data collection process would progress. Then, necessary warnings were made about the important parts during the writing process. Before writing, all participants were asked to submit a consent form. Two days later, they were asked to write their second paragraphs under the same conditions; eventually, they were asked to write their last paragraphs three days later. In total, it took six days to collect the data.

### *Data analysis*

Data that came from narrative paragraphs written by students were analysed. As consistency is a requirement for a research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011), in order to ensure the consistency in the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the study, the consistency of the interpretations in the previous similar studies was checked, and at the same time, the consistency was supported by reaching consensus in the expert opinions. Errors were first divided into two groups according to their types and then according to their sources. Types of errors were based on the classification of Selinker (1972) including grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, and semantical errors. Another categorization involved Richards's (1974) taxonomy, which indicates that sources of errors can be classified into two groups: interlingual and intralingual. After students' errors in sentences were determined by two raters separately, the detected errors were compared and discussed again in terms of their differences. Errors were counted and determined how often they were made taking into account the types and sources of errors in the list prepared by the researcher (see Appendix B) and adding the types of errors that hadn't been included in the form but were found in the writings. After the frequencies of the errors were determined, their percentages in their type and in the overall total were determined. Data were checked for normality and analysed by administering descriptive statistics, frequency analysis, and Mann-Whitney U tests.

## Findings

### *Types of Errors*

Errors were analysed under five main categories: grammatical, morphological, lexical, semantic, and syntactic errors. Data related to the types of errors and some examples of them are presented in this section.

Findings showed that a total of 478 errors were found for A1 level students whereas 280 errors were found for A2 level students. Errors A1 level students committed (f= 478) consist of grammatical (f= 316), lexical (f= 120), syntactic (f= 24), morphological (f= 11) and semantic (f= 7) errors. On the other hand, errors A2 level students committed (n=280) consist of grammatical (f= 173), lexical (f= 78), semantic (f= 12), syntactic (f= 10) and morphological (f= 7) errors. Tables that show frequencies and percentages of the errors of A1 and A2 level students are below.

**Table 1.**

#### Grammatical errors

Type of Error	Frequency (A1)	Percentage In General (A1)	Frequency (A2)	Percentage In General (A2)
	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Use of Verb Forms	127	26%	63	23%
Subject-Verb Agreement	3	1%	8	3%
Use of Articles	27	6%	11	4%
Use of Prepositions	42	9%	8	3%
Use of Pronouns	25	5%	10	4%
Use of Conjunctions	7	1%	3	1%
Use of Adjectives/Adverbs	2	1%	4	1%
Use of Singular-Plurals	20	4%	16	6%
Missing Items	63	13%	50	17%
Total	316	66%	173	62%

The rate and type of grammatical errors are indicated in Table 1. It can be seen that grammatical errors (f= 316) committed by A1 level students constitute 26% of verb usage errors, 13% of missing items, and 9% of preposition errors.

Regarding the writing of A2 level students in terms of grammatical errors, it can be seen that the students had the most errors in verb usage with 23%, followed by the missing items with 17%.

Some of the grammatical mistakes made by students are as follow

“My mother’s aunt were so old and couldn’t come with us.” (*Subject-verb agreement*)

“Everyday we woke up early on the morning.” (*Use of prepositions*)

“Us celebrated the New Year at midnight.” (*Use of pronouns*)

“Our hotel was very comfortable because I want to go again.” (*Use of conjunctions*)

That evening, I posted my most happiest photo on Instagram.” (*Use of adjectives/adverbs*)

**Table 2.**

Morphological Errors

Type of Error	Frequency (A1)A1 level Frequency (f)	Percentage In General (A1) Percentage (%)	Frequency (A2)A2 level Frequency (f)	PercentageIn General (A2) Percentage (%)
Affixation Errors	11	2%	7	3%
Total	11	2%	7	3%

In terms of morphological errors, it can be seen that all of the errors were caused by affixation. It forms 2% of the total errors of A1 level students and 3% of A2 level students.

Some of the morphological errors made by students are indicated as follow:

“I was very tiring.” (*Affixation error*)

“Sudden, there was a noise.” (*Affixation error*)

“Then we went to hotel by car, but they were very strangely.” (*Affixation error*)

In terms of lexical errors, the majority of errors for both levels were spelling errors. This was followed by low percentages of eggcorn errors and errors which were sourced by language transfer.

**Table 3.**

Lexical Errors

Type of Error	Frequency (A1)A1 level	Percentage In General (A1)	Frequency (A2)A2 level	Percentage In General (A2)
	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Spelling Errors	106	22%	59	21%
Eggcorn Errors	8	2%	11	4%
Errors sourced by Language Transfer	6	1%	8	2%
Total	120	25%	78	27%

Some of the lexical errors made by students are given as follow

“I asked “Where is my girlfirend?” (*Spelling Error*)

“They said let’s go to trabzon.” (*Spelling error*)

“Than I had a shower.” (*Eggcorn error*)

“We usually stay for 3 or 4 mouths.” (*Eggcorn error*)

“We went to see in the morning and swam.” (*Eggcorn error*)

“We stayed at the hotel until one week.” (*Errors sourced by language transfer*)

“I went to Cyprus near my brother.” (*Errors sourced by language transfer*)

“I played at the wedding.” (*Errors sourced by language transfer*)

**Table 4.**

Syntactic Errors

Type of Error	Frequency (A1)A1 level	Percentage In General (A1)	Frequency (A2)A2 level	Percentage In General (A2)
	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Errors Sourced by Language Transfer	24	4%	6	1%
Errors Sourced by Overgeneralization of Rules	0	0	4	1%
Total	24	4%	10	2%

As indicated in Table 4, while all syntactic errors at A1 level were caused by language transfer, in addition to this, at A2 level, overgeneralization of rules was also seen.

Some of the syntactic errors made by students,

“My first day at university I was so excited.” (*Errors caused by language transfer*)

“For this reason, very early get up.” (*Errors caused by language transfer*)

“I don’t remember when was this happened.” (*Errors caused by overgeneralization of rules*)

**Table 5.**

Semantic Errors

Type of Error	Frequency (A1)A1 level	Percentage In General (A1)	Frequency (A2)A2 level	Percentage In General (A2)
	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Errors Caused by Language Transfer	7	3%	12	4%
Total	7	3%	12	4%

As can be seen in Table 5, semantic errors made in both levels were caused by language transfer.

Some of the semantic errors made by students,

“My first university is Kırklareli University, civil technician division.” (*Errors sourced by language transfer*)

“My friends exploded a champagne for me.” (*Errors sourced by language transfer*)

“We used to chat and play games in empty lessons.” (*Errors sourced by language transfer*)

### *The Sources of Errors*

According to their sources, errors committed by students were also analysed as interlingual and intralingual.

**Table 6.**

Sources of Errors

Sources of Error	Frequency (A1)A1 level	Percentage In General (A1)	Frequency (A2)A2 level	Percentage In General (A2)
	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Interlingual	37	7%	26	9%
Intralingual	441	93%	254	91%
Total	478		280	

While 441 of the 478 errors made by A1 level students were caused by intralingual, 37 of them sourced from interlingual. For A2 level students, of the 280 errors 254 were sourced from intralingual, 26 of them sourced from interlingual.

Some of the interlingual errors made by students,

“Because I didn’t live New Year’s Day.”

“My friends exploded a champagne for me.”

Some of the intralingual errors made by students,

“I was very happied.”

“Antalya was an good choice for an holiday.”

### **Discussion and conclusion**

The main aim of this study was to focus on the errors A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students commit in their writings. In the following section, the findings obtained for each research question are interpreted.

***RQ 1: What type of errors do A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students make in their writings?***

The aim of the first research question was to classify the types of errors that A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students make. Findings (see Table 1) indicated that, in terms of grammar, wrong use of verb forms, subject-verb agreement,

articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, adjective/adverbs, singular/plurals, and missing items were detected. The reason for the wrong use of "verb tense", in which students commit most errors, may be due to the fact that students do not use auxiliary verbs in their mother tongue Turkish and they cannot make sense of it while learning English. When it comes to morphological errors (see Table 2), the only problematic area was affixation. Since the use of affixation in the curricula of preparatory schools is more prevalent at A2 and higher levels, this error rate may have been high, especially for students at A1 level. In addition, most of the affixation mistakes made by the students are due to the wrong affix to be added to the end such as using the word "boring" instead of "bored". Regarding lexical errors (see Table 3), spelling errors, eggcorn errors and language transfer errors were found. Spelling errors, which constitute the majority of lexical errors, may be due to students' carelessness or their desire to write and finish in a hurry. In addition to this, spelling errors were seen quite often in words with similar spellings in Turkish. Students may have confused the spelling rules in both languages and therefore spelling mistakes may have occurred. As for syntactic errors (see Table 4), it can be seen that they can be sourced by language transfer or overgeneralization. Since the syntax rules in Turkish and English are different, students may be more likely to err in this area. Finally, in terms of semantic errors (see Table 5) it can be said that all of the errors were sourced by language transfer.

The findings of this study concur with those of Şimşek and Sürüç Şen (2020) which focused on university level EFL students' errors in their writings. At both levels, students are not good at forming verbs accurately, as well as missing item errors are seen. Apart from these, findings showed that spelling errors also made up a large percentage of total errors. It can be considered that the rate of this error was high since students were given a time limit; in other words, they wrote under a limitation. Finally, findings showed that students' mistakes were due to generalization rather than transfer errors originating from their native language. It turns out that these areas require more attention than other areas. These three areas could be emphasized in remedial teaching.



***RQ 2: What are the sources of the errors that A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students make in their writings?***

The second research question sought to determine the sources of errors that A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students make in their writings. Findings (see Table 6) showed that most of the errors detected were caused mainly by intralingual transfer. Richards and Schmidt (2002) define intralingual errors as the ones resulting from incomplete learning, rather than language transfer. Therefore, it's understood that students tend to overgeneralize rules, especially grammar. Even in a low percentage (7%), interlingual errors were made by students in paragraphs. In a similar study conducted by Liu (2013), it was discovered that Chinese learners made errors when writing English sentences. She cited carelessness and the negative influence of the subjects' mother tongue as the sources.

***RQ 3: 3.a. Is there a difference between A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students in terms of the number of errors?***

Findings indicated that the total number of errors committed by A1 level students ( $M= 21.94$ ) was much higher than that of A2 level students ( $M= 11.06$ ). Furthermore, findings of the Mann-Whitney U test showed a statistically significant difference between the two different proficiency levels ( $U = 41, p = .001$ ). Since students who study A2 level have passed a group of exams in order to successfully complete A1 level and their language knowledge level is higher than the A1 students, it should be considered normal that the mistakes made in A1 level students are more.

**Table 7.**

Results of Mann-Whitney U Test

Students' Level	Number of Students	Mean
A1	16	21.94
A2	16	11.06
Total	32	

***3.b. Is there a difference between A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students in terms of classification of errors?***

Findings of descriptive statistics analysis showed that A1 level students committed a comparatively higher number of grammatical, morphological, lexical, and syntactic

errors as compared to A2 level students, except for the semantic errors where A2 level students committed more errors than the A1 level students.

In order to investigate whether these differences in the mean scores were statistically significant or not, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. Findings illustrated that the difference in grammatical ( $U = 33.5, p = .000$ ), lexical ( $U = 65.5, p = .018$ ), and syntactic ( $U = 69.5, p = .019$ ) errors were statistically significant while the differences were not significant in morphological ( $U = 100.5, p = .238$ ) or semantic ( $U = 106.5, p = .362$ ) errors.

**Table 8.**

Results of Mann-Whitney U test

Type of Error	Students' Level	Number of Students	Mean Rank
Grammatical Errors	A1	16	22.41
	A2	16	10.59
Morphological Errors	A1	16	18.22
	A2	16	14.78
Lexical Errors	A1	16	20.41
	A2	16	12.59
Syntactic Errors	A1	16	20.16
	A2	16	12.84
Semantic Errors	A1	16	15.16
	A2	16	17.84

***3.c. Is there a difference between A1 and A2 level Turkish university-level EFL students in terms of sources of errors?***

Descriptive statistics analysis showed that A1 level students committed a comparatively higher number of errors in both interlingual ( $M= 18.97$ ) and intralingual ( $M= 21.94$ ) errors when compared to A2 level students' interlingual ( $M= 14.03$ ) and intralingual ( $M= 11.06$ ) errors.

Mann Whitney U analysis further indicated that whereas a statistically significant difference was found between A1 and A2 level students in intralingual errors ( $U = 41, p = .001$ ), the difference in the mean scores was not statistically significant in interlingual errors ( $U = 88.5, p = .126$ ).

**Tablo 9.**

Results of Mann-Whitney U test

Sources of Error	Students' Level	Number of Students	Mean Rank
Interlingual Errors	A1	16	18.97
	A2	16	14.03
Intralingual Errors	A1	16	21.94
	A2	16	11.06

In conclusion, based on the findings, this study figured out that the most committed error type was grammatical errors by Turkish university-level students. At both levels (A1-A2), students had some difficulties in informing verbs accurately and they were prone to miss some necessary items while writing paragraphs. Apart from these, the study revealed that spelling errors also made up a large percentage of total errors. It could be interpreted that students were more likely to make such mistakes due to time constraints. Finally, it was seen that students' mistakes were due to overgeneralization rather than transferring errors originating from their native language. The purpose of this study was to examine errors made by Turkish EFL university-level students when writing paragraphs in English and to identify the sources of the errors, and lastly, comparing the differences between committed errors by two different English proficiency levels as A1 and A2. The data revealed that the students committed more errors as a result of intralingual inference, limited English grammar knowledge, and carelessness.

### *Implications, Limitations and Suggestions for Further Studies*

This descriptive qualitative study sought to determine the types and sources of errors made by Turkish students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in their foreign language (L2) writings. It also sought to determine whether there were differences between students at two different proficiency levels in terms of the number, classification, and sources of errors. Numerous research studies have examined the writing errors that students make when learning a second language. Nevertheless, despite the fact that earlier research demonstrated error sources and types, less focus has been placed on the distinction between students at two different competence levels, namely A1 and A2, in terms of the number, classification, and sources of errors. The current study has shown that the most committed error type was

grammatical errors by Turkish university-level students. Based on the same purpose, Çepni (2014) also conducted a study on the writings of bilingual students, and his study revealed that grammatical errors were the most common type of errors that students committed in their writings.

Also the study revealed that A1 students tended to make more errors when it was compared to A2 students except semantic errors. In terms of the sources of errors (interlingual & intralingual), A2 learners made less errors in their writing, but A1 learners had some difficulties in writing and committed more errors. Making mistakes while learning a foreign language is pretty normal, and it is a necessary stage before fully understanding the language in each proficiency level. As a result, it is safe to say that error analysis is the ideal method for identifying the types and sources of errors in students' writing. It is the ideal instrument for assessing the current situation and determining the deficiencies of learners. Using accurate learner error analysis, more efficient teaching techniques can be used (Çepni, 2014). Upon the results of this study, a few recommendations are suggested for further research in the light of its limitations. First of all, since this study was conducted with a limited number of participants in a limited time, more precise results can be obtained by increasing the number of participants in subsequent studies. In addition, more different findings can be obtained by making comparisons between different levels of students. Also, motivation, attitudes, and beliefs of learners give promising research topics for future studies which could be conducted with larger groups.

### **Notes on the contributors**

**Berfu Duygun** graduated from Ankara University, department of English Language and Literature. She is currently doing her master's degree in English Language Teaching at Sakarya University. She works as an English instructor at the School of Foreign Languages of a foundation university in Istanbul.

**Pınar Karabacak** received her B.A. degree in the department of English Language Teaching from Sakarya University. She is doing her M.A. in the same department. She works as a teacher of English at a foundation school in Sakarya, Turkey. Her research interests are program evaluation, motivation of L2 learners, and pronunciation skills.

## References

- Atmowardoyo, H. (2018). Research methods in TEFL studies: Descriptive research, case study, error analysis, and R & D. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(1), 197-204.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2002). Research methods in education. *Routledge Publishers*, 3(6), 147-156.
- Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching (IRAL)*, 4(5), 161-170.
- Çepni, G. (2014). *Error analysis in writings of English language teaching prep students: A study on bilinguals of Kurdish and Turkish majoring in English*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Çaç University, Turkey.
- Ellis, R. (2019). Towards a modular language curriculum for using tasks. *Language Teaching Research*, 23(4), 454-475.
- Erdoğan, V. (2005). Contribution of error analysis to foreign language teaching. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 1(2), 261-270.
- Eroğlu, S., Alabay, S., & Keklik, H. (2022). A study on the usage of verb's complements with cases by French bilingual Somali students learning Turkish as a foreign language. *International Education Studies*, 15(2), 113-122.
- Fisiak, J. (1985). *Contrastive linguistics and the language teacher*. Pergamon Press.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). Second language acquisition: an introductory course. *Journal for English as a Second Language*, 1(3), 243-249.
- Gürsel, E. (1998). *Error analysis of the English writings of the students from the department of foreign language at the University of Gaziantep*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Gaziantep University, Turkey.
- Hamouda, A. (2011). A study of students and teachers' preferences and attitudes towards correction of classroom written errors in Saudi EFL context. *English Language Teaching*, 4(3), 128-141.
- Karim, A., Mohamed, A. R., Ismail, S. A. M. M., Shahed, F. H., Rahman, M. M., & Haque, M. H. (2018). Error analysis in EFL writing classroom. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 8(4), 122-138.
- Kaweera, C. (2013). Writing error: a review of interlingual and intralingual interference in EFL context. *English Language Teaching*, 6(7), 9-18.
- Kennedy, M. M. (2010). Attribution error and the quest for teacher quality. *Educational Researcher*, 39(8), 591-598.
- Mustafa, F., Kirana, M., & Bahri, S. (2017). Errors in EFL writing by junior high students in Indonesia. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 6(1), 38-52.
- Prasetyawati, O. A., & Ardi, P. (2020). Integrating Instagram into EFL writing to foster student engagement. *Teaching English with Technology*, 20(3), 40-62.
- Polit, D. F., & Hungler, B.P. (1999) *Nursing research: Principles and methods (6th edition)*. Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott.

- Pokrivčáková, S. (2019). Preparing teachers for the application of AI-powered technologies in foreign language education. *Journal of Language and Cultural Education*, 5(3), 135-153.
- Phuket, P. R. N., & Othman, N. B. (2015). Understanding EFL students' errors in writing. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(32), 99-106.
- Richards, J. C. (1974). A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. *Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*, 3(7), 172-188.
- Richards, J. C., and Schmidt, R. (2002). *Dictionary of language teaching & applied linguistics*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Ridha, N. (2012). The effect of EFL learners' mother tongue on their writings in English: An error analysis study. *Journal of the College of Arts*, 60, 22-45.
- Saltık, S (1997). *A Study of error analysis in the essays of freshman students at the Middle East Technical University*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Middle East Technical University, Turkey.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10(3), 209-231.
- Sermsook, K., Liamnimit, J., & Pochakorn, R. (2017). An analysis of errors in written English sentences: A case study of Thai EFL students. *English Language Teaching*, 10(3), 101-110.
- Sürüç Şen, N., & Şimşek, A. (2020). An Analysis of Turkish students' written Errors: A case of an EFL context. *Journal of Language Research*, 4(1), 58-68.
- Thornbury, S. (2017). *The New A-Z of ELT: A dictionary of terms and concepts*. Macmillan.
- Watcharapunyawong, S., & Usaha, S. (2013). Thai EFL students' writing errors in different text types: The interference of the first language. *English Language Teaching*, 6(1), 67-78.
- Wulandari, R. S., & Harida, R. (2021). Grammatical error analysis in essay writing. *Deiksis*, 13(1), 73-81.
- Wu, H. P., & Garza, E. V. (2014). Types and attributes of English writing errors in the EFL context-A study of error analysis. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(6), 1256-1262.

## Appendices

### Appendix A- Data Collection Instrument

I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study. I accept that my responses may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs. / Bu çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ediyorum. Yanıtlarımın yayınlarda, raporlarda, web sayfalarında ve diğer araştırma faaliyetlerinde alıntılanabileceğini kabul ediyorum\*.

\*Your names will be kept confidential. / İsimleriniz gizli tutulacaktır.

**Name Surname/İsim Soyisim:**

**Date/Tarih:**

**Instructions/Talimatlar**

- Your paragraph should be in the range of **100-120** words. / Paragrafınız **100-120** kelime aralığında olmalı.
- You will be allowed **50 minutes** to complete the paragraph. / Paragrafı bitirmek için size tanınan süre **50 dakikadır**.
- **DO NOT** use any sources that help you to write this paragraph. (Such as dictionary, translation, anyone to help you) / Paragrafı yazarken hiç bir şekilde dışarıdan yardım **almamanız** gerekir. (Sözlük, çeviri, yanınızda başka birisi olması gibi)

Question 1: Write a narrative paragraph on “**A memorable event in your life**”.

Question 2: Write a narrative paragraph on “**Your last holiday**”.

Question 3: Write a narrative paragraph on “**Your first day at university**”.

### *Appendix B- Data Analysis Tool*

#### CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS

##### **Grammatical Errors**

Type of Error	Error Code
Use of Verb Forms Errors	GVERB
Subject-Verb Agreement Errors	GSUVE
Use of Articles Errors	GARTC
Use of Prepositions Errors	GPREP
Use of Pronouns Errors	GPRON
Use of Conjunctions Errors	GCONJ
Use of Adjectives / Adverbs Errors	GADAD
Use of Singulars / Plurals Errors	GS IPL
Missing Items (Subject, Verb, Object)	GMISS
Overgeneralization of Rules	GOVER

##### **Morphological Errors**

Type of Error	Error Code
Affixation Errors	MAFFX
Overgeneralization of Rules	MOVER
Language Transfer Errors	MLANG
<b>Lexical Errors</b>	
Type of Error	Error Code
Spelling Errors	LSPEL
Eggcorn Errors	LEGGC
Language Transfer Errors	LLANG
<b>Syntactic Errors</b>	
Type of Error	Error Code
Language Transfer Errors	SYLANG
Overgeneralization of Rules	SYOVER
<b>Semantic Errors</b>	
Type of Error	Error Code
Language Transfer Errors	SMLANG
<b>SOURCES OF ERRORS</b>	
Interlingual	SINTER
Intralingual	SINTRA



## Does developing research skills increase academic motivation among foreign language learners?

Ferdane Denkçi Akkaş<sup>1</sup>

Işıl Tekin<sup>2</sup>

Selami Aydın<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> İstanbul Medeniyet University, Turkey / Contact: [ferdane.denkci@medeniyet.edu.tr](mailto:ferdane.denkci@medeniyet.edu.tr) 

<sup>2</sup> İstanbul Medeniyet University, Turkey / Contact: [isil.tekin@medeniyet.edu.tr](mailto:isil.tekin@medeniyet.edu.tr) 

<sup>3</sup> İstanbul Medeniyet University, Turkey / Contact: [selami.aydin@medeniyet.edu.tr](mailto:selami.aydin@medeniyet.edu.tr) 

### Abstract

Academic motivation is one of the most significant affective factors in the learning of English as a foreign language (EFL). Moreover, research skills can be vital in foreign language learning and teaching processes. However, the number of studies on academic motivation, research skills, and the relationship between the two seems too limited to draw a conclusion. The current study aims to explore whether or how academic research skills and academic motivation are related. In this experimental study, an information test for measuring their knowledge of EFL research and the Academic Motivation Scale were administered to 16 participants before and after the instruction process. The results showed that developing foreign language research skills increases intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation among language learners. It was recommended that issues relating to research skills should be integrated into language course programs.

© 2022 The Literacy Trek & the Authors – Published by The Literacy Trek

### Keywords

English as a foreign language learning; research skills; academic motivation

### Submission date

31.05.2022

### Acceptance date

18.10.2022

### APA Citation

Denkçi Akkaş, F., Tekin, I., & Aydın, S. (2022). Does developing research skills increase academic motivation among foreign language learners?. *The Literacy Trek*, 8(2), 142-164. <https://doi.org/10.47216/literacytrek.1124192>

### Introduction

Academic motivation is one of the most considerable components of the learning process (Kotera et al., 2021) since it is associated with many academic, emotional, and behavioral variables such as achievement (Chon & Shin, 2019), engagement (Green et al., 2012), self-regulated learning and self-regulation (Schunk, 2008), and attitudes towards learning (Tasgin & Coskun, 2018). Within the context of English as a foreign language learning, it is also evident that academic motivation is one of the significant factors that may affect achievement in the target language (Tuan, 2012).

In other words, academic motivation makes foreign language learning a ‘complete process’ and provides a sense of empowerment (Dişlen Dağgöl, 2020). Moreover, since language learning takes a long time and intensive effort, learners need motivation and persistence (Christophel & Gorham, 1995). Within this scope, academic motivation fosters the learning process (Pourfeiz, 2016).

Research addresses various vital issues such as understanding the acquisition and learning processes, analyzing learner needs, and evaluating programs or language testing in the foreign language learning and teaching contexts (McDonough & McDonough, 1997). Since research methods in the EFL context are mainly influenced by some other disciplines such as Linguistics, Psychology, Sociology, Educational Sciences, and Information and Communication Technologies (Mackey & Gass, 2015), it is possible to reflect recent developments and innovations in the field of EFL teaching and learning. In addition, it is valuable to develop research skills for EFL teachers and learners to guarantee a high level of reflectivity and inquiry which will “promote and empower teaching through deeper exploration and critical reflection” (Dikilitaş & Bostancıoğlu, 2019, p. 9). In other words, research practice contributes to teachers and learners regarding awareness of their teaching and learning practices, developing a deeper “informed” understanding of experience through inductive thinking, and forming a “growth mindset” which will bring about flexibility and adaptability (Dikilitaş & Bostancıoğlu, 2019). In conclusion, it can be pointed out that developing research skills among EFL teachers and learners is vital for gaining reflective, transformative, and practical knowledge (Nassaji, 2012), “constructing their personal theories of practice” (Kumaravadivelu, 2003), and developing teaching and learning skills and classroom practices (Nassaji, 2012), as summarized by Griffiee (2012, p. 8):

“My approach to research is that it is not enough for me to know my way around classroom. I want to become aware of what I believe and why I believe it; I want to be able to create and construct my knowing, not (only) so I can become a more accomplished knower, but so I can be in charge of my doing which is teaching. That’s what I think research is all about.”

In brief, both academic motivation and research skills can be seen as inseparable elements of the EFL teaching and learning processes, as clarified above. On the other hand, current research shows that academic motivation and research skills as separate research topics did not attract researchers. Furthermore, whether academic motivation and research skills in the mentioned contexts relate to each other or not is a question that was not answered in the EFL research context, which can be noticed from the research synthesis given below. However, before presenting the literature review, a theoretical framework regarding academic motivation and research skills needs to be drawn.

### **Theoretical framework**

In the broadest sense, *motivation* is denoted as feeling the impetus or inspiration to act or to be moved to do (Ryan & Deci, 2000). First, within the scope of the Self-Determination Theory, Ryan and Deci (2000) define *intrinsic motivation* as doing an activity for its inherent satisfaction. Intrinsic motivation can be seen under three sub-drives. *Intrinsic motivation to know* directly relates to engaging in behavior for the enjoyment and satisfaction gained from learning; thus, it includes curiosity and intellectuality. *Intrinsic motivation toward accomplishments* includes engaging in behavior to accomplish a task and feel fulfilled or competent; thus, it is related to creating unique accomplishments. *Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation* relates to engaging in a behavior because of its perceived exciting and stimulating nature. The focus is on the pleasure in the process of learning regarding intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Second, Ryan and Deci (2000) define *extrinsic motivation* as conducting the behavior to attain some separable outcome. As for sub-drives, *external regulation*, the least autonomous type of extrinsic motivation, is linked to an external reward, external demand, or constraints. *Introjection regulation* is linked to avoiding guilt or anxiety, maintaining personal expectations, or attaining ego-enhancements. *Identification* is a self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, and it is linked to identifying with the personal importance or value of the act (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Third and last, amotivation is the lack of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In the case of amotivation, learners feel forced to act by external factors and remain passive (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Academic motivation, defined as “the factors that influence a person to attend school and obtain a degree” (Clark & Schroth, 2010, p. 19), is an academic context-specific form of motivation. Within the context of academic motivation, intrinsic motivation involves feeling happy and comfortable regarding learning-related tasks or assignments. *Intrinsic motivation to know* represents performing the activity for the pleasure of learning a new language. *Intrinsic motivation to accomplish* represents students’ interactions with the setting to feel competent, whereas *intrinsic motivation to experience* represents learners’ engagement in assignments and tasks. In the context of academic motivation, extrinsic motivation involves carrying tasks or responsibilities concerning obligations, teachers’ rules, and external rewards. *External regulation* represents learners’ acting to get external reinforcement such as an achievement certificate or a reward. In addition, *extrinsic motivation for introjected regulation* represents learners’ personalization of their learning-related reasons. *Extrinsic motivation for identified regulation* represents learners’ attributing value to their actions. Finally, *amotivation* represents the absence of any internal interest or desire and external factor (Vallerand et al., 1992).

Nunan (1992, p. 3) defines research as “a systematic process of inquiry consisting of three elements or components: a question, problem, or hypothesis, data, analysis, and interpretation of data”. Within this scope, the teacher or learner is expected to be equipped with basic research skills, including formulating a research question, reviewing the related literature, designing an appropriate methodology, choosing the right data collection tools and data analysis techniques, preparing a well-written report, and considering the ethical issues throughout this process (Dikilitaş & Bostancıoğlu, 2019). Therefore, the term *research skills* can be defined as the ability to formulate research questions, review the relevant literature, decide and design appropriate research types and designs, choose data collecting tools, analyze the data, and prepare a well-designed report.

### **Literature Review**

The results of a limited number of studies that focus on academic motivation in the EFL learning and teaching contexts show that academic motivation is related to

attitudes towards foreign language learning, metacognitive awareness, intrinsic motivation, positive emotions, language politeness, and achievement. Pourfeiz (2016) investigated the relationship between academic motivation and attitudes in a correlational study. The study concluded that behavioral and affective/evaluative components of attitudes were the strongest predictors of academic motivation. Chon and Shin (2019) focused on intraindividual differences in the patterns of students' motivational-metacognitive profiles regarding listening skills. In the study, four clusters identified regarding academic motivation were amotivated-translators, externally motivated, introjected, and high autonomous motivation-achievement strategists. In a descriptive study, Ariogul (2009) examined academic motivation among Turkish pre-service EFL teachers and found that intrinsic motivation was an indicator of academic performance. In addition, Méndez-Aguado et al. (2020) concluded that positive emotions positively influenced academic motivation. However, it should be noted that the mentioned study was conducted in the French as a foreign language context. In a cross-sectional study, Öz (2016) found that knowledge of cognition and regulations of cognition were the two significant components of metacognitive awareness that predicted academic motivation. In an experimental study, Mantasiah and Yusri (2018) noted that teacher's language politeness has a considerable role in improving learners' academic motivation. Erten (2014) found that student teachers were mostly extrinsically motivated. He also noted that achievement was positively correlated with extrinsic identified regulation and intrinsic motivation. Similarly, Kırkağaç and Öz (2017) noted that extrinsic motivation was significantly and positively correlated with academic achievement among EFL pre-service teachers. From the studies reviewed above, it can be drawn that attitudes towards language learning, intrinsic motivation, positive emotions, metacognitive awareness, teachers' language use, and achievement in the target language are the predictors of academic motivation. To conclude, it should be strongly underlined that no study was found on how research skills may affect or predict academic motivation in the EFL research context.

Similarly, the findings of a limited number of studies that appeared on research skills in the EFL learning and teaching contexts indicate that research skills may relate to certain variables such as course syllabi, methodology, teachers' research skills and content knowledge, target language proficiency, and scientific activities. For

instance, after observing the implementation process of a research component in a pre-service foreign language teaching program, Ferri and Wilches (2005) noted that course syllabi, methodology, and administration leadership affected teaching research skills. Vladimirovna Lopatina et al. (2015) aimed to investigate the role of foreign language teachers on EFL students' research skills and found that learning a foreign language might relate to teachers' research skills. In a qualitative study, Elmas and Aydin (2017) explored pre-service EFL teachers' perceptions of research skills. They found that research activities developed pre-service EFL teachers' content knowledge, research skills, and target language proficiency. Last, Imamovna Sokolova and Vasilovna Gilmutdinova (2019) focused on the influences of English lessons and students' scientific conferences on research skills. They concluded that participation in conferences improved research skills among EFL learners. In conclusion, from the studies reviewed, it can be inferred that research skills may be affected by certain factors such as course content, methodology, teachers' research skills, and target language proficiency. Nevertheless, no findings are reached regarding whether research skills and academic motivation in the EFL research context are interrelated or not.

As previously emphasized, the relationship between research skills and academic motivation was not investigated in the EFL research context. However, there occurred to be a study (Abu-Melhim et al., 2017) that focused on identifying the psychological factors that could affect academic research. This qualitative study found that the identified psychological factors were motivation, self-confidence, self-management, self-efficacy, and locus of control. In other words, while motivation seemed to be one of the factors, the focus of this study was the primary psychological factors that affected postgraduate students' research in English as a foreign language rather than the relationship between research skills and academic motivation.

### *Overview of the study*

As mentioned above, academic motivation is one of the most significant elements of the EFL learning process. Moreover, research skills can be vital in foreign language learning and teaching processes. However, the number of studies on academic

motivation is relatively limited. In other words, while the current studies focus on the relationship between academic motivation and certain predictors such as attitudes towards language learning, intrinsic motivation, positive emotions, metacognitive awareness, teachers' language use, and achievement, research skills are considered to be a predictor of academic motivation in the EFL research context. The number of studies on research skills is also fairly limited. While a very limited number of factors such as course content, methodology, teachers' research skills, and target language proficiency were investigated, academic motivation was not among the issues relating to research skills. Most importantly and dramatically, no study was found regarding whether research skills and academic motivation in the EFL research context were interrelated or not. Thus, whether or how academic motivation and research skills relate to each other is a question that remains unanswered. With these concerns in mind, the current study aims to explore whether or how academic research skills and academic motivation are related. For this purpose, the study seeks an answer to the following research question:

- Does developing research skills increase academic motivation among foreign language learners?

## **Method**

### ***Research Context***

The study was designed to be experimental to examine the effects of research skills on academic motivation among EFL learners. The rationale behind preferring experimental research is that it is concerned with studying the effects of specified and controlled treatments (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). In other words, a positivistic paradigm was preferred in the study, as it investigates observable behaviors that can be measured by using an experimental research design (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In other words, this positivistic paradigm includes groups, pre-test and post-test designs, and procedures for statistical analysis. Last, the effects of research skills on academic motivation among EFL learners were questioned through an experimental research design so that the researchers could keep a distance and act independently of the issue examined to deal with objectivity issues and bias (Mackey & Gass, 2015).

### *Participants*

Sixteen EFL learners participated in the study. The participants were third (n=8) and fourth-grade students (n=8) who were at the advanced level of English (B2) in the Department of English Language Teaching at 18 state and private universities in Turkey. The participants were 13 (81.25%) female and three (18.75%) male students. The gender distribution of the participants was a reflection of the overall population in the mentioned department. The mean score for their age was 22.38 in the range of 20 and 28. The rationale behind the subject selection was that all students voluntarily participated in a course entitled “A Course for Developing EFL Learners’ Research Skills” funded by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey. Finally, the course participants had the highest grade point average among 280 students who applied to the mentioned course.

### *Tools*

The data collection instruments consisted of a background questionnaire, an information test for measuring their knowledge of EFL research, and the Academic Motivation Scale. First, the background questionnaire was used to gather information about the participants’ age, gender, and grade. A numerical code was also used to match pre-test and post-test administrations. Second, the information test was used to determine the participants’ knowledge level on research in the EFL contexts. The test included items on the research paradigm, the preparation stages of research, reviewing the literature, the elements of foreign language research, research designs for foreign language research, data collection procedures, data analysis, and reporting research. The evaluation range changed between 0 and 10. Third, the College Version of the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS-C 28) developed by Vallerand et al. (1989) was used to determine the participants’ academic motivation levels. The AMS-C 28 consisted of 28 sets of statements. The respondents were expected to choose the statement that best described their motivation levels. The tool was used to assess seven types of constructs: intrinsic motivation towards knowledge, accomplishments, stimulation, external, introjected and identified regulations, and



amotivation. The internal consistency of the scale in Cronbach's Alpha was found to be .86. The scale accounted for 53% of variance (Vallerand et al., 1989).

### *Procedure*

Before the study, an ethics committee approval was obtained. Then, the participants were orally informed about the purpose, significance, and methodology of the study. The rationale behind the subject selection was clarified. They were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and that confidentiality and anonymity of their responses were ensured. Of the 20 students who were invited to the study, 16 voluntarily participated. Finally, an online version of the instruments was designed before the pre-test and post-test administrations and shared via Google Forms.

### *Pre-test administration*

Before the experiment, the pre-test consisting of the background questionnaire, information test, and AMS-C 28 was administered to 16 participants. One of the purposes of the pre-test was to collect data about their age, gender, and grade. The pre-test administration also aimed to determine the knowledge level of the participants about foreign language research and their academic motivation levels.

### *Instruction process*

Appendix A indicates the days, session, and lecturer numbers, hours assigned for each topic, the topics, the content of the instruction program, and the activities for practice. The program consisted of 13 independent sessions managed by 10 instructors who had Ph.D. degrees and were experienced in EFL research. The course topics consisted of theoretical information on the paradigm for foreign language research, the preparatory stages of foreign language research, contextualization of research, the components of research, qualitative research, descriptive research and experimental research, data and data collection procedures, analyzing the data, and reporting research. In each session, except for the introduction, presentation, and evaluation, an hour of guidance was provided for practice. Then, the students were assigned for the activities until the following session. Finally, they presented their studies after preparing small-scale research reports.

### *Post-test administration*

The post-test that consisted of the information test and AMS-C 28 was administered to the same participants. One reason for the post-test administration was to observe

whether the participants' knowledge level of foreign language research improved or not. The second reason was to see whether the levels of academic motivation increased or decreased.

### *Data Analysis*

The 21.0 version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used for data analysis. The frequency and percentage for gender and grade were computed. Then, the mean score for age was calculated. The reliability coefficients and percentages of variances for the information test and AMS-C 28 were found. As shown in Table 1, the reliability coefficients in Cronbach's Alpha for the information test were .95 for the pre-test and .94 for the post-test. The reliability coefficients in Cronbach's Alpha for the AMS-C 28 were found to be .92 for the pre-test and .87 for the post-test. In addition, the test-retest coefficients were .93 for the information test and .93 for the AMS-C 28. Percentages of variances for the information test were 72.77 for the pre-test and 84.97 for the post-test. Regarding AMS-C 28, percentages of variances were calculated as 92.08 for the pre-test and 92.48 for the post-test. To this end, the values indicated that both instruments obtained reliability and validity at a high level.

**Table 1.** The reliability coefficients and percentages of variances for the instruments

Tests	Instruments	Reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha)	Test-retest reliability	% of the variance
The Information Test	Pre-test	.95	.93	72.77
	Post-test	.94		84.97
AMS-C 28	Pre-test	.92	.93	92.08
	Post-test	.87		92.48

Since the number of participants in the study was 16, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, a non-parametric statistical test used to compare two related samples or repeated measurement on a single sample to assess whether the population mean ranks differ, was used to see whether the participants' knowledge level differentiated before and after the instruction process. Similarly, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was also preferred to observe whether their academic motivation levels differentiated before and after the course.

## Results

Table 2 shows the pre-test and post-test comparisons regarding EFL learners' information levels on foreign language research skills. According to the values in the table, EFL learners significantly improved their knowledge of the differences between scientific research and common sense productions, sources of knowledge, and research types ( $p=.00$ ). The participants also gained knowledge of the phenomena of foreign language, the four parameters for foreign language research ( $p=.00$ ), formulating research questions ( $p=.00$ ), and reviewing the literature ( $p=.00$ ). Planning foreign language research ( $p=.00$ ), qualitative, descriptive, multivariate, and correlational were some other issues that the participants significantly improved their knowledge ( $p=.00$ ). Moreover, they considerably raised their awareness of the components of experimental research and group designs ( $p=.00$ ). The students also learned data collection parameters and procedures, quality of data, data collection procedures ( $p=.00$ ), data analysis, and computer use for data analysis ( $p=.00$ ). Finally, they learned how to summarize, interpret, and report research results. To conclude, it can be stated that the instruction process considerably improved EFL learners' knowledge levels of foreign language research.

**Table 2.** Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test statistics<sup>a</sup> for the information test

Topics	Tests	Descriptive Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
Research and common sense	Pre-test	16	6.01	1.81	-3.42 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.31	0.87		
The paradigm of foreign language research	Pre-test	16	4.50	2.00	-3.53 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.13	0.72		
The preparation stages of foreign language research	Pre-test	16	5.38	2.16	-3.53 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.44	0.81		
Reviewing literature in foreign language research	Pre-test	16	5.63	1.82	-3.42 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.25	0.93		
The elements of foreign language research	Pre-test	16	5.25	1.88	-3.53 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.44	0.73		
Research designs for foreign language research	Pre-test	16	5.01	1.53	-3.54 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.25	0.93		
Data collection procedures	Pre-test	16	5.01	2.02	-3.53 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.38	0.72		
Data analysis	Pre-test	16	3.69	2.12	-3.53 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.00	1.10		
Reporting research	Pre-test	16	5.50	2.00	-3.54 <sup>b</sup>	.00
	Post-test	16	9.38	0.62		

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

Table 3 demonstrates the comparison of the pre-test and post-test regarding the constructs of academic motivation. The values showed that the level of intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation significantly increased after the instruction process ( $p=.02$ ). On the other hand, while the levels of intrinsic motivation towards knowledge ( $p=.33$ ), intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation ( $p=.11$ ), extrinsic motivation identified regulation ( $p=.08$ ), and extrinsic motivation introjected regulation ( $p=.70$ ), and extrinsic motivation - external regulation ( $p=.36$ ) increased, no significant difference was observed before and after the instruction on foreign language research. Similarly, the slight decrease in amotivation among the participants was not statistically significant ( $p=.83$ ). To be brief, when the constructs of academic motivation were considered, only the level of intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation significantly changed.

**Table 3.** Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test statistics<sup>a</sup> for the constructs of academic motivation

Constructs	Tests	Descriptive Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
Intrinsic motivation towards knowledge	Pre-test	16	6.53	0.48	-0.98 <sup>b</sup>	.33
	Post-test	16	6.72	0.48		
Intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment	Pre-test	16	5.78	0.99	-1.61 <sup>b</sup>	.11
	Post-test	16	6.34	0.67		
Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation	Pre-test	16	5.66	1.09	-2.26 <sup>b</sup>	<b>.02</b>
	Post-test	16	6.33	0.57		
Extrinsic motivation identified regulation	Pre-test	16	5.77	1.16	-1.74 <sup>b</sup>	.08
	Post-test	16	6.14	0.90		
Extrinsic motivation introjected regulations	Pre-test	16	4.47	1.89	-0.39 <sup>c</sup>	.70
	Post-test	16	4.22	2.10		
Extrinsic motivation - external regulation	Pre-test	16	5.22	1.34	-0.91 <sup>c</sup>	.36
	Post-test	16	4.88	1.47		
Amotivation	Pre-test	16	1.39	0.71	-0.21 <sup>c</sup>	.83
	Post-test	16	1.36	0.67		

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

c. Based on positive ranks.

While six of the constructs of academic motivation show significant improvement in academic motivation, seven items in the AMS-C 28 show considerable increase before and after the instruction process, as indicated in Appendix B. The values demonstrated that the pleasure experienced in discovering

new things ( $p=.01$ ) and learning about things they were interested in ( $p=.05$ ) significantly increased. Similarly, the pleasure of surpassing in their studies ( $p=.02$ ), personal satisfaction for excellence in their studies ( $p=.05$ ), communicating their ideas to others ( $p=.01$ ), the pleasure of reading ( $p=.05$ ), and finally, reading about various subjects ( $p=.02$ ) significantly increased after the instruction process. On the other hand, while their academic motivation levels increased regarding the remaining 21 items in the AMS-C 28, this positive change was not statistically significant.

### **Discussion and Conclusion**

According to the findings of this research which aims to explore whether developing research skills increases academic motivation among foreign language learners, two main conclusions can be drawn. The first conclusion is that the development of foreign language research skills increases intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation among language learners. The second conclusion is that while EFL learners' academic motivation levels positively change, being instructed on foreign language research does not significantly foster academic motivation, including the constructs such as intrinsic motivation towards knowledge, intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment, extrinsic motivation identified regulation, and extrinsic motivation introjected regulation, extrinsic motivation - external regulation, and amotivation. Within this scope, it can be concluded that EFL learners who have research skills have the pleasure and personal satisfaction of discovering new things, learning about things they are interested in, surpassing their studies, communicating their ideas to others, and reading about various subjects.

### ***Implications***

Not surprisingly, this study found that the instruction process considerably improved the EFL learners' knowledge levels of foreign language research. Similarly, Elmas and Aydin (2017) revealed that research activities developed pre-service EFL teachers' research skills along with some other skills. Imamovna Sokolova and Vasilovna Gilmudinova (2019) also concluded that participation in conferences improved research skills among EFL learners, which corresponds to the finding mentioned above. Although it was not a conference, the training process administered in the current study allowed the learners to get exposed to various

research samples, negotiate the research topics and designs with the professionals and their peers, and practice their research skills, which provided similar experiences to conference participation. Another conclusion that the development of foreign language research skills increases intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation among language learners is partially parallel with what Abu-Melhim et al. (2017) found in their more comprehensive qualitative study which addressed the primary psychological factors. In addition, regarding Erten's study (2014) which highlighted the correlation between achievement and extrinsic identified regulation and intrinsic motivation, it can be suggested that the sense of achievement experienced during the hands-on practical sessions of the instruction might have increased the EFL learners' intrinsic motivation. It is understood that EFL learners equipped with research skills have the pleasure and personal satisfaction for discovering new things, learning about things they are interested in, surpassing in their studies, communicating their ideas to others, and reading about various subjects. Considering the relation between academic motivation and attitudes (Méndez-Aguado et al., 2020; Pourfeiz, 2016), the above-mentioned increase can also be interpreted as a possible positive change in the attitudes with the training for academic skills. In other words, EFL learners who were trained for academic skills might have developed positive attitudes growing their academic motivation. Likewise, the training might have contributed to their metacognitive awareness, which could boost academic motivation as suggested by Chon and Shin (2019) and Öz (2016). On the other hand, this study showed that, despite the positive change in EFL learners' academic motivation levels, there is no significant effect of the instruction for research skills on the constructs of academic motivation such as intrinsic motivation towards knowledge, intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment, extrinsic motivation identified regulation, and extrinsic motivation introjected regulation, extrinsic motivation - external regulation, and amotivation. In conclusion, when the EFL research context is considered, there are too few correlational studies investigating motivation and academic achievement (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017) and only one qualitative study conducted by Abu-Melhim et al. (2017) dealing with research skills in relation to some psychological factors including motivation. Therefore, it is overt that this study is significant with its

findings since it has revealed the effects of instruction for academic skills on academic motivation and it has with certainty contributed to the related literature.

### ***Practical recommendations***

Within the scope of the conclusions reached in the study, several practical recommendations can be noted. First and in a general sense, as instruction on foreign language research skills increases intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation among language learners, issues relating to research skills should be integrated into language course programs. They should also be included in pre-service, and in-service teaching programs since effective research skills development in foreign language learners highly depends on their teacher's efficacy in research skills (Vladimirovna Lopatina et al., 2015). In this way, learners may work beyond what is expected to feel satisfaction. Teachers should also be aware of the importance of developing their students' research skills to ensure that their students fulfill their expectations. Similarly, program developers should integrate issues on research skills into language teaching programs. Moreover, issues like course syllabi, methodology, and administration leadership should be considered in this process since they are known to affect the research skills instruction considerably (Ferri & Wilches, 2005). Second, teachers should know that learners who gain research skills may have the pleasure of communicating their ideas to others. Speaking specifically, an increase in academic motivation may result in developing basic language skills and knowledge areas in the foreign language research context. Finally, a close and direct collaboration among researchers, teacher trainers, teachers, and students through small-scale research projects would increase academic motivation and contribute to the foreign language teaching and learning processes.

### ***Limitations and recommendations for further research***

Several limitations of the study can be noted. First, the scope of the study was confined to an experimental research design that used the pre-test and post-test administrations of a background questionnaire, an information test for measuring their knowledge on EFL research, and the College Version of the Academic Motivation Scale developed by Vallerand et al. (1989). Second, the participants were restricted to 16 EFL learners studying at various universities. As a note, it should be stated that the participants were those who were accepted among 280 students who

applied to the mentioned course that was implemented for the study by using their formal academic achievement scores. Thus, this might result in a high level of academic motivation among the participants. Third, the data included EFL learners' knowledge of research skills and academic motivation in the EFL research context.

Further research focusing on academic motivation among EFL learners who have a low level of achievement and language proficiency is warranted. In addition to experimental studies, it can be recommended that qualitative studies should be carried out for a deeper understanding of the relationship between research skills and academic motivation. Descriptive studies that use larger samples also seem necessary from a broader perspective. Finally, research skills and academic motivation in the EFL research context should be investigated in different educational settings and cultures to see the psychological, social, and cultural dimensions.

### Notes on the contributors

**Ferdane Denkci Akkaş (Ph.D.)** is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language Teaching at Istanbul Medeniyet University, Istanbul, Turkey.

**Işıl Tekin (Ph.D.)** is an assistant professor in the Department of Psychological Counselling and Guidance at the Faculty of Educational Sciences of Istanbul Medeniyet University, Istanbul, Turkey.

**Selami Aydın (Ph.D.)** is a professor in the Department of English Language Teaching at the Faculty of Educational Sciences of Istanbul Medeniyet University, Istanbul, Turkey.

### References

- Abu-Melhim, A. H., Abood, M. H., & Jezawi, H. K. (2017). Identifying primary psychological factors that affect post graduate students' research in English. *British Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 18(2), 95–101.
- Ariogul, S. (2009). Academic motivations of pre-service English language teachers. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 36, 12–19.
- Chon, Y. V., & Shin, T. (2019). Profile of second language learners' metacognitive awareness and academic motivation for successful listening: A latent class



- analysis. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 70, 62–75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2019.01.007>
- Christophel, D. M., & Gorham, J. (1995). A test-retest analysis of student motivation, teacher immediacy, and perceived sources of motivation and demotivation in college classes. *Communication Education*, 44(4), 292–306. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529509379020>
- Clark, M. H., & Schroth, C. A. (2010). Examining relationships between academic motivation and personality among college students. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 20(1), 19–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2009.10.002>
- Dikilitaş, K., & Bostancıoğlu, A. (2019). *Inquiry and research skills for language teachers*. Springer Nature.
- Dişlen Dağgöl, G. (2020). Perceived academic motivation and learner empowerment levels of EFL students in Turkish context. *Participatory Educational Research*, 7(3), 21–37. <https://doi.org/10.17275/per.20.33.7.3>
- Elmas, E., & Aydin, S. (2017). Pre-service foreign language teachers' perceptions of research skills: A qualitative study. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(12), 3088–3101. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2017.3194>
- Erten, İ. H. (2014). Interaction between academic motivation and student teachers' academic achievement. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 152, 173–178. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.09.176>
- Ferri, M. N., & Wilches, J. U. (2005). Evaluating research skills development in a Colombian undergraduate foreign language teaching program. *Íkala*, 10(1), 95–125.
- Green, J., Liem, G. A. D., Martin, A. J., Colmar, S., Marsh, H., & McInerney, D. (2012). Academic motivation, self-concept, engagement, and performance in high school: Key processes from a longitudinal perspective. *Journal of Adolescence*, 35(5), 1111–1122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2012.02.016>
- Griffiee, D. T. (2012). *An introduction to second language research methods*. TESL-EJ Publications.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In K. Lincoln & Y. S. Denzin (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105–118). Sage.
- Imamovna Sokolova, I., & Vasilovna Gilmudinova, I. (2019). Formation of the research skills of students during studying the foreign language (English) at the university. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews*, 7(6), 33–37. <https://doi.org/10.18510/hssr.2019.768>
- Kırkağaç, Ş., & Öz, H. (2017). The role of academic motivation in predicting preservice EFL teachers' achievement. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 13(2), 96–108.
- Kotera, Y., Conway, E., & Green, P. (2021). Construction and factorial validation of a short version of the Academic Motivation Scale. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2021.1903387>

- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. Yale University Press.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2015). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Routledge.
- Mantasiah, M., & Yusri, Y. (2018). The influence of teacher's language politeness in improving student's academic motivation. *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference of Asian Association of Indigenous and Cultural Psychology (ICAAIP 2017)*. <https://doi.org/10.2991/icaaip-17.2018.45>
- McDonough, J., & McDonough, S. (1997). *Research methods for English language teachers*. Routledge.
- Méndez-Aguado, C., Aguilar-Parra, J. M., Álvarez, J. F., Trigueros, R., & Fernández-Archilla, J. A. (2020). The influence of emotions, motivation and habits in the academic performance of primary education students in French as a foreign language. *Sustainability*, 12(6), 25–31. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12062531>
- Nassaji, H. (2012). The relationship between SLA research and language pedagogy: Teachers' perspectives. *Language Teaching Research*, 16(3), 337–365. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812436903>
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Öz, H. (2016). Metacognitive awareness and academic motivation: A cross-sectional study in teacher education context of Turkey. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 109–121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.035>
- Pourfeiz, J. (2016). A Cross-sectional study of relationship between attitudes toward foreign language learning and academic motivation. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 668–676. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.091>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54–67. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 141–166. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.141>
- Schunk, D. H. (2008). Metacognition, self-regulation, and self-regulated learning: Research recommendations. *Educational Psychology Review*, 20(4), 463–467. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-008-9086-3>
- Seliger, H. W., & Shohamy, E. (1989). *Second language research methods*. Oxford University Press.

- Tasgin, A., & Coskun, G. (2018). The Relationship between academic motivations and university students' attitudes towards learning. *International Journal of Instruction*, *11*(4), 935–950. <https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2018.11459a>
- Tuan, L. T. (2012). An empirical research into EFL learners' motivation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(3), 430–439. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.3.430-439>
- Vallerand, R. J., Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M., & Pelletier, L. G. (1989). Construction and validation of the scale of motivation in education. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, *21*(3), 323–349. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0079855>
- Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G., Blais, M. R., Briere, N. M., Senecal, C., & Vallieres, E. F. (1992). The Academic Motivation Scale: A measure of intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation in education. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *52*(4), 1003–1017. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164492052004025>
- Vladimirovna Lopatina, O., Mikhailovich Borisov, A., Ilyinichna Leyfa, I., Iskhakovna Galimzyanova, I., Pavlovna Yatsevich, L., Alexandrovna Demyanenko, M., & Rafisovna Masalimova, A. (2015). Role of foreign language teacher shaping students' research skills. *Asian Social Science*, *11*(4), 135–140. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v11n4p135>

**Appendix A. The instruction process**

Days	Session	Hours	Lecturers	Topics	Content	Practice
1	1	2	1	Introducing the course	Meeting students and lectures Introducing the program Introducing the course content	
	2	2	2	Foreign language research	Research as a natural process Common sense and scientific research Sources of knowledge Research types	Discussing the relationship between real life and scientific research Sampling common sense and scientific products
2	3	2	3	A Paradigm for foreign language research	Research and the phenomena of foreign language Four parameters for foreign language research Synthetic and analytic approaches Heuristic and deductive objectives Control and manipulation of the research context Data and data collection	Evaluating three research papers in accordance with the foreign language research paradigm
	4	2	3	The preparatory stages of foreign language research	Formulating research question The general question Focusing the question Deciding on a purpose Formulating the research plan	Formulating a research question
3	5	2	4	Contextualization of research	The what and why of contextualization Locating the sources for the literature review Organizing and reporting the review of literature	Reviewing five research papers
	6	2	5	The components of research	The need for a plan The research plan and the type of research Types of data and variables Making the research more effective Validity	Determining the variables
4	7	2	6	Qualitative and descriptive research	Qualitative research Descriptive research Multivariate and correlational research	Deciding on the research design
	8	2	7	Experimental research	The components of experimental research Single group designs	

**Does developing research skills increase academic motivation among foreign language learners?**

---

					Designs using control groups Factorial designs Quasi-experimental designs Separate sample designs	
5	9	2	8	Data and data collection procedures	Data collection parameter Data collection procedures Quality of the data Using, adapting, and developing data collection procedures	Deciding on data collection tools Collecting data from the participants
	10	2	9	Analyzing the data	Data analysis and the design of the study Using the computer for data analysis	Analyzing the data via SPSS
6	11	2	10	Reporting research	Summarizing and interpreting the results Reporting research	Preparing a research report
	12	1	7	Presentations	Oral presentations of the participants' products	
	13	1	8	Evaluating the program	Oral presentations on the evaluation of the program	

## Appendix B. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test statistics<sup>a</sup> for academic motivation

Constructs	Items	Tests	Descriptive Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
			N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
Intrinsic motivation towards knowledge	2. Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.	Pre-test	16	6.44	0.73	-1.51 <sup>c</sup>	.13
		Post-test	16	6.56	1.26		
	9. For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never seen before.	Pre-test	16	6.50	0.63	-2.45 <sup>c</sup>	<b>.01</b>
		Post-test	16	6.88	0.34		
	16. For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.	Pre-test	16	6.69	0.50	0.00 <sup>d</sup>	1.00
		Post-test	16	6.56	1.26		
	23. Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.	Pre-test	16	6.50	0.63	-1.90 <sup>c</sup>	<b>.05</b>
		Post-test	16	6.88	0.34		
Intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment	6. For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies.	Pre-test	16	5.69	1.01	-2.34 <sup>c</sup>	<b>.02</b>
		Post-test	16	6.50	0.73		
	13. For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments.	Pre-test	16	5.81	1.52	-1.39 <sup>c</sup>	.17
		Post-test	16	6.31	1.08		
	20. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.	Pre-test	16	5.69	1.40	-1.22 <sup>c</sup>	.22
		Post-test	16	6.06	0.99		
	27. Because college allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.	Pre-test	16	5.94	1.06	-2.01 <sup>c</sup>	<b>.05</b>
		Post-test	16	6.50	0.52		
Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation	4. For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas to others.	Pre-test	16	5.63	1.31	-2.56 <sup>c</sup>	<b>.01</b>
		Post-test	16	6.50	0.73		
	11. For the pleasure that I experience when I read interesting authors.	Pre-test	16	5.95	1.29	-1.94 <sup>c</sup>	<b>.05</b>
		Post-test	16	6.50	0.52		
18. For the pleasure that I experience when I feel completely absorbed by what certain authors have written.	Pre-test	16	5.19	1.52	-1.354 <sup>c</sup>	.18	
	Post-test	16	5.81	1.33			
25. For the "high" feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects.	Pre-test	16	5.88	1.09	-2.31 <sup>c</sup>	<b>.02</b>	
	Post-test	16	6.50	0.82			
Extrinsic motivation identified	3. Because I think that a college education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.	Pre-test	16	6.25	1.24	-0.78 <sup>c</sup>	.44
		Post-test	16	6.44	1.31		
	10. Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like.	Pre-test	16	6.00	1.46	-0.18 <sup>b</sup>	.85
		Post-test	16	5.69	1.82		
	17. Because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	Pre-test	16	6.31	0.87	-0.33 <sup>b</sup>	.74
		Post-test	16	6.25	1.06		
	24. Because I believe that a few additional years of education will improve my competence as a worker.	Pre-test	16	5.38	2.03	-1.88 <sup>c</sup>	.06
		Post-test	16	6.19	1.05		
Extrinsic motivation introjected	7. To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my college degree.	Pre-test	16	3.94	2.17	-0.04 <sup>c</sup>	.97
		Post-test	16	3.70	2.47		
	14. Because of the fact that when I succeed in college I feel important.	Pre-test	16	4.69	2.24	-0.40 <sup>b</sup>	.69
		Post-test	16	4.31	2.39		

**Does developing research skills increase academic motivation among foreign language learners?**

	21. To show myself that I am an intelligent person.	Pre-test	16	3.81	2.23		
		Post-test	16	3.56	2.53	-0.21 <sup>b</sup>	.83
	28. Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies.	Pre-test	16	5.44	1.82		
		Post-test	16	5.31	1.89	-0.51 <sup>b</sup>	.61
Extrinsic motivation external regulation	1. Because with only a high-school degree I would not find a high-paying job later on.	Pre-test	16	4.31	2.09		
		Post-test	16	4.00	2.16	-0.67 <sup>b</sup>	.50
	8. In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.	Pre-test	16	5.56	1.50		
		Post-test	16	5.13	2.06	-0.63 <sup>b</sup>	.53
	15. Because I want to have "the good life" later on.	Pre-test	16	5.88	1.15		
		Post-test	16	5.50	1.55	-0.93 <sup>b</sup>	.35
	22. In order to have a better salary later on.	Pre-test	16	5.13	1.67		
		Post-test	16	4.81	1.56	-0.54 <sup>b</sup>	.59
Amotivation	5. Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school.	Pre-test	16	1.25	0.77		
		Post-test	16	1.56	1.55	-0.82 <sup>c</sup>	.41
	12. I once had good reasons for going to college; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.	Pre-test	16	1.81	1.72		
		Post-test	16	1.56	1.55	-0.53 <sup>b</sup>	.60
	19. I can't see why I go to college and frankly, I couldn't care less.	Pre-test	16	1.19	0.54		
		Post-test	16	1.25	0.68	-1.00 <sup>c</sup>	.32
	26. I don't know; I can't understand what I am doing in school.	Pre-test	16	1.31	1.01		
		Post-test	16	1.06	0.25	-0.82 <sup>b</sup>	.41

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

c. Based on positive ranks.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

**Professional identity of language teacher trainees during practicum: A metaphor analysis**

Burcu Turhan

Hatay Mustafa Kemal University, Turkey/Contact: [burcuturhan@mku.edu.tr](mailto:burcuturhan@mku.edu.tr) 

**Abstract**

Teachers may face dilemmas when they realize certain discrepancies between theory and practice throughout their career. Especially for teacher trainees, such dilemmatic spaces may be beneficial in uncovering multiple identities developing and being shaped especially during practicum. More specifically, the most frequent discrepancy could be between the desire to explore one's own teacher identity and to please mentors and supervisors. Therefore, teacher training programs should provide spaces for teacher trainees to reflect and analyze those dilemmas so that they could develop their teacher professional identity (TPI) in an unproblematic and smooth manner. To this end, this study involved twelve senior English teacher trainees into a five-week process when they expressed their growing professional identities through metaphorical discourse within the scope of Teaching Practice I course. The thematic analyses of the elicited metaphors revealed vital hints about the TPI of language teacher trainees. Besides, the place and importance of metaphors for understanding TPI were discussed in the context of teacher education.

**Keywords**

Teacher identity, language teachers, practicum, metaphors.

**Submission date**

21.07.2022

**Acceptance date**

23.10.2022

© 2022 The Literacy Trek & the Authors – Published by The Literacy Trek

**APA Citation**

Turhan, B. (2022). Professional identity of language teacher trainees during practicum: A metaphor analysis. *The Literacy Trek*, 8(2), 165-185. <https://doi.org/10.47216/literacytrek.1146806>

**Introduction**

Identity, regarded as a useful analytical tool to shed light into the connection between schooling and society (Gee, 2000), is also central to educational research as the concept of teacher identity and a distinct area of study (Beijaard et al., 2004). Searching for the components of teacher identity creates social awareness of various aspects of teaching and the meaning of being a teacher (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). As well as in general education, teacher identity has been acknowledged as an essential issue in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Specifically, teacher identity is of particular importance since one needs to understand language teaching in order to understand teachers; and in order to understand teachers, one needs to have a



clear idea of who they really are (Varghese et al., 2005). In both the initial teacher education period and teaching career, the construction of TPI has drawn the attention of numerous scholars (Beijaard et al., 2004; Cameron & Grant, 2017; Izadinia, 2015; Zhang et al., 2016). The focal point in these periods is the fact that TPI is not a static attribute throughout teacher training for teacher trainees; instead, the development of the practicing teachers' career is a dynamic, active and constant process when they make sense of experiences (Gracia et al., 2022; Rodrigues et al., 2018). Such an on-going and changing process generates diversity in each teacher's conception of teaching and teacher actions (Garner & Kaplan, 2019). Learning to teach is a complex phase which each teacher goes through, and it includes an interaction between personal values and professional demands of teaching (Leeferink et al., 2019). In order to prevent the identity crisis which is possible as a result of this complex phase, we need to understand the factors influencing the teacher identity in an attempt to strengthen the teaching profession. Regarded as an identity making process (Schaefer & Clandinin, 2019), teacher learning is much more than learning subject matter, pedagogical knowledge and skills or teaching/learning theories. For that reason, how teacher trainees perceive teacher practices and attitudes is a vital question to be answered by the scholars. As a way to reveal those teacher practices and attitudes, teachers negotiate and discuss their conceptualizations and previous knowledge of the teaching profession; in other words, they reflect on their teacher roles (Clarke et al., 2017; Lim, 2011). In this sense, learning to teach should be acknowledged as a phase of teacher identity construction (Capps et al., 2012). Herein, metaphors are a tool for "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p.5) and have been recognized as a means for teachers to become aware of their own beliefs and/or work in relation to teaching (Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011). Metaphors expressed by teachers concerning their identities are well-reported in the relevant literature (e.g. Alger, 2009; Farrell, 2011; Ma & Gao, 2017; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011; Zhao et al., 2010). Depending on the well-known significance of metaphors for understanding teacher identity, the current study aims to examine how language teacher trainees conceptualize their roles as future teachers by expressing themselves via metaphorical discourse. To this end, I provided the language teacher trainees to engage in writing critical reports around certain topics based on their experiences during the practicum. In addition, I asked them to portray their teacher

identities with a specific metaphor for each topic and, within the scope of this study, the analyses were solely dependent on these metaphors produced by the language teacher trainees. Thus, this study considerably contributed to the relevant literature by making it possible to draw deeper inferences about initial perceived identities of the language teacher trainees.

### **Literature Review**

Language teachers are recently recognized as active agents who integrate their professional, sociocultural and sociopolitical perspectives and beliefs to classroom dynamics (Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Nguyen, 2016; Varghese et al., 2005). Such a shift toward a sociocultural perspective leads researchers to regard the concept of identity as a core constituent of language learning and teaching (Miller, 2009). By definition, in practical terms, identity is a reflection of how people view themselves and how they perform their roles within different settings (Burns & Richards, 2009). Specifically in the field of language teaching, teacher identity is more likely to be fully understood as a result of the analysis of its characteristics (Varghese et al., 2005); which can be listed as: “Identity is multiple, shifting and in conflict; related to social, cultural and political contexts; being constructed, maintained and negotiated basically through discourse.” That is to say, language teacher identity is shaped from multiple changing and conflicting variables such as personal, professional, social, historical and cultural variables. This means that language teachers are not already equipped with a well-constructed identity from birth; rather, their identity results from their engagement with the sociocultural contexts in which they take place. From this perspective, it is obvious that language teachers develop their identities through discourse in a similar manner with general education teachers. However, language teachers’ specific discourses possess characteristics which correspond to the three themes listed above by Varghese et al. (2005). The first two characteristics are pertaining to the position of non-native teachers and the status of the language-teaching profession. The third characteristic refers to the fact that language teaching is accepted as a marginalized profession, leading to the instability of teachers’ practices

and lives. This marginalization may make it more complex than predicted to understand and investigate language teacher identity.

Considering the scope of this study, it is necessary to know how language teacher trainees understand the TPI concept with its influencing factors. In a recent study, teacher trainees are inclined to make sense of TPI as a transformative process which is full of ups and downs (Leeferink et al., 2019). They also tend to associate TPI to diverse variables that may be helpful for them to maximize their commitment and develop identity towards the teaching profession (Izadinia, 2015). This identity construction process is a steady step for some teacher trainees who could easily combine concepts and practices from different contexts in their daily life because they do not have an internal debate about their teacher selves (Olsen, 2008; Leeferink et al., 2019). Such teacher trainees' characteristic features include the knowledge of teaching strategies, communication strategies with their colleagues and being self-critical in their work (Salazar & McCluskey, 2017). Yet, there are also trainee teachers who have to cope with different confusions, crises and tensions (Meijeer et al., 2011). In such circumstances, these rough times may be concerned with lack of motivation and commitment (Rodrigues & Mogarro, 2019) or lack of intrinsic motivation towards teaching (Leeferink et al., 2019). However, it is possible for teachers to experience an inspiring incident when they are capable of motivating themselves back (Meijer et al., 2011).

As an intellectual tool to explore a range of teaching aspects, metaphors may be conceptualized as a powerful way for providing teachers to express the meaning of being a teacher more profoundly. Those specific teaching aspects can be listed as teachers' beliefs about teaching (Alger, 2009), professional knowledge (Zhao et al., 2010) and identity (Farrell, 2011; Ma & Gao, 2017; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011). Most particularly, metaphors have been acknowledged as the roots of teacher identity (Saban, 2006) and provide insight into teachers' practices over their career and life span. Beyond that, the analyses of teachers' metaphorical expressions inform teacher education in general and language teacher education in particular (Ma & Gao, 2017). Moreover, metaphors have the capacity to represent the notable characteristics of language teaching (Ma & Gao, 2017; Zhao et al., 2010). For instance, one of the metaphors used by language teachers points to the role of acculturator (Farrell, 2011); and such a role of intercultural mediator is enacted by understanding students' native

cultures and facilitating students to adapt themselves to the target culture. In order to reach out this sort of metaphors and to deeply understand the multifaceted nature of teacher identity, metaphors are possibly a relevant vehicle to investigate TPI during both pre-service and in-service teacher training.

## **Method**

### ***Research design***

This research was designed as a phenomenological study with the intent of analyzing perceived or experienced phenomena (Flynn & Korcuska, 2018). The focused phenomenon in this study was the metaphorical expressions of teacher identity produced by language teacher trainees during practicum. Phenomenological research, which was originally developed by von Bertalanffy in 1928, is based on general systems theory on the whole. Von Bertalanffy argued that all phenomena contained patterns that created a system and the common patterns within the system provided greater insight into the phenomenon (Drack, 2009). For this reason, the current study was an attempt to scrutinize the mental schema and conceptual system of teacher trainees in terms of identity in the course of teaching practices accompanied by reflective observations of language classes. With this in mind, the participants experienced a seven-week adaptation period when they were expected to carry out unstructured observations and mini-teachings along with their familiarization with the school procedures and their mentors at practicum schools. Following this, their task was to write critical evaluations about specific topics assigned by their supervisor. Most importantly, they were requested to share their views toward their newly-developed identities through metaphors during five weeks. Throughout the whole semester, the participants and their supervisor came together in order to debate their growing professional identities at regular intervals.

### ***Participants***

The participants of the study were twelve teacher trainees (10 females and 2 males) majoring in English language teaching at a public university in Turkey. All did not have any teaching experiences except for micro-teachings conducted in foreign

language teaching methodology courses. They were all senior students who completed core teacher training courses such as English language teaching approaches, linguistics, language acquisition, teaching language skills, language and literature teaching, teaching English to young learners and so forth. At the time of the study, they took part in Teaching Practice I course throughout one semester (12 weeks). Within this course, they attended practicum schools so that they could have a chance to put their theoretical knowledge into practice in real language classes. Six of them attended a public high school and six of them attended a public primary school as trainee teachers. The convenient sampling strategy was employed for the participant selection. Indeed, the participants were all the first individuals involved in this Teaching Practice I course which was integrated into the new English language teaching curriculum. This new curriculum was introduced and applied in 2018 for the first time and the Teaching Practice I course was instructed in a renewed procedure. The different feature of this course is the involvement of real teaching practices in the syllabus of this fall term course, rather than merely requiring teacher trainees to conduct observations as in the previous version of this course named as the School Experience.

#### *The data collection tool and analysis*

The data were gathered using a set of guiding questions (see Appendix) prepared by the author who was the participants' supervisor. Each week, the participants were introduced a new topic so that they could perform observations of both their mentors' and their own teachings. Namely, the task contained reflections on practices and behaviors of the mentor on one hand; and the trainee teachers' self-evaluations. Weekly topics were determined as *Lesson Preparation*, *Building Background*, *Providing Comprehensible Input*, *Strategies and Interaction*, *Application and Assessment* respectively. In light of their reflective evaluations about those topics, each participant was asked to think of and create their own metaphors per week. At the very beginning of the process, they were given specific information about the concept of metaphor through examples and asked to complete this sentence "*This week, my professional identity resembles to/is like ..... because .....*".

As the whole data were qualitative in its nature, thematic analysis from an inductive perspective (Guest et al., 2012) underpinned the data analysis in this study.

Firstly, the reports were read over and over again; and secondly, coded for metaphors accompanied by the interrelating explanations. After determining those initial codes, thirdly, themes were elicited and reviewed iteratively. During all the phases, the ultimate purpose was to search for the most important or interesting patterns by making sense of the data rather than merely summarizing it. Each week's reports were analyzed in its own right and the reports of the participants from the primary school and high school context were analyzed separately. The reason for this was that the differing topics of each week and the age and level of students in different school contexts might have an impact upon the content/nature of metaphors created by the trainee teachers. The database which was full of seventy three metaphoric expressions and twelve umbrella metaphors was approximately thirty pages long in total. These detected metaphors as a result of the analyses were supported with the prominent excerpts.

To ensure and increase the trustworthiness of the study, direct quotations from the participants' metaphorical expressions were reported (Roberts & Priest, 2006) in the findings section. The whole data were coded twice by the author to test the intra-coder reliability of the research. Agreement on the two occasions of coding was calculated using the Miles and Huberman's formula (1994), which yielded 91% consistency. Further, the finalized umbrella metaphors were evaluated by an independent researcher who placed the individual metaphors in appropriate umbrella metaphor categories. Joint decisions and consensus between the two coders were provided.

## **Findings**

The participant teacher trainees produced seventy three metaphors, all of which were categorized under twelve umbrella metaphors. Indeed, the logical foundations or justifications for using each specific metaphor can also be understood from the connections between metaphors and umbrella metaphors as illustrated in Table 1 below:

**Table 1.**The umbrella metaphors and the corresponding metaphors expressed by the participants

No	Umbrella metaphors	Metaphors	
		Primary school context	High school context
1	Knowledge reflector	Sun, language switch, dictionary, tourist guide, parrot, lamp, candle, book	Treasure chest, candle, light, sycamore, stove, dictionary, torch, book, light bulb, brainy smurf
2	Nurturer	Florist, mother, sister, playmate	Florist, water, mother, family, parent, father
3	Director	Rainbow, tour guide, compass, runner, navigator, router, mirror	Life coach, problem solver, guide, shepherd, alarm clock
4	Molder	Enterpriser, builder, gardener, designer, corrector	Pencil, gardener, farmer, sculpture
5	Authority figure	Soldier, lion, superhero	Lion, queen
6	Exertive	Bee, ant	Apple worm, ant
7	Researcher	Cameraman, explorer, binocular	Explorer, scientist
8	Artist	Narrator, speaker, comedian, actor/actress, entertainer, clown	Speaker, actor/actress, newscaster
9	Democrat	-	Ruler
10	Judger	-	Lady justice
11	Healer	Emotional spark	Angel
12	Novice linguist	Young bird, sprouting flower	Empty paper, turtle, young bird, tourist, small tree, student, sprouting flower

As summarized in Table 1, the analyses of metaphors are separately presented for primary school and high school contexts as the participants attended different type of practicum schools at the time of the study. Overall, it is clear that the participants associated their teacher identities with some “traditional teacher roles” such as being knowledge reflector (presenting new knowledge to students), director (leading students toward the right track), molder (shaping students), authority figure (being a power owner in the classroom), democrat (determining the rules in the classroom) and healer (providing emotional support). Considering the remaining metaphors, the participants built relations between teacher identity and such roles as nurturer (meeting the needs of students), exertive (being a hardworking instructor), researcher (discovering problematic issues), artist (being a performer on the stage), judger (providing equity among students) and novice linguist (being a newcomer in the teaching profession). In the following section, the detailed analyses of each umbrella metaphor are explained.

### *Umbrella metaphor 1: Knowledge reflector*

This category is represented with various metaphors such as sun, dictionary, book, treasure chest, brainy smurf, candle and so on. There are some common metaphors (book, dictionary, candle) elicited from both the participants who attended a primary school and a high school. Based on these, it is obvious that the participants conceptualized themselves as an inspiring source of knowledge and the duty of language teachers is to transfer the necessary knowledge to students. In other words, the participants perceive that language teachers should extend students' knowledge system in a professional way. The following excerpt exemplifies the brainy smurf metaphor which is examined under this category.

*Brainy smurf:* "This week, my professional identity resembles to the brainy smurf because I was goal-oriented and knew exactly what to do. I was well-prepared for my teaching session and had to teach all the knowledge about the topic including both the content and linguistic information. Most importantly, I was successful in answering all the questions of students. I only had little hesitations while answering. My efforts of being self-confident in front of the students made me feel happy." (P9, Week 4)

### *Umbrella metaphor 2: Nurturer*

In this category, the revealed metaphors are florist, mother, sister, parent and so forth. The common meaning that can be inferred from all these metaphors, from the eyes of the participants, refers to the idea that language teachers should always take students' individual needs, interests and differences into account. Namely, the participants emphasize that a language teacher's role should be to organize a positive learning environment so that students could emotionally and intellectually grow. Thus, they believe that teachers should ease students' language learning difficulties like a family member. Moreover, most of the metaphors put under both primary and high school contexts are the same (see Table 1) and the below excerpt indicates the parent metaphor that can be directly associated with this category.

*Parent:* "This week, my professional identity resembles to parents because I was supportive and helpful all the time. I was very willing to support the students in



every sense. When I felt that my students had difficulties in learning the content or lost their motivation, I made every effort to help them learn. I think I was in the mood of distributing parental love to each student.” (P7, Week 5)

### *Umbrella metaphor 3: Director*

This category includes the metaphors of rainbow, compass, mirror, guide, shepherd, all of which pinpoint to the conceptualization of language teachers as a guide who gives instructions and directions to students. In return for this, students are responsible for receiving and following the instructions. In contrast to the teacher identity as knowledge reflector, the director metaphor shows that the participants are of the opinion that teachers should be the seatmates of their students along the learning road instead of being a source of knowledge. That is, in an English classroom, students are not passive receivers of knowledge from their teachers; instead, they make language practices under the supervision of their teachers. The following excerpt is an explanatory representation of this category.

*Rainbow:* “The ideal metaphor for me is rainbow because I bring colorful knowledge keys that each student of mine is inspired from. I know that each student’s preference for colorful keys is always related to their individual needs, interests and differences. I mean I only lead them in the learning adventure and they are totally free to choose their own way; in other words, their own color” (P2, Week 1)

### *Umbrella metaphor 4: Molder*

The example metaphors represented under this category can be listed as builder, gardener, farmer, designer and so forth. Language teachers have the role of transforming raw students into matured individuals in emotional and intellectual terms. That is, the participants highlight that a language teacher should teach for the purpose of raising students who will become broad-visioned citizens. As is clear in the following excerpt, shaping and molding students are a crucial part of language teachers’ professional identity.

*Farmer:* “The learning period is a season and I am the farmer who waits for her fruits to grow. I am working hard in order to help my little fruits, my students, become ripe fruits. During the whole season, we study both content and world knowledge to fully grow.” (P6, Week 2)

### *Umbrella metaphor 5: Authority figure*

Within this category, it is possible to encounter such metaphors as soldier, queen, lion and superhero. Language teachers are expected to be authoritative in the classroom to a certain degree. This is necessary in order to be a forceful and effective teacher especially with regard to teaching skills and maintaining a steady and trustworthy stance towards students. The lion metaphor emphasized in both primary and high school contexts nicely refers to the need for language teachers to have a certain power in the classroom.

*Lion:* “I feel myself like a lion in the classroom. I have a good command of English language and I am the king of the jungle and the classroom is my jungle. Therefore, one of my roles is to manage the classroom and I do this like a lion who is the king of the jungle.” (P5, Week 2)

### *Umbrella metaphor 6: Exertive*

Under this category, the metaphors of bee, ant, and apple worm are placed. As understood, the participants find making effort and working hard for the teaching profession as vital. The participants believe that they are obliged to undertake too many responsibilities and roles as future language teachers. The reason behind those multiple roles is most probably related to the fact that language teaching expertise holds a great number of dimensions. To exemplify, teachers should be able to always renew themselves with regard to teaching skills, pedagogical knowledge, educational technologies, classroom management and even more so that they could more easily keep up with the professional requirements of today’s global educational arena. The metaphor below can be regarded as a relevant representation of such a necessity verbalized by one of the participants.

*Ant:* “This week, I am like an ant. I have worked diligently so that I could be more decisive in the classroom rules, more serious in my attitudes toward students and more focused on my teaching skills.” (P10, Week 3)

### *Umbrella metaphor 7: Researcher*

The metaphors of explorer, scientist, cameraman and binocular which belong to this category show that the participants assign themselves the role of discovering

problematic issues in their own teaching settings. That is to say, language teachers should be able to conduct small-scale research on the topics which they are curious about with the intent of improving the teaching quality and maximize student learning. It is apparent that language teachers need to have a spirit of exploring things as is evident in the following excerpt.

*Cameraman:* “Cameraman. I'm constantly recording what is going on in the class like a cameraman. In this way, I can realize the problems in relation to tasks, instructions or students behaviors; and I have the chance to immediately do what is needed as the teacher.” (P9, Week 1)

#### ***Umbrella metaphor 8: Artist***

This category includes the artistic aspects of the language teaching and the related metaphors are defined as comedian, actor/actress, clown, and newscaster and so on. It seems that the participants believe that students will find joy in learning if they blend an artistic component with language teaching. In addition, language teachers can deliver the content through art activities in more creative ways and this is an inevitable part of their professional identity. One of the representative metaphor of this category is related to integrating humor into English classes as clarified in the following excerpt.

*Comedian:* “This week, my professional identity resembles to the presenter of a stand-up show because I made some jokes to make my sweet learners to laugh especially when I realized that their attention was low. In the end; they enjoyed, I enjoyed and the lesson was full of joy.” (P5, Week 3)

#### ***Umbrella metaphor 9: Democrat***

Only one participant who attended a high school during the practicum mentioned language teachers as democrats. She enacted her roles as a rule-maker in the language classroom. While they are making the rules, they believe that students should also have a right to share their own opinions in a stress-free classroom atmosphere. Such a procedure may make it possible to design a democratic/liberal space where there is a dialogic relationship between students and teachers. Joint decisions should be made; and for this, teachers should be open to students' feedback on the classroom rules. In terms of student roles, this metaphor indicates that students do not obey teachers without questioning. That is, democrat teachers do not simply comply with the

regulations and their students do not passively receive any rule presented to them. The following excerpt explains all these in detail.

*Ruler:* “Today, I had to re-announce the classroom rules just like a ruler and I could not teach in a smooth way because my focus was on the flaws I detected. Throughout the lesson, I had to set up certain rules about student behaviors and tasks.” (P10, Week 3)

### ***Umbrella metaphor 10: Judge***

Just like the democrat metaphor, one single metaphor is defined as Lady Justice within this category. Based on the data elicited from one participant who attended a high school during practicum, it can be inferred that language teachers need to make judgments in the course of lessons particularly when there are breakdowns or interruptions in their teaching. These interruptions are possibly linked to classroom management problems. Specifically, language teachers may not be ready for unexpected classroom management problems and thus, it becomes much harder for them to make right decisions or judgments. Striving to deal with student disputes, conflicts or disagreements can be overwhelming for language teacher for most of the time; for that reason, they should find ways for providing equity among students. The following metaphor indicates that being a judge should be a part of language teachers’ professional identity.

*Lady Justice:* “To provide students with a quality education that they deserve regardless of their race, language, religion or gender, everyone should have equal opportunities. With this notion in my mind, I was like a Lady Justice. Indeed, I tried to be a Lady Justice.” (P12, Week 1)

### ***Umbrella metaphor 11: Healer***

This category is represented with the metaphors of emotional spark and angel. Depending on these two metaphors, students are regarded as patients and the duty of language teachers is to appropriately treat students so that they could get rid of their deficiencies or mistakes. However, the dominant cure that teachers should provide seems to help students fix their sensitive inner problems if necessary and at critical moments. This role of healer is considered to be important for language teachers as a

strategy to make students emotionally ready for language learning. The excerpt below exemplifies the healer identity attached to language teachers.

*Angel:* “I have a heart of gold this week. My professional identity is like an angel with soothing wings because my all effort was for making students feel better and more positive.” (P3, Week 5)

### ***Umbrella metaphor 12: Novice linguist***

The participants from a high school context appear to stress that they are novice linguists more frequently. Obviously, the participants perceive themselves as being at the beginner level in terms of teaching skills and are just taking their first steps for the teaching career. They believe that there are many teaching experiences for them to gain and the practicum process is the starting point of all these experiences. Besides, there are some participants who define themselves as a stranger in the classroom context, which means that there is still a lot to learn for these future language teachers. Some of the metaphors expressing this category are turtle, empty paper, tourist and sprouting flower.

*Turtle:* “This week, my personal identity resembles to a turtle because I was inexperienced and very slow in improving myself as a future teacher. Sometimes, it was really hard for me not to know what to do in some situations. I feel that the development of my teaching skills will take a long time. This idea affects my mood negatively.” (P4, Week 2)

## **Discussion and Conclusions**

The aim of this study was to reveal how language teacher trainees conceptualized the teaching profession and being a teacher during their initial teaching practices within the practicum experience. Their conceptualizations were discovered through metaphors utilized as a tool for understanding how they perceived their current professional identities. The thematic analysis showed that the teacher trainees assigned certain traditional roles to themselves such as knowledge reflector, director, molder, authority figure, democrat and healer. Similar results were also found by Karabay (2016) who examined the metaphoric expressions of Turkish language teacher trainees. Those roles can be considered as similar to the perceived identities of

teachers and teacher trainees involved in mainstream education. As understood, language teacher trainees considered themselves as responsible for transferring language knowledge to their students. While doing this, they also perceived themselves as being inclined to direct their students toward the right track so that knowledge transfer could be successfully performed. In this knowledge reflection and direction process, the teacher trainees remolded their students in terms of both content knowledge and attitude development. Considering the way of teaching, as democrats, the teacher trainees viewed themselves as the rulers of the classroom. In other words, one of their roles was to organize the learning environment within the framework of jointly determined rules, which means that the teacher trainees created chances for their students to freely articulate their own views on the classroom rules. Regarding teacher behaviors, the teacher trainees saw themselves as possessing power with regard to dominating the classroom and teaching process. However, at the same time, they enacted the role of healer as the provider of emotional support so as to create effective and healthy learning paths for their students.

The remaining professional language teacher identities were all related to being nurturer, exertive, researcher, artist, judge and novice linguist. Analyzing these metaphors in their own rights, it is clear that the teacher trainees, as nurturers, had the belief that they should be able to meet student needs in the sense of both emotional and academic development. Besides, they had the responsibility of discovering and solving problematic issues, just like researchers, in their classrooms. Another revealed identity was judge which refers to providing equity among students as a way to take up a position and a character. Different from this, the teacher trainees might also be considered as performers on the stage; therefore, they should have the capabilities of such artists as comedian, actor/actress or newscaster. Last but not least, the teacher trainees drew attention to their identity as being exertive and novice linguist during the practicum. They were all novice as future language teachers because they were a newcomer in the teaching and learning arena; thus, they needed to be exertive to cope with the lack of experience in teaching. Interestingly, any clue related to the role of intercultural promoters was not found in the metaphoric expressions of the language teacher trainees. It was an expected metaphor from the participants; yet, it was never addressed. However, it was found in the study of Farrell (2011) which led us to the

idea that language teachers should be able to understand students' native cultures and facilitate students to adapt themselves to the target culture.

The divergent aspects of language teaching from mainstream education in terms of teaching philosophy and classroom actions have been illuminated in this study since metaphors have the capacity to represent the notable characteristics of language teaching (Ma & Gao, 2017; Zhao et al., 2010). The role of being democrat, artist or researcher may be put forward as prominent examples for this. That is to say, these distinct identities as well as the other revealed identities are all clues showing that multiple identities of the language teacher trainees can help teacher educators better shape teacher training programs based on the genuine values and beliefs. If teacher educators understand what forms the TPI of the trainee teachers, they can help those trainee teachers reach a deeper understanding of themselves. To accomplish this, the use of metaphors can be encouraged for the reason that metaphors have the potential to improve the identity construction process. All in all, TPI should be incorporated into teacher knowledge base and metaphors could be a logical first step on the road. As in this study, metaphorical discourse has the power of unraveling the multifaceted nature of teaching which combines teachers' beliefs about teaching (Alger, 2009), professional knowledge (Zhao et al., 2010) and identity (Farrell, 2011; Ma & Gao, 2017; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011) from a holistic perspective. On the basis of the present study, future research could be geared toward the evaluation of teacher trainees' metaphors so as to uncover their beliefs and values developed during the everlasting TPI construction process; even, their identities could be investigated through metaphors when they become practicing teachers. By so doing, the interaction between personal values and professional demands of teaching (Leeferink et al., 2019) and the ups and downs of the TPI construction process are possible to be entirely understood in the long run.

### **Notes on the contributors**

**Burcu Turhan** (Ph.D.) is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language Teaching at Hatay Mustafa Kemal University, Hatay, Turkey. Her general research interests include foreign language teacher education, pragmatics, English as

Medium of Instruction (EMI), metacognition, critical discourse analysis and reflective practice.

## References

- Alger, L.C. (2009). Secondary teachers' conceptual metaphors of teaching and learning: Changes over the career span. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(5), 743-751.
- Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 39(2), 175–189.
- Beijaard, D., Meijer, P.C., & Verloop, N. (2004). Reconsidering research on teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(2), 107–128.
- Burns, A., & Richards, J. C. (2009). Introduction: Second language teacher education. In A. Burns, & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 1-8). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cameron, D., & Grant, A. (2017). The role of mentoring in early career physics teachers' professional identity construction. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, 6(2), 128–142.
- Capps, D. K., Crawford, B.A., & Conostas, M.A. (2012). A review of empirical literature on inquiry professional development: alignment with best practices and a critique of the findings. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*, 23(3), 291–318.
- Clarke, M., Michell, M., & Ellis, N.J. (2017). Dialectics of development: teacher identity formation in the interplay of ideal ego and ego ideal. *Teacher Education*, 28(2), 115–130.
- Drack, M. (2009). Ludwig von Bertalanffy's early system approach. *System Research & Behavioral Science*, 26, 563–572.
- Farrell, T.S.C. (2011). Exploring the professional role identities of experienced ESL teachers through reflective practice. *System*, 39(1), 54-62.
- Flynn, S., & Korcuska, J. (2018). Credible phenomenological research: A mixed-methods study. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, 57(1), 34 –50.
- Garner, J. K., & Kaplan, A. (2019). A complex dynamic systems perspective on teacher learning and identity formation: an instrumental case. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 25(1), 7–33.
- Gee, J. P. (2000). Chapter 3: Identity as an analytic lens for research in education. *Review of Research in Education*, 25(1), 99-125.
- Gracia, E. P., Rodríguez, R. S., & Pedrajas, A. P. (2022). Teachers' professional identity construction: A review of the literatura. *Profesorado, Revista de Currículum y Formacio'n del Profesorado*, 26(1), 371-393.



- Guest, G., McQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. (2012). *Applied thematic analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Izadinia, M. (2015). A closer look at the role of mentor teachers in shaping pre-service teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 52*, 1–10.
- Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2011). The transformative power of narrative in second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 45*(3), 486-509.
- Karabay, A. (2016). An investigation of prospective teachers' views regarding teacher identity via metaphors. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 65*, 1-18.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (2003). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: Chicago University Publisher.
- Leeferink, H., Koopman, M., Beijaard, D., & Schellings, G.L.M. (2019). Overarching professional identity themes in student teacher workplace learning. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 25*(1), 69–89.
- Lim, H.W. (2011). Concept maps of Korean EFL student teachers' autobiographical reflections on their professional identity formation. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(6), 969–981.
- Ma, X., & Gao, X. (2017). Metaphors used by pre-service teachers of Chinese as an international language. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 43*(1), 71-83.
- Meijer, P.C., De Graaf, G., & Meirink, J. (2011). Key experiences in student teachers' development. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 17*(1), 115–129.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Miller, J. M. (2009). Teacher identity. In A. Burns, & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 172-181). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Nguyen, C. D. (2016). Creating spaces for constructing practice and identity: Innovations of teachers of English language to young learners in Vietnam. *Research Papers in Education, 32*(1), 1-15.
- Olsen, B. (2008). How reasons for entry into the profession illuminate teacher identity development. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 35*(2), 23–40.
- Roberts, P., & Priest, H. (2006). Reliability and validity in research. *Nursing Standard, 20*(44), 41-46.
- Rodrigues, L. D. A. D., de Pietri, E., Sanchez, H. S., & Kuchah, K. (2018). The role of experienced teachers in the development of pre-service language teachers' professional identity: Revisiting school memories and constructing future teacher selves. *International Journal of Educational Research, 88*, 146-155.
- Rodrigues, F., & Mogarro, M. J. (2019). Student teachers' professional identity: A review of research contributions. *Educational Research Review, 28*, 100286.
- Saban, A. (2006). Functions of metaphor in teaching and teacher education: A review essay. *Teaching Education, 17*(4), 299-315.

- Salazar, J., & McCluskey, K. (2017). A case study of early career secondary teachers' perceptions of their preparedness for teaching: Lessons from Australia and Spain. *Teacher Development, 21*(1), 101–117.
- Schaefer, L., & Clandinin, D.J. (2019). Sustaining teachers' stories to live by: Implications for teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 25*(1), 54–68.
- Thomas, L., & Beauchamp, C. (2011). Understanding new teachers' professional identities through metaphor. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(4), 762-769.
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 4*(1), 21-44.
- Zhang, Y., Hawk, S. T., Zhang, X., & Zhao, H. (2016). Chinese pre-service teachers' professional identity links with education program performance: The roles of task value belief and learning motivations. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7*.
- Zhao, H., Coombs, S., & Zhou, X. (2010). Developing professional knowledge about teachers through metaphor research: Facilitating a process of change. *Teacher Development, 14*(3), 381-395.

## Appendix

### Guiding Questions

#### Week 1: Lesson Preparation

1. Were the content objectives clearly displayed and reviewed with students? How?
2. Were the language objectives clearly displayed and reviewed with students? How?
3. Were the content concepts appropriate for the age and educational background of students? How?
4. Did the supplementary materials make the lesson clear and meaningful? Why or why not?
5. Did the activities create language practice opportunities for listening, speaking, reading and writing skills? How?
6. Please think about the role of teachers as the planners of lessons. In this regard, can you think of any metaphorical expression that will describe your growing professional identity as an English teacher trainee? Please find an appropriate metaphor describing you and briefly explain it. In other words, based on your

observations and teachings at the practicum school this week, what does your identity resemble to? (e.g. a plant, an animal, an object, etc.)

#### Week 2: Building Background

1. Were the content concepts explicitly linked to students' background knowledge and experiences? How?
2. Were the links between past/previous learning and new concepts logical? How?
3. Were the key words or concepts emphasized by the teacher? Were they introduced, written, repeated and highlighted for students to see? How?
4. Please think about the role of teachers as the organizers of student learning. In this regard, can you think of any metaphorical expression that will describe your growing professional identity as an English teacher trainee? Please find an appropriate metaphor describing you and briefly explain it. In other words, based on your observations and teachings at the practicum school this week, what does your identity resemble to? (e.g. a plant, an animal, an object, etc.)

#### Week 3: Providing Comprehensible Input

1. Was the speech delivered by the teacher or you appropriate for students' proficiency level? (e.g. slower rate, simple sentence structure, being clear.) Explain in detail.
2. Was the explanation of the tasks given by the teacher or you clear? Explain with examples. In other words, were the instructions clear enough for students to understand what they should do during their tasks?
3. Was there a variety of techniques to make concepts clear? How? (e.g. modeling, visuals, hands-on activities, demonstrations, gestures, body language.)
4. Please think about the role of teachers as the providers of comprehensible input. In this regard, can you think of any metaphorical expression that will describe your growing professional identity as an English teacher trainee? Please find an appropriate metaphor describing you and briefly explain it. In other words, based on your observations and teachings at the practicum school this week, what does your identity resemble to? (e.g. a plant, an animal, an object, etc.)

#### Week 4: Strategies and Interaction

1. Were ample opportunities provided for students to use various learning strategies? (e.g. scaffolding, higher-order thinking skills, think-aloud, debates, brainstorming.)  
How?
2. Were frequent opportunities provided for interaction and discussion between teacher/student and among students? If yes, how? If not, why?
3. Was sufficient wait time for student responses provided appropriately? How?
4. Please think about the role of teachers as the supporter of meaningful interaction. In this regard, can you think of any metaphorical expression that will describe your growing professional identity as an English teacher trainee? Please find an appropriate metaphor describing you and briefly explain it. In other words, based on your observations and teachings at the practicum school this week, what does your identity resemble to? (e.g. a plant, an animal, an object, etc.)

#### Week 5: Application and Assessment

1. Were there any hands-on materials or manipulatives provided for students to practice using new content knowledge? How?
2. Did the activities (applied in the classroom) integrate four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) How?
3. Were the key concepts reviewed comprehensively? Briefly explain with concrete examples.
4. Was student comprehension assessed depending on learning objectives? Briefly explain with concrete examples. (You can also write about the use of feedback. Was the feedback regular and appropriate?)
5. Please think about the role of teachers as the assessors. In this regard, can you think of any metaphorical expression that will describe your growing professional identity as an English teacher trainee? Please find an appropriate metaphor describing you and briefly explain it. In other words, based on your observations and teachings at the practicum school this week, what does your identity resemble to? (e.g. a plant, an animal, an object, etc.)

## Structural repetitions and discourse relations in English-Turkish translations of TED talks

Özgür Şen Bartan

Kırıkkale University, Turkey/Contact: [ozgursen1@yahoo.com](mailto:ozgursen1@yahoo.com) 

### Abstract

This study attempts to analyse translations of the discourse relations of the arguments with structural repetitions in the TED-MDB corpora consisting three texts (English) and their translations (Turkish). The main questions addressed in this paper are: a) Are connective relations used explicitly or implicitly together with repetitions? b) Which discourse relations are being used with repetitions? c) Do translators translate repetitions or omit them? The analysis shows that speakers of TED Talks mostly prefer to use these repetitions in their speeches with implicit discourse relations (66.6%), and translators translate them through implicit forms (54.8%). Moreover, the dominantly explicit usage of *and* in repetitive structures shows that the relations can be associated with an explicit connective *and*. Accordingly, ExpansionConjunction (addition) relations are frequently being used with repetitions at the beginning (73.8%). Also, mostly, the translators tend to omit repetitions at the beginning (92.9%).

© 2022 The Literacy Trek & the Authors – Published by The Literacy Trek

### APA Citation

Şen Bartan, Ö. (2022). Structural repetitions and discourse relations in English-Turkish translations of TED talks. *The Literacy Trek*, 8(2), 186-202. <https://doi.org/10.47216/literacytrek.1119118>

### Keywords

TED-Multilingual  
Discourse Bank;  
Discourse relations;  
Implicitness;  
Translations of  
repetitions

**Submission date**  
22.05.2022

**Acceptance date**  
24.11.2022

### Introduction

Together with other rhetorical devices, *parallelism* is used in persuasive speeches such as Ted-Talks, and within them, rhetorical devices are being used intentionally with a high level of competence. According to Leech and Short (2007), considering the structural repetitions at the beginning of sentences, sometimes, it is “obviously the aesthetics of form which tends to attract the reader’s attention, rather than the meaning” (p. 14). The researchers categorize structural repetition under the sub-title of figures of speech which is one of the elements of style. There are three main elements of figures of speech: grammatical and lexical; phonological schemes; and tropes. Parallelism is classified under the category of grammatical and lexical, and it has two types: repetition at the beginning (anaphora) and repetition *at the end* (epistrophe).

Corbett and Connors (1995) define anaphora (repetition at the beginning) as “the repetition of identical words at the beginning of successive phrases” (p. 416). It is a rhetorical device that features repetition of a word or phrase at the beginning of successive sentences, phrases, or clauses. In this study, the terms *anaphora* and *epistrophe* are not preferred to be used since, in linguistics, they have other definitions which have the possibility to create terminological ambiguity. Grammatical and lexical parallelisms are regarded as the cases of formal and structural repetition. Formal repetition is described as repeated use of an expression such as morpheme, lexical item, proper name, phrase, etc. which has already occurred in the context. The parallelisms are “identified as structural repetitions in which variable elements occur”, and “whatever form a parallelism takes, its effect is to foreground the relation between parallel words and phrases which fill the variable positions” (p.113). In short, parallelisms are structural repetitions which augment speakers’ messages, draw attention, give emphasis, create a rhythm, link, and compare or contrast ideas.

Moreover, Corbett and Connors (1995) pointed out that parallelism (repetition at the beginning) in the below example has a role to connect the clauses:

Three independent clauses are set down, one after the other (“**They may have it** in well-doing, **they may have it** in learning, **they may have it** even in criticising”). Although there are no conjunctions (asyndeton) to tie the clauses together grammatically, the clauses are connected by parallel structure and identical words. In addition to the functions that we noted in the analysis of Clark Kerr’s two sentences, parallelism can also be used for coherence. (p.416)

Corbett and Connors (1995) also suggested that parallelism can convey “antitheses of thought” as in this example: *Ask not what your country can do for you-ask what you can do for your country*. According to the researchers, they are “opposites” which can be “reconciled”. They suggested that opposites can be “reconciled only if they are co-ordinate, and one way to emphasize the co-ordinate value of opposites is to juxtapose them in a parallel grammatical structure” (p.512).

In literature, there are also studies on repetitions focusing on the effect of stylistic use and cohesive function of repetition of Key Words (KWs) in translation (Čermáková, 2015; Mastropierro & Mahlberg, 2017); the role of repetitions on repairs (Crible & Pascual, 2019), and parallelism effect in sentence processing (Frazier, Munn, & Clifton, 2000, p.358; Knoeferle & Crocker, 2009).

Čermáková (2015) studied the stylistic analysis of the source and target text (Eng-Finnish; Eng-Czech), and she analysed the repeated sequences of words in John Irving's novel *A Widow for One Year*, and found eight-word sequences that were repeated at least three times. She also made a list of keywords in the novel, using the *British National Corpus* as a reference corpus. By analysing the recurring sequences and the keywords they contained, Čermáková (2015) concluded that these repetitions played a significant stylistic role in the novel and that "translators show a marked stylistic strategy to avoid them" even though they should be sustained in the translation (p.355).

Crible and Pascual (2019) studied discourse markers and their combination with and within repetitions and self-repairs in native English, French and Spanish, and found that discourse markers and repetitions are more frequent outside than within repairs, which relates to their association with covert planning processes.

In psycholinguistics, specifically sentence processing studies, it is indicated that "processing of conjoined phrases is facilitated by syntactic parallelism, whether it is parallelism in the syntactic category of the conjuncts themselves or parallelism of the internal structure of the conjuncts." (Frazier, Munn, & Clifton, 2000, p. 358). This effect is called "parallelism effect" (Knoeferle & Crocker, 2009, p. 2239). By using eye tracking as a method, Knoeferle and Crocker (2009) tested further whether parallel structure affects processing of the second conjunct when people first inspect the second conjunct or rather only upon rereading of relevant left context. The researchers found "evidence for online parallelism mechanisms that operate incrementally and across the board" and parallelism effects in both structurally ambiguous and unambiguous sentences (p. 2362). And it is also claimed that parallelism mechanisms depend on the occurrence of the coordinating conjunction *and* (Apel et al., 2007; Frazier et al., 2000; Knoeferle & Crocker, 2009).

The research to date has tended to focus on the stylistic functions of repetition in literary translation (Abdulla, 2001; al-Khafaji, 2006; Ben-Ari, 1998) rather than its discursal role. Ben-Ari (1998, p. 68) concluded that avoiding repetition in translation is a "universal" and this is due to the fact that "considerations of adequacy come second to considerations of acceptability in the target culture". Therefore, the translations of parallel structures are needed to be studied in detail.

Also, according to Dancygier and Sweetser (2014), who redefine the term “figurative”, “understanding discourse crucially involves understanding the processes” concerning figurative language (p.11). According to the researchers, figurative structures are far from being just decorative, they are shaping cognitive construals in discourse, and the potential for figurative patterns is a universal (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2014). These estimates and conclusions together with new researches in figurative speech have heightened the need for investigating figurative language, specifically structural repetitions in translation as well. In this respect, this study attempts to analyse the discourse relations of the arguments with the usage of parallelism, specifically repetitions *at the beginning of* successive sentences (anaphora) in the TED-MDB corpora consisting three texts (English) and their translations (Turkish). In short, in the present study, the repetitive parallelistic forms of the clauses are investigated. The main questions addressed in this paper are:

1. Are connective relations used explicitly or implicitly together with repetitions?
2. Which discourse relations are being used with repetitions?
3. Do translators translate repetitions or omit them?

## Literature Review

### *Explicitness and Implicitness of Discourse Relations*

In recent years several studies investigating discourse relations in translation have been carried out using parallel and multilingual corpora, and they have contributed to the *Translation Universals (TU)* theory (Blum Kulka, 1978; Baker, 2001), and also understanding the variation in the types and frequency of conjunctions across languages. For instance, Zufferey and Cartoni (2014) used the multilingual corpus of parliamentary debates (Europarl) to understand whether explicitation phenomena (one of the features of TUs) were frequent. The results suggest an evidence that explicitation is “indeed a regular phenomenon in translations, regardless of the language pair involved” (Zufferey, 2020, p.98).

Translation universals (TUs) are defined as the inherent features revealed in translated texts (Baker, 1993). TUs include explicitation, simplification,



normalization, sanitization, convergence and so forth (Haoda Feng, Ineke Crezee & Lynn Grant, 2018). *Explicitation* is the tendency to make implicit information in the ST explicit in the translations, where such implicit information does not need to become explicit in the TT. *Implicitation* is defined as “rendering what is clearly stated in the source text into implicit information in the target text, with the same meaning or information embedded in the context” (Hu, 2016, p.98). The major causes of implicitation in translation were listed by Hu (2016) as the process of translation, linguistic and cultural differences, and the role of the translator.

In discourse relation, explicitness is the use of overt linguistic material in structuring information in clauses, and implicitness is not using an overt discourse connective. For instance, in Example (1), *and* is used as a discourse connective explicitly, however, in Example (2), there is no discourse connective between arguments which carry Expansion.Conjunction sense. Also, repetitions at the beginning can be seen in these examples from the study corpus.

(1) *Explicit use:*

“**I wanted to protect my child from illness. And I wanted also to protect myself from illness.**” [Expansion.Conjunction] (English, TED Talk no. 1756).

(2) *Implicit use:*

“**There are only so many families** dealing with schizophrenia, **Ø there are only so many families** of children who are transgender, **Ø there are only so many families** of prodigies -- who also face similar challenges in many ways -- **Ø there are only so many families** in each of those categories -- but if you start to think that the experience of negotiating difference within your family is what people are addressing, then you discover that it’s a nearly universal phenomenon.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (English, TED Talk no. 1756). Explicit connectives are being used frequently in both translated and non-translated texts (Marco, 2018, p.100). Concerning explicitness and implicitness, Leech and Short (2005) suggested that in the history of fiction writing, “there has been a progressive tendency, over the past three hundred years, to dispense with such logical connections between sentences, and to rely instead upon *inferred* connections” (p.201). According to them:

...the most conspicuous feature of linkage in modern fiction is its absence: or, speaking less paradoxically, we may observe that the modern novelist tends to rely on inferred linkage, or simple juxtaposition, rather than on overt signals. (p.201)

They illustrated “the extreme of inexplicitness” of Joyce passage:

Whores in Turkish graveyards. Learn anything if taken young. You might pick up a young widow here. Men like that. Love among the tombstones. Romeo. Spice of pleasure. In the midst of death we are in life. Both ends meet. Tantalizing for the poor dead. Smell of frilled beefsteaks to the starving gnawing their vitals. Desire to grig people. Molly wanted to do it at the window. Eight children he has anyway. (Penguin, 1978, p. 110)

They gave another example of implicitness from Mervyn Peake, *Gormenghast*, Chapter 1:

“**He has learned** an alphabet of arch and aisle: the language of dim stairs and moth-hung rafters (3). Great halls are his dim playgrounds: his fields are quadrangles: his trees are pillars (4). **And he has learned that** there are always eyes (5). Eyes that watch (6). Feet that follow, and hands to hold him when he struggles, to lift him when he falls (7). Upon his feet again he stares unsmiling (8). Tall figures elbow (9). Some in jewellery; some in rags (10).” (Mervyn Peake, *Gormenghast*, Chapter 1] (Leech & Short, 2007, p.113).

In this example, the researchers pointed out many syntactic parallelisms and other kinds of schematic patterning. And, they also stated that “the relations of meaning foregrounded in similarity or of contrast.” (Leech & Short, 2007, p.113). It is possible with this claim that the readers deduce the relations of the arguments implicitly in literature where there is high usage of figurative language.

### *Structural Repetitions (Parallelisms) in Persuasive Speeches and Ted-Talks*

TED talks are considered as a specific genre as they are for specific audience. They are regarded as persuasive writing and speaking. Persuasion is “the process of creating, reinforcing, or changing people’s beliefs or actions” (Lucas, 2009, p. 324). Persuasive speech is something “a speaker does *with* an audience. Listeners engage in a mental give-and-take with the speaker” (Lucas, 2009, pp. 324-327). Lucas proposes that one of the four features of persuasive speech is language and ideas of the speaker. For instance, “I have a dream” speech by Martin Luther King, Jr. “is relatively a short and powerful speech in terms of persuasion”. According to Lucas “King makes extensive use of *repetition and parallelism* to reinforce his message and to enhance the momentum of the speech.” (2009, p. Appendix A2).

Many researchers illustrate Martin Luther King Jr.’s use of parallelism (repetition at the beginning) as a competent one. “I Have a Dream” speech is powerful and persuasive partly as a result of the usage of parallelism, structural repetitions at the

beginning. He repeats the “I have a dream” sentence eight times in his speech, and the discourse relations are implicit, which means he did not use an explicit connective between the arguments:

**I have a dream** that one day on the red hills of Georgia, the sons of former slaves and the sons of former slave owners will be able to sit down together at the table of brotherhood.

**I have a dream** that one day even the state of Mississippi, a state sweltering with the heat of injustice, sweltering with the heat of oppression, will be transformed into an oasis of freedom and justice.(Lucas, 2009, p.Appendix A2)

### The Corpus

This study examines a corpus consisting 3 TED Talks (ID. 1978, ID. 2150, ID. 1756) in English and their translations in Turkish in accordance with the guidelines of the PDTB-3. Two texts (1978, 2150) were selected from the previously annotated texts for the TED MDB project (Zeyrek et al., 2020), which is a multilingual resource where TED-talks are annotated at the discourse level in 6 languages, and an additional TED Talk (ID. 1756) was annotated for this study by a group of annotators, and checked by another annotator in order to determine inter-annotator agreement. For the additional TED Talk (ID. 1756) the inter-annotator agreement of the source text is 87% and the target text is 64.4% in all senses. There are seven texts which were annotated in the entire TED MDB corpus (Zeyrek et al., 2020), however, as the other texts does not contain repetitions, they were excluded from this study. The overall data of the parallel annotations is shown in Table 1.

**Table 1.** The parallel annotations of the three TED talk transcripts

Text IDs	English Words	Turkish Words	Total
ID 1756	3848	2891	
ID 2150	1050	723	
ID 1978	1759	1255	
<b>Total</b>	6657	4869	11,526

Also, in Table 3, there is the distribution of repetitions at the beginning (N 42) in the TED-MDB corpus in three texts.

**Table 2.** Distribution of repetitions at the beginning in the TED-MDB corpus within 3 source texts in English.

Text IDs in TED-MDB corpus			
1756	2150	1978	Total
28	9	5	42

## Methodology

In the current study, the discourse has been analysed within the framework of the PDTB 3.0 sense hierarchy. It encompasses four main senses at Level-1 (Expansion, Contingency, Comparison and Temporal) with their sub-senses at Level-2 and Level 3 (See Table 3) (2019, p.17).

**Table 3.** PDTB-3 Sense Hierarchy

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Temporal	Synchronous	-
	Asynchronous	Precedence
		Succession
Contingency	Cause	Reason
		Result
		NegativeResult
	Cause+belief	Reason+belief
		Result+belief
	Cause+SpeechAct	Reason+SpeechAct
		Result+SpeechAct
	Condition	Arg1-as-Condition
		Arg2-as-Condition
	Condition+SpeechAct	-
	Negative-condition	Arg1-as-negCond arg2-as-negCond
Arg2-as-negCond arg2-66as-6negCond		
Negative-condition+SpeechAct	-	
Purpose	Arg1-as-goal arg2-as-goal	
	Arg2-as-goal arg2-as-goal	
Comparison	Concession	Arg1-as-denier
		Arg2-as-denier
	Concession+SpeechAct	Arg2-as-denier+ SpeechAct

	Contrast	-	
	Similarity	-	
Expansion	Conjunction	-	
	Disjunction	-	
	Equivalence	-	
	Exception	Arg1-as-excpt	
		Arg2-as-excpt	
	Instantiation	Arg1-as-instance	
		Arg2-as-instance	
	Level-of-detail	Arg1-as-detail	
		Arg2-as-detail	
	Manner	Arg1-as-manner	
Arg2-as-manner			
Substitution	Arg1-as-subst arg2-as-subst		
	Arg1-as-subst arg2-as-subst		

Furtermore, 7 discourse relations (Explicit Relations, Implicit Relations, AltLex, NoRel, EntRel, Hypophora, and Attribution) were annotated for this study. In the PDTB Annotation Manual 2.0 (2007), two main connective types are explicit and implicit.

- *Explicit Relations*: Explicit discourse relations they are conveyed by an explicit connective.
- *Implicit Relations*: Implicit discourse relations lack an overt connecting device.

## Results

This study investigates the translations of parallelism, specifically repetitions *at the beginning of* successive sentences in the TED-MDB corpora focusing on the discourse relations. The results will be presented within the framework of the research questions.

The first research question is: *Are connective relations used explicitly or implicitly together with repetitions?* and the analysis of the usages of the repetitions at the beginning in English and its translation to Turkish shows that writers and speakers of TED Talks mostly prefer to use repetitions at the beginning in their speeches with implicit discourse relations in English (66.6%), and as Table 4 shows,

translators translate them through mostly implicitation (54.8%), which means they do not use discourse connectives explicitly in both ST and TT.

**Table 4.** Implicit relations in Turkish translations

Implicit	Explicit	Total
23 (54.8%)	19 (45.2%)	42

The second research question is: *Which discourse relations are being used with repetitions?* and by using the PDTB Sense Hierarchy (Temporal, Contingency, Comparison and Expansion), it is seen that Contingency, Comparison and Expansion senses are being used as the first level sense hierarchy.

Accordingly, as Table 5 shows, ExpansionConjunction relations are frequently being used with repetitions at the beginning (73.8%). As the sense relations were aligned in both the source text (ST) and the target texts (TT), Table 5 contains the annotations of both the source and the target texts with their sub-senses at Level-2 and Level 3 (See Table 2).

The dominantly explicit usage of *and* (12 *ands*, 1 *and yet out of 19 connectives*) in repetitions at the beginning shows that, although implicit relations were seen in both source and target text, the relations can be associated with an explicit connective *and*.

**Table 5.** Senses in English and in Turkish within repetitions at the beginning

Senses	N
Expansion.Conjunction	31
CauseResult	4
CauseReason	1
LevelofDetail ARg2asDetail	2
ComparisonContrast	4
Total	42

Regarding the third research question, *Do translators translate repetitions or omit them?*, Table 6 shows that out of 42 repetitions at the beginning found in English

corpus, 7.1% (N 3) of them are translated as repetitions at the beginning. 38.1% (N 16) of them are translated as repetitions at the end, and 53.6% (N 22) of them were omitted, which means translators translated them by neither repetition at the beginning nor repetition at the end.

In short, mostly, the translators did not translate repetitions at the beginning (92.9%), instead, there were instances (38.1%) that repetitions at the end are used as the equivalence of repetitions at the beginning, which can be sometimes recommended due to the syntactic structure of Turkish.

**Table 6.** Frequency of translations of repetitions at the beginning in the TED-MDB corpus

	1756	2150	1978	Total
<i>Translated by repetition at the beginning</i>	2	1	-	3 (7.1%)
<i>Translated by repetition at the end</i>	9	5	2	16 (38.1%)
<i>Omissions</i>	17	3	3	23 (54.8%)
<b>Total repetitions</b>	28	9	5	42

Some examples of the repetitions at the beginning in TED-Talks and translations of Turkish can be seen in Table 7 under three categories that this study has classified. The interpretations of the examples will be discussed in the following section in detail.

**Table 7.** The examples of Turkish translations of repetitions at the beginning in English

<b>Omissions</b>	
1	<p><b>“We took him to the MRI machine, Ø we took him to the CAT scanner, Ø we took</b> this day-old child and gave him over for an arterial blood draw.” Implicit ExpansionConjunction. [Expansion.Conjunction] (English, TED Talk no. 1756).</p> <p>“Onu MRI makinasına, Ø CAT tarayıcına <b>soktuk</b>, Ø bir günlük çocuğumuzdan kan almalarına <b>izin verdik</b>.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (Turkish, TED Talk no. 1756).</p>
2	<p><b>“And there are people who think that</b> the existence of my family somehow undermines or weakens or damages their family. <b>And there are people who think that</b> families like mine shouldn't be allowed to exist.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (English, TED Talk no. 1756).</p> <p>“Benim ailemin varlığının kendi ailelerini sarstığını, zayıflattığını ya da zarar verdiğini <b>düşünen insanlar var</b>.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (Turkish, TED Talk no. 1756).</p>
<b>Translated by repetitions at the end</b>	
3	<p><b>“There are only so many families</b> dealing with schizophrenia, Ø <b>there are only so many families</b> of children who are transgender, Ø <b>there are only so many families</b> of prodigies -- who also face</p>

similar challenges in many ways -- **there are only so many families** in each of those categories -- but if you start to think that the experience of negotiating difference within your family is what people are addressing, then you discover that it's a nearly universal phenomenon.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (English, TED Talk no. 1756).

“Sadece şizofreni ile uğraşan **o kadar çok aile var**, Ø çocukları cinsiyetini **değiştiren o kadar çok aile var**, Ø mucize bebeklere sahip **aileler var** -- ve onlar da bir çok yönden engellerle karşılaşıyorlar – Ø tüm bu kategorilerde **o kadar çok aile var ki** düşündüğünüzde ailelerinize onların farklılık olarak gördüğü farklılıklarınız üzerindeki uzlaşma sürecinde farkettiğiniz şey bunun neredeyse evrensel bir olgu olduğu oluyor.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (Turkish, TED Talk no. 1756).

- 4 “**I wanted to protect my child** from illness. **And I wanted also to protect myself** from illness.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (English, TED Talk no. 1756).

“Çocuklarımı hastalıktan **korumak istedim**. **Aynı zamanda** kendimi **de** hastalıktan **korumak istiyordum**.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (Turkish, TED Talk no. 1756).

#### Translated by repetitions at the beginning

- 5 “**Those hearing parents** tend to try to cure them. Ø **Those deaf people** discover community somehow in adolescence. [Cause Result] (English, TED Talk no. 1756). Ø **Those straight parents** often want them to function in what they think of as the mainstream world, **and those gay people** have to discover identity later on.” [Cause Result] (English, TED Talk no. 1756).

“**Bu ebeveynler genelde** çocuklarını iyileştirme eğilimindedirler. **Haliyle sağır insanlar** o kültürü ve topluluğu gençliklerinde keşfederler. [Cause Result] (Turkish, TED Talk no. 1756). Bir çok eşcinselin ebeveynleri heteroseksüeldir. Ø **Bu heteroseksüel ebeveynler** çocuklarını dünyada yaygın olduğu şekilde olmalarını istiyorlar, haliyle homoseksüel insanlar kimliklerini daha sonra keşfediyorlar.” [Cause Result] (Turkish, TED Talk no. 1756).

- 6 “...**but I believe that** a city is the sum of the relationships of the people that live there, **and I believe that** if we can start to document those relationships in a real way then maybe we have a real shot at creating those kinds of cities that we'd like to have.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (English, TED Talk no. 2150)

“**Fakat inanıyorum ki** bir şehir orada yaşayan insanlar arasındaki ilişkiler bütünüdür. Ø **İnanıyorum ki** bu ilişkileri gerçekçi bir şekilde belgelemeye başlayabilirsek sahip olmayı isteyeceğimiz tarzda şehirler yaratmayı deneyebiliriz.” [Expansion.Conjunction] (Turkish, TED Talk no. 2150).

## Discussion and Conclusion

The present study was designed to examine discourse relations of the arguments with the usage of parallelism, specifically repetitions at the beginning, in the TED-MDB bilingual corpora (English-Turkish). Within the scope of the findings, the following conclusions can be drawn from the present study.

Firstly, 73.8% (N 31) relations between the arguments that have *repetitions at the beginning* are ExpansionConjunction. Also, CauseResult (N 4), CauseReason (N 1), LevelofDetail ARg2asDetail (N 2) and Comparison.Contrast (N 4) relations were observed in the corpora. Secondly, in both ST (66.6%) and TT (54.8%), implicit discourse relations were high in arguments with repetitions at the beginning.



Furthermore, 38.1% of the ST repetitions were translated by repetitions at the end, which is suggested for the equivalence of repetitions at the beginning due to the syntactic structure of Turkish. And lastly, the translators do not have the tendency to translate repetitions at the beginning (92.9%).

As Table 7 shows, in Example (1), the relation is ExpansionConclusion, the repetitions of the clauses are structural repetitions, and they contribute to the relations between the arguments. In line with this finding, Corbett and Connors (1995) defined the discorsal function of parallelism as follows:

When we have to express a series of similar or equivalent "meanings," we usually resort to the grammatical device of compounding, and we reinforce the co-ordinate value of the compounded elements with the rhetorical device of parallelism (p. 405).

Corbett and Connors (1995) further stated that "the expansion, all of which takes place in the complement part of the sentence, is managed with a series of parallel structures" (p.406).

In Example (1), the repeated parallelism, '*we took him to the X, we took him to the Y, we took this day old child to Z.*', contributes the discourse relations. Also, it is obvious from this structural pattern that the "end focus" strategy was used. By repeating the same structures, the speaker puts the emphasis on the end of the sentences in line with the nature of *repetitions at the beginning*, and the relation between the arguments can be inferred as, in this case, Expansion.Conjunction. In PDTB-3 (Webber et. al., 2017), this tag is under Expansion label. Expansion is used for relations that

...expand the discourse and move its narrative or exposition forward. The tag Conjunction is used when both arguments bear the same relation to some other situation evoked in the discourse. It indicates that the two arguments make the same contribution with respect to that situation, or contribute to it together. (p. 25)

That's why; this study suggests that the usage of structural repetitions contributes the relations between arguments. The senses (either explicit or implicit) can be varied such as expansion (dominantly), causality, comparison and so forth. This is in line with the studies who showed that parallelism mechanisms depend on the presence of the coordinating conjunction *and* (Apel et al., 2007; Frazier et al., 2000; Knoeferle & Crocker, 2009, p. 2367), which have the potential to carry multiple relations (polyfunctionality).

However, in Turkish translations of Example (1), the pattern was observed in a different way: X, Y *we took, we let* Z. In this case, there remain two arguments, unlike ST, which has three arguments, and the relations of the arguments are still ExpansionConjunction. Similarly, In Example (2), the second argument is totally omitted. Also, it should be noted that in implicit relations, the reader can understand the discourse relation without explicit discourse connective. This research may serve as a base for future studies on possible discursual functions of structural repetitions. However, with a small sample size, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be transferable to the general tendency of translations of structural repetitions, implicitation and explicitation, and their discourse relations.

Concerning implicitness, based on Leech and Short's (2005) claim that authors have the tendency to use *inferred* connections in fiction, the implicitness in both ST and TT in TED-Talks may be explained by figurative language, in this case parallelism, in the examined TED-Talks. Although general tendency of translating connectives is explicitation which is claimed as "a regular phenomenon in translations, regardless of the language pair involved" (Zufferey, 2020, p. 98), in this study discourse relations with repetitions are conveyed implicitly in both ST and TT. Additionally, the results of this study support that translators, by using less words and by not repeating the structures, have the tendency of *simplification* which is one of the translation universals. Simplification refers to the tendency to 'unconsciously simplify language or message or both' (Baker, 1996, p. 176). Briefly, translators intuitively try to simplify the target text. This finding supports the simplification phenomenon of Blum Kulka's (1978) translation universals hypothesis.

Furthermore, in Examples (3) and (4), the translators prefer to use repetitions at the end as an equivalence of repetitions at the beginning. These examples may serve as accurate rendering for translations of repetitions at the beginning due to target language structure. Also, in Examples (5) and (6), repetitions at the beginning are translated by repetitions at the beginning, which shows that sometimes it is possible to find exact equivalence of them.

Lastly, it is claimed that the changing patterns of lexico-grammatical organization produce distinct shifts in the ontological character of the reality

constructed by the text” (Butt, 1988, p. 217). In other words, the mismatch of parallelism in translation can affect «the way the reader perceives that network, even if the level of cohesion is the same» (or similar) (Mastropierro & Mahlberg, 2017). Similarly, Čermáková (2015, p.374) points out that

one straightforward translation strategy would be to apply consistency in the translation of these repetitions by using the same lexical equivalents and keeping the number of repetitions as close to the original as the constraints of the target language allow. More careful stylistic analysis on the part of the translator may allow other translation strategies to reproduce the effect that repetitiveness creates for a reader.

In this respect, further research needs to be carried out to find out how parallelism impact cognition in detail.

As a conclusion, it is clearly seen that there are a number of important differences between ST pattern and TT patterns in terms of figurativeness, cognition and coherence. Therefore, the findings that this study has revealed and identified assist in our understanding of the role of figurative language in both ST and TT. Although figurative language is potentially “universal” (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2014:11) and repetitions play a significant role, translators show a “stylistic strategy to avoid them” (Čermáková, 2015, p.355). Understanding the discourse structure of the ST is crucial before translating in order to master the TT within the possibilities and differences of it. That’s why, translator training programs should include discourse relations and examining them in a parallel corpus can be effective, including figurative language, specifically structural repetitions.

### **Notes on the contributor**

**Özgür Şen Bartan** is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Translation and Interpreting in English at Kırıkkale University. She received a B.A. from Hacettepe University, in English Linguistics in 2001, and an M.A. from Hacettepe University, in Sociology Department. She received her Ph.D. in Foreign Language Teaching, Linguistics from Ankara University in 2015. Her work focuses specifically on individual differences, the role of literature on foreign language teaching, literary translation, corpus studies, translation studies, and sign language interpreting.

## References

- Abdulla, A. K. (2001). Rhetorical repetition in literary translation. *Babel* 47(4), 289-303. <https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.47.4.02abd>
- al-Khafaji, R.. (2006). In search of translational norms: The case of shifts of lexical repetition in Arabic-English translations. *Babel*, 52(1), 39-65. <https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.52.1.03alk>
- Apel, J., Knoeferle, P., & Crocker, M. W. (2007). Processing parallel structure: Evidence from eye tracking and a computational model. In S. Vosniadou, D. Kayser, & A. Protopapas (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 2nd European Cognitive Science Conference* (pp. 125–131). Taylor & Francis-
- Baker, M. (1996). Corpus-based translation studies: The challenges that lie ahead. In H. Somers (Ed.), *Terminology, LSP and translation studies in language engineering: In honour of Juan C. Sager* (pp. 175–186). John Benjamins-
- Ben-Ari, N. (1998). The ambivalent case of repetitions in literary translation. Avoiding repetitions: A “Universal” of translation?. *Meta* 43(1), 68–78. : <https://doi.org/10.7202/002054ar>
- Blum-Kulka, S., & Levenston, E. A. (1978). Universals of lexical simplification. *Language Learning*, 28(2), 399-415. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1978.tb00143.x>
- Butt, D. (1988). Ideational meaning and the ‘Existential Fabric’ of a poem. In Robin P. Fawcett and David Young (Eds.) *New developments in systemic linguistics. Vol. 2., Theory and Application.* (pp-174–218), Pinter Publishers.
- Čermáková, A. (2015). Repetition in John Irving’s novel *A Widow for One Year*: A corpus stylistics approach to literary translation. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 20(3), 355-77. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.20.3.04cer>
- Corbett, E. P. J., & Connors, R. J. (1965). *Classical rhetoric for the modern student*. Oxford University Press.
- Crible L., & Pascual, E. (2019). Combinations of discourse markers with repairs and repetitions in English, French and Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics* 156, 54-67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2019.05.002>
- Dancygier B., & Sweetser E. (2014). *Figurative language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Frazier, L., Taft, L., Roeper, T., Clifton, C., & Ehrlich, K. (1984). Parallel structure: A source of facilitation in sentence comprehension. *Memory & Cognition* 12, 421–430.
- Frazier, L., Munn, A., & Clifton, C. (2000). Processing coordinate structures. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 29, 343–370.
- Haoda F., Ineke C. & Lynn G. (2018). Form and meaning in collocations: a corpus-driven study on translation universals in Chinese-to-English business translation, *Perspectives*, 26(5), 677-690, <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2018.1424222>
- Hu, K. (2016). *Introducing corpus-based translation studies*. Springer,


- Knoeferle, P., & Crocker, M. W. (2009). Constituent order and semantic parallelism in online comprehension: Eye-tracking evidence from German. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology* 62, 2338–2371. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17470210902790070>
- Leech, G. & Short, M. (2007). *Style in Fiction*. Longman.
- Lucas, S. E. (2009). *The art of public speaking*. Mc Graw Hill.
- Mahlberg, M. (2013). Corpus analysis of literary texts. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.) *The Encyclopedia of applied linguistics*,. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Mahlberg, M. & Wiegand, V. (2020). Literary stylistics. In S. Adolphs & D. Knight (Eds.) *Routledge Handbook of English Language and Digital Humanities*. (pp-306-327), Routledge.
- Marco, J. (2018). Connectives as indicators of explicitation in literary translation: A study based on a comparable and parallel corpus, *Target: International journal of translation studies*, 30(1), 87-111. <https://doi.org/10.1075/target.16042.mar>
- Mastropierro, L. & Mahlberg, M. (2017). Key words and translated cohesion in Lovecraft's *At the Mountains of Madness* and one of its Italian translations, *English Text Construction*, 10(1), 78-105. <https://doi.org/10.1075/etc.10.1.05mas>
- McIntyre, D. (2013). Corpora and literature. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*, Wiley-Blackwell.
- Webber, B., Prasad, R., Lee, A., & Joshi, A. (2016). A discourse-annotated corpus of conjoined VPs. In *Proceedings of the 10th Linguistics Annotation Workshop* (pp. 22–31). Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zeyrek, D., Mendes, A., Grishina, Y., Kurfalı, M., Gibbon, S., & Ogrodniczuk, M. (2020). TED multilingual discourse bank (TED-MDB): A parallel corpus annotated in the PDTB style. *Language Resources and Evaluation*, 54(2), 587-613. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10579-019-09445-9>
- Zufferey, S. & Cartoni, B. (2014). A multifactorial analysis of explicitation in translation. *Target*, 26(3), 361–384. <https://doi.org/10.1075/target.26.3.02zuf>

## Exploring the relationship between L2 writing self-efficacy and language proficiency level

Tuba Demirkol<sup>1</sup>

Hakan Demiröz<sup>2</sup>

Social Sciences University of Ankara, Turkey/Contact: [tuba.demirkol@asbu.edu.tr](mailto:tuba.demirkol@asbu.edu.tr) 

Social Sciences University of Ankara, Turkey/Contact: [hakan.demiroz@asbu.edu.tr](mailto:hakan.demiroz@asbu.edu.tr) 

### Abstract

This study aims to explore if EFL learners' self-efficacy perceptions of their L2 writing performance vary by proficiency level. As the research design, the quantitative method was employed and a questionnaire measuring EFL learners' L2 writing self-efficacy on a Likert scale was used as the data collection instrument. The participants were EFL students (n=47) enrolled in the preparatory program of an English-medium instruction state university in Türkiye. Data analysis showed that there was a positive correlation between the participants' proficiency level and their perceptions of L2 writing self-efficacy. The findings indicate that EFL students develop a more positive attitude towards L2 writing as they progress in language mastery and the preparatory programs appear to be feeding into the appearance of this positive perception. Nevertheless, some points among which idea production represents the biggest concern continue to be an issue deserving much attention across the levels. This finding suggests that L2 writing training should be enhanced with strategies as well as activities that can assist students in producing ideas on given topics.

### Keywords

self-efficacy,  
L2 writing,  
EFL learners

### Submission date

26.07.2022

### Acceptance date

24.11.2022

© 2022 The Literacy Trek & the Authors – Published by The Literacy Trek

### APA Citation

Demirkol, T. & Demiröz, H. (2022). Exploring the relationship between L2 writing self-efficacy and language proficiency level. *The Literacy Trek*, 8(2), 203-222.  
<https://doi.org/10.47216/literacytrek.1148773>

### Introduction

Approaches to language teaching practice has gone through significant changes as a result of the pursuit of providing learners with a better language training in line with the requirements of modern times. As general approaches have changed, the treatment given to individual skills has directly taken new shapes. Similar to other language skills, the addressing of L2 writing has also gone through important shifts on a relatively long time scale spanning from grammar translation method (GTM) to communicative language teaching (CLT). While in GTM, L2 writing was taught as a highly mechanical task in

which learners were expected to copy from the reading texts (Siefert, 2013), CLT-based approaches take L2 writing as a productive process in which learners fulfill different functions. In CLT, L2 writing is treated as a double-faceted concept. As a product, L2 writing is the medium for learners to display their knowledge and individual stance on given issues. As a process of learning, other language skills including grammar, vocabulary and reading contribute to its development (Silva & Brice, 2004). This way, L2 writing functions as a factor contributing to L2 learning.

Three approaches that shape the study of L2 writing are: “learning to write, writing to learn content or language” (Ortega, 2011, p. 238). Though all three aspects arise from important motivations, it is safe to claim that the importance given to each aspect depends on the context. The orientation relevant to second language learning is thought to be writing to learn because the development of writing skills has a big potential for scaffolding L2 learning (Ortega, 2011; Manchón & Larios, 2008). Yet, all of these approaches can be treated as mutually feeding processes that take place in many writing tasks as L2 learners need to go through different stages even while writing a paragraph. According to Hyland (2003), L2 learners need to pay attention to structures in their written products, which requires the appropriate use of grammar and vocabulary; they need to consider the target genre’s rhetorical features and finally, they need to engage in L2 writing as a means of self-discovery as they are encouraged to express their own evaluations of a given topic. Given that L2 writing is such a complex phenomenon, it is not surprising to find many studies reporting how difficult it is for L2 learners from different parts of the world, i.e. for Arab EFL learners (Al-Gharabally, 2015; Qasem & Zayid, 2010; Shukri, 2014), for Chinese EFL learners (Bian & Wang, 2016; Dipolog & Ubanan, 2016; Guo & Huang, 2020), and for Turkish EFL learners (Altınmakas & Bayyurt, 2019; Ekmekçi, 2018; Kirmizi & Kirmizi, 2015).

Being such an important part of EFL learning, L2 writing has been researched from a variety of perspectives, which can be roughly categorized as cognitive and psychological dimensions. Cognitive factors include writing strategies (Bailey, 2019; Lu, 2010); working memory capacity (Lu, 2010; Zabihi, 2018); language aptitude (Kormos, 2012; Kormos & Trebits, 2012); age-related differences (Celaya & Naves, 2009). Psychological factors studied concerning L2 writing are not that much varied and the prominent ones are L2 writing anxiety (Kim & Pae, 2021; Kirmizi & Kirmizi, 2015; Zabihi, Mousavi, & Salehian, 2020); L2 writing motivation (Fathi, Ahmadinejad,

Yousofi, 2019; Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021); and finally self-efficacy in L2 writing (Golparvar & Khafi, 2021; Kirmizi & Kirmizi, 2015), which is also the focus of this study. Among the various approaches that investigate the challenging nature of L2 writing, employing a psycho-social view is particularly valuable in that psycho-social factors including self-efficacy and learners' feelings act as determinants of the amount of effort to be put by L2 learners in their L2 writing development (Han & Hiver, 2018). In this study, which relies on the acknowledgment of L2 writing as a means and aim of L2 learning, the context is an English-medium-instruction Turkish state university's English as a foreign language (EFL) preparatory program. The most salient motive of preparatory school students to learn English arises from the fact that English functions as the gateway for them to be eligible for studying their majors. Additionally, when they start their majors, they are required to submit their tasks in English. As such, before they rise to the stage of writing to learn the content in their departments, they need to write to learn the language in the preparatory program. Considering that writing is such an important means and goal of L2 learning for students in the context of this study and other EFL preparatory programs in Türkiye, it is important to investigate their self-efficacy as a factor impacting L2 writing as it offers insights into the learning and teaching of a successful second language learning process. Despite being such an important factor, the self-efficacy concept in relation to L2 writing of Turkish EFL learners, particularly for those enrolled in an EFL preparatory program, is still an under-researched area with few existing studies (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2020; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Öztürk & Saydam, 2014). This study aims to contribute to the existing literature by offering some insights into the L2 writing self-efficacy of Turkish EFL learners.

### *Self-efficacy in L2 Writing*

During the longitudinal process of academic learning, learners develop a sense of agency, which refers to their self-image of their academic competencies (Zimmerman, 1995). Self-efficacy is treated as a factor that is highly decisive in learners' formation of an academic self-image (Graham, 2007). Self-efficacy is defined as "believes in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to manage



prospective situations'' (Bandura, 1995, p. 2). This set of beliefs that learners have in relation to their L2 learning experience is highly decisive in how much they invest in their learning process (Mathews, 2010). Self-efficacy is of crucial importance in determining various details including L2 learners' goal setting, strategy choices, their commitment to tasks and ultimate task performance (Schunk, 2003). Being so pivotal to learners' L2 achievement, self-efficacy has been researched in relation to different language skills including reading (McLean & Poulshcok, 2018; Murad Sani & Zain, 2011), vocabulary (Mizumoto, 2013; Onoda, 2011), speaking (Bárkányi, 2021; Kitikanan & Sasimonton, 2017), and listening (Graham, 2010). Bandura (1995) highlights self-efficacy to be a changeable mechanism affected by four main factors, which are one's personal record of achievements and failures, their observations about others' success, the amount of encouragement given by others, and one's emotional state. Considering this highly unstable nature of perceived self-efficacy, it is important to first identify what level of self-efficacy language learners hold in relation to specific language skills. As Wyatt (2021) suggests, identification of L2 learners' self-efficacy is useful for encouraging language teachers to adequately address their learner's emotional approaches to L2 learning process.

Self-efficacy has been also researched with regard to L2 writing development of EFL learners. A very recent study confirming self-efficacy to be a critical factor in L2 writing achievement was conducted by Golparvar and Khafi (2021). In their study, the researchers examined the relationship between L2 self-efficacy and summary writing performance of a group of EFL learners (n= 192). The results showed that the students' high self-efficacy was a predictor of their L2 summary-writing success. In the Turkish context, Kirmizi and Kirmizi (2015) explored Turkish EFL learners' L2 writing self-efficacy perceptions along with their L2 writing anxiety. All the participants (n=172) were from the different grades of the same English-major department. The results showed that the participants reported having medium-level self-efficacy regardless of their grades. Similar to what previously described studies reported, as the self-efficacy level increased, the participants' anxiety level decreased. Along with these studies in which self-efficacy was found to be a predictive factor of L2 writing achievement, some other studies investigated the factors that influence the construct of L2 writing self-efficacy.

Pajares (2003) analyzed social factors related to self-efficacy in L2 writing and pointed at teachers' support, gender, and students' self-image, which can be influenced even by being a member of a minority group in the society. Woodrow (2011) conducted a study that measured the relationship between L2 writing task achievement and self-efficacy with Chinese EFL college students (n= 738). The results that also confirmed the predictive value of self-efficacy on L2 writing achievement showed that students' self-efficacy was shaped by three factors: how much students believed in their own chance of success, the amount of individual study time and parental pressure. While there was a positive correlation between the first two factors and self-efficacy, parental pressure negatively affected self-efficacy.

As a decisive factor, self-efficacy in L2 writing has been also researched in Turkish context. Among the few existing studies, Erkan & Saban (2011) questioned the relationship between writing apprehension, writing self-efficacy and attitudes of Turkish EFL learners (n= 188) enrolled in a state university's preparatory program. Among the findings, they highlighted the negative correlation between writing apprehension level and writing self-efficacy level of their participants in line with the existing research. Despite being a valuable study in the field, Erkan & Saban (2011) did not take proficiency level as a variable by leaving it for future studies. One of the two studies that investigated the relationship between language proficiency level and self-efficacy in L2 writing was conducted by Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2020) in Turkish EFL preparatory program context. The researcher reported a moderate-level writing self-efficacy and found that proficiency level of the participants was not a predictor of their L2 writing self-efficacy. Considering that the population range was limited to A1 and B1 students in Bektaş-Çetinkaya's (2020) study, a need for collecting data from other proficiency levels emerges. One other study with a similar methodological orientation was conducted by Ozturk and Saydam (2014). The researchers explored the relationship between L2 writing self-efficacy and L2 writing anxiety of EFL learners (n=240) from 8 different Turkish universities. Yet, the proficiency level was limited to A1, A2 and B1 learners. Similar to Bektaş-Çetinkaya's (2020) study, they found a moderate level of self-efficacy across their participants, for whom the level of linguistic knowledge was found to be the most significant indicator of L2 writing self-efficacy. As the discussion in this section suggests, the investigation of Turkish EFL learners' self-efficacy in L2

writing needs to be widened with more studies that can build on the limited range of existing studies. It is deducible from these studies that as with any other psychological factor, self-efficacy is not a stable concept and may augment or deteriorate depending on various factors throughout the learning experience (Piniel & Csizer, 2015). This study was conducted to explore one of these factors, which is language proficiency as it is highly important in the context of the study, where the content of English education is framed around learners' proficiency levels. Given the scarcity of studies on L2 writing self-efficacy of preparatory program students in the Turkish context, this study aims to expand the inquiry between proficiency level and self-efficacy by getting data from three proficiency levels spanning from A2 to B1+. It aims to answer the following research question:

- Is there a significant relationship between language proficiency and L2 self-efficacy level of Turkish EFL learners?

## **Methodology**

### ***Research Design***

This study draws on a quantitative analysis in which the data was gathered via a 5-point-Likert scale questionnaire. Adopting a quantitative approach was thought appropriate for this study in which the proficiency level of the respondents was taken as the main variable. As Rahman (2017) suggests, to seek if there are patterns in relation to any specific social behaviour, amounting data with quantitative methods is particularly useful. A particular drive for conducting this study with a quantitative method was from Bandura's (2005) emphasis on measuring perceived self-efficacy with domain-specific instruments. Also relying on Bektaş-Çetinkaya's (2020) observation that the instruments tailored to measure L2 learners' perceived self-efficacy into writing is limited, this study was designed to use an l2 writing self-efficacy scale developed by Yavuz-Erkan (2004, as cited in Erkan & Saban, 2011), which was developed by considering the experiences of Turkish EFL learners enrolled in preparatory programs.

### ***Participants***

The data was gathered from 47 participants. They were EFL students enrolled in the preparatory program of a Turkish state university where medium of instruction was English. Learners who fail to prove required language proficiency, which is B2 in an in-

house proficiency exam, take this compulsory preparatory program at a pre-faculty level. The participants, who are enrolled in social science departments, need L2 writing as a skill not only to achieve the writing part of the proficiency exam but also to write fully developed essays in the exams that they take at their departments where they are also offered compulsory Academic Writing courses.

The participants in this study were reached by the purposive sampling method. They were in the classes the researchers were teaching, which made the data collection easy. They were from three different proficiency levels, namely from pre-intermediate (n=14), intermediate (n= 16) and upper-intermediate (n=17). These students' proficiency levels were determined depending on their scores from an in-house placement test. They were all offered a content that was designed to build on the previous level as the students progressed across the proficiency levels. Before the data was collected, the ethical committee report issued by Social Sciences University of Ankara was taken (Report No: 2022-40286). All the students were given a consent form and they were informed about the aim of the research and the content of the questionnaire.

### *Data Collection Instrument*

The self-efficacy in L2 writing questionnaire given to the students was adopted from Yavuz-Erkan (2004, as cited in Erkan & Saban, 2011), who developed that questionnaire as a part of her doctoral thesis. This questionnaire was deemed to be suitable and have content validity for this study as it was originally designed for Turkish EFL learners and validated by relying on the data from this group. Thus, it is taken to be a valid instrument for our research-group as well. The questionnaire consisted of 28 items in total. For this study, the instrument was administered in Turkish so as to avoid language proficiency to be a barrier for learners to comprehend the items. One of the researchers translated the English version of the questionnaire into Turkish. Then, the other researcher translated it into English and inconsistencies were detected in the back-translation process.

### *Data Collection Procedure and Analysis*

The questionnaire was administered in online format through the learning management system of the institution. The participants were asked to respond to the questionnaire by logging into this system within the class time. It took nearly 15 minutes to complete, during which the researchers encouraged learners to ask for clarification on any item that was not clear to them. For the data analysis, SPSS 16 was employed. Cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be .842 for the questionnaire, which proved its reliability as an instrument to be used for this study. Because the research sample was limited in number, the normal distribution feature was not sought in the data and nonparametric test of Kruskal-Wallis was run to see if the students from three proficiency levels differed in terms of their L2 writing self-efficacy.

### **Results**

The scores of the participants were treated differently in order to understand if the participants' self-efficacy perceptions differed significantly in line with their proficiency level. The initial analysis was level based and made to see how the students from each level scored on individual items. This analysis allowed a grouping of the items. The mean scores for each item were calculated and ranked from the highest to the lowest ones. Table 1 shows the ranking of items for the participants from each group.

**Table 1.** Grouping of items as low, medium, or high-scored across the proficiency levels

Level	Low-Scored Items	Medium-Scored Items	High-Scored Items
Pre-intermediate	3,4,8,9,11,12,13,15,16,18, 19,23,24,25,26,28	1-2-5-6-7-10-14-17-20- 21-22-27	-
Intermediate	28	1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8-9-10-11- 12-13-14-15-16-17-18- 19-20-21-22-23-24-26-27	25
Upper-intermediate	-	2-3-5-6-7-8-10-11-13-14- 21-22-25-27	1-4-9-12-15-16-17- 18-19-20-23-24-26- 28

For being able to comment on the scores of students from each proficiency level separately, there was a need to group the items as the ones for which the participants scored as low, medium, and high. The cut-off points were determined by checking the score range of the participants. Accordingly, the cut-off points for grouping items were as follows: low= 14-19; medium= 20-26; high= 27-33. Table 1 shows that for all levels, the items displayed a different grouping pattern. For pre-intermediate students, there were moderately more items (n=16) with low-score means in comparison to the ones with medium-scores (n=12). For pre-intermediate level participants, there was no item whose mean score was in the high-scored category. When the content of the items was analysed, it was seen that both the low-score and medium-score items were about all aspects of L2 writing. The issues ranged from using genre-identification to self-editing and included details about correct punctuation and grammatical accuracy.

For the intermediate students, there was a different pattern. Whereas there was just one item in each of the low and high-scored categories, the rest of the items fell into the category of medium-scored items (n=26). The low-scored item by the intermediate-level participants was about time management in timed-writing tasks and the participants' responses indicated their low level perceived self-efficacy about this topic. The only high-scored item by the intermediate-level participants was about being able to keep the writing task within a given word count limits. Finally, upper-intermediate students did not score low for any of the items. The items were seen to be distributed to the medium-scored items category (n= 14) and high-scored items category (n=14) in a balanced manner. Similar to the case of pre-intermediate level participants, the content of the items in both categories were overlapping and they were about a wide array of topics from producing arguments to achieving structural complexity. Furthermore, to see if the mean scores for individual items showed significant differences across the levels, Kruskal-Wallis test was run for each item.

**Table 2.** Comparison of mean scores for items across the proficiency levels

Item	M for Pre-intermediate Students	M for Intermediate Students	M for Upper-intermediate Students	Sig.
1. I can write interesting and appropriate response to a given topic.	20,14	21,68	29,84	0,56
2. I can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic.	24,50	26,12	21,31	,503
3. I can use appropriate style to the task.	19,89	25,03	26,50	,286
*4. I can easily match style with topic.	16,79	26,29	27,88	0,27
5. I can generate ideas to write about easily.	24,68	24,15	23,25	,956
6. I can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.	23,75	25,00	23,16	,913
7. I can write on an assigned topic without difficulty	22,25	22,74	26,88	,492
8. I can easily find examples to support my ideas.	18,64	25,82	26,75	,170
*9. I can justify my ideas in my compositions.	17,61	22,62	31,06	0,13
10. I can write grammatically correct sentences in my compositions.	20,36	24,97	26,16	,439
11. I can use complex language in writing without difficulty.	18,82	26,79	25,56	,206
12. I can produce error free structures.	18,50	25,00	27,75	,146
13. I can spell very well.	19,79	26,91	24,59	,313
14. I can use the punctuation correctly.	22,46	25,38	23,88	,803
15. I can edit my compositions for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing.	19,29	23,59	28,56	,088
16. I can easily use structures I have learned in my class accurately.	17,36	26,06	27,63	,109
17. I can link ideas together easily.	20,71	22,53	28,44	,189
*18. I can use transition words correctly to make my composition a better one.	14,32	24,65	31,78	,002
*19. I can use connectors correctly to make my composition a better one.	17,46	24,15	29,56	,031
20. I can use a wide range of vocabulary in my compositions.	23,86	20,94	27,38	,372

**Table 2.** Comparison of mean scores for items across the proficiency levels

Item	M for Pre-intermediate Students	M for Intermediate Students	M for Upper-intermediate Students	Sig.
21. I can use synonyms in a composition rather than repeating the same words over and over again.	23,46	23,26	25,25	,883
22. I can write a brief and informative overview of a given topic.	22,93	23,09	25,91	,773
*23. I can manage my time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing.	18,75	20,94	31,84	,010
24. I can rewrite my wordy or confusing sentences to make them clear.	19,82	22,41	29,34	,102
*25. I can extend the topic to fit in a given word limit.	15,50	29,21	25,91	,008
*26. I can choose and defend a point of view.	17,07	24,65	29,38	,023
27. I can make long and complex sentences.	20,25	24,94	26,28	,418
*28. I can fulfill a writing task without difficulty within a given time limit	19	19,82	32,81	,002

\*  $p < .05$

As can be seen in Table 2, the mean scores of items were considerably close to each other across the levels, except a few items. Several items were found to have a p-value which is less than or equal to the significance level, which is 0.05 and these were the items that indicated a significant difference between or across the levels. For these items numbered 4, 9, 18, 19, 23, 25, 26, 28, further analysis was run to see which levels differed from each other significantly.

Post-hoc analysis that allowed comparisons of mean scores for those items showed that for item 4, which is about deciphering the essay type, there was a significantly important difference between pre-intermediate and other two levels. Pre-intermediate students scored lower than both intermediate and upper intermediate students ( $p < .05$ ). There was no meaningful difference between the scores of intermediate and upper-intermediate students ( $p > .05$ ) for item 4.

Regarding item 9, which is related to providing justification for arguments, the significant difference was available only between pre-intermediate and upper-



intermediate level students. For item 9, the upper level students scored significantly higher ( $p < .05$ ) than pre-intermediate students.

Item 18 is about the proper employment of transitory words and for this item again pre-intermediate students scored significantly lower than both intermediate and upper-intermediate students while there was not a meaningful difference between the mean scores of intermediate and upper-intermediate students. Similar to item 18, item 19 was also about the functional use of connectors and pre-intermediate students scored significantly lower than upper-intermediate students ( $p < .05$ ).

For items 23 and 26, the only meaningful difference was found between pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate students, the latter of which scored significantly higher than the previous one ( $p < .05$ ). Item 23 was about time-management while item 26 was seen to be related to students' decision making on the point of view they would defend in a given essay.

Unlike the other elements, the only item for which pre-intermediate students scored significantly lower than intermediate level students was item 25 ( $p < .05$ ), which was about topic extension. The difference between the scores of pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate students for item 25 did not indicate a meaningful difference.

Finally, for item 28, which was again about time management during writing tasks, upper-intermediate students scored significantly higher than both pre-intermediate and intermediate students, separately ( $p < .05$  for each pair). This was the only item for which a significant difference was detected between the mean scores of intermediate and upper-intermediate students.

## **Discussion**

This study primarily aimed to discover the writing self-efficacy perceptions of English preparatory students enrolled in the same program. Considering that the perceived self-efficacy of individuals is not fixed and is responsive to different factors ranging from personality to task type (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), we find it important to access a research population from the very same institution to minimize the perceptual differences that can arise from contextual factors and such, which may distort the results.

As for the first research question addressing level-specific writing efficacy, the present study found that the self-efficacy perception of the participants had a direct correlation with the proficiency level and as the students progressed through the proficiency levels, their writing-self efficacy perceptions heightened. Accordingly, pre-intermediate students scored low for nearly half of the items about a range of topics from identifying essay genre to finding supporting ideas, from producing complex sentence structure to completing tasks within given time limits. The categorisation of items according to the participants' proficiency levels indicate that the development of L2 writing progresses gradually in parallel to their improvements in language proficiency. The pre-intermediate-level students may have scored low for many more items than the students at other levels because they did not feel well-equipped to express their ideas in English as the target language and this lack of self-efficacy was related to various issues ranging from content formation and sentence complexity to punctuation, to name but a few. This finding does not comply with that of Kahraman (2012), who found a moderate level of L2 writing self-efficacy for pre-intermediate level learners. The fact that the pre-intermediate learners' responses indicated moderate level of self-efficacy for some other items is partially in line with the findings of Apridayani and Teo (2021), who reported moderate level L2 writing efficacy for Taiwanese EFL students from A2 level proficiency. Apridayani and Teo (2021) found also moderate level of L2 writing-self efficacy for their B1 students, whose counterparts are intermediate level students in this study. Our study also found that the B1 students scored moderately for most of the items, which supports the findings of Apridayani and Teo (2021).

Regarding the fact that the upper-intermediate students scored high for a significantly big number of items in comparison to the other students in this study, this research confirms the findings of Çitil and Yurdakul (2020), who reported a positive influence of English preparatory program on learners' writing self-efficacy. Accordingly, the Turkish EFL participants in their study scored higher in L2 writing self-efficacy along with other language skills in post tests, which was taken as the contribution of the preparatory program to the language learning process. In a parallel manner, this study also shows that as learners progress across the proficiency levels, they appear to develop a higher perception of L2 writing self-efficacy because they expand their language proficiency along with L2 writing-specific knowledge. Since the

participants of this study took a well-planned L2 writing training through each proficiency level, it is no surprise that upper-intermediate students accumulated more information on L2 writing and reported higher self-efficacy for more items than the other levels.

However, upper-intermediate level participants scored high only for half of the items while displaying moderate self-efficacy perception for the other half, among which there were items about idea generation while writing. Thus, our findings are partially contradictory with those of Rahimpour and Nariman-Jahan (2010) who found that their upper-intermediate level participants expressed high self-efficacy levels in terms of producing ideas in a given concept. Still, the moderate self-efficacy perception of the upper-intermediate participants is in line with the study of Kirmizi and Kirmizi (2015), whose English-major participants from 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades also scored moderate in L2 writing self-efficacy. One implication is that Turkish EFL learners do not feel competent in L2 writing even though they commence taking the L2 training as of the preparatory program and practise this skill throughout their departmental studies. Another study was carried out by Çimenli and Çoban (2019) with Turkish EFL students from the preparatory program. Similar to Çitil and Yurdakul (2020), Çimenli and Çoban (2019) examined L2 writing self-efficacy perceptions and founded that B2 level students, equivalents of upper-intermediate students in this study, scored higher in L2 writing self-efficacy.

Overall, the mean scores of individual items showed that the scores for several items were medium for all levels and some areas were noticeably difficult for the students. Items 2, 5, 6, 7, and 22 were all about idea production and indicated that producing appropriate ideas on a given topic is a challenge for learners across the levels, as in the study of Genç and Yaylı (2019). Another point was accuracy, which was the theme of items 10 and 27 and for which the students had medium scores. The results indicated that the students approached grammatical accuracy and sentence complexity as issues lowering their writing efficiency, which was verified by the study of Tanyer and Susoy (2019).

## Conclusion

This study was conducted to see if the students' writing self-efficacy perceptions differed across proficiency levels. The findings indicated that the participants displayed a more positive attitude towards L2 writing as they progressed through the proficiency levels in the English language preparatory program. Taken with the results of other studies (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2020; Ozturk & Saban, 2014), the moderate level of self-efficacy of the participants in this study underlines the success of the L2 training given in an English language preparatory program in promoting their L2 writing skill. Yet, the fact that even upper-intermediate students did not show an evident high level of perceived self-efficacy suggests that the preparatory program contents should be enhanced to encourage higher self-efficacy regarding the writing skill of EFL learners. To identify the areas in need of improvement, future studies may be conducted with qualitative methods and ideally with longitudinal designs to track the path of development in L2 writing skill of EFL learners.

Though the level of perceived self-efficacy was not topic-oriented and did not show a topic-based distribution across the proficiency levels in this study, some items were seen to indicate challenging aspects for the participants across all proficiency levels. First, though in different degrees, idea production represents a pervasive concern for all proficiency levels and it is an issue that requires deeper investigation. This finding suggests that L2 writing training should be enhanced with strategies as well as activities that can assist students in producing ideas on given topics. Further studies can address the reasons underlying the low self-efficacy perceptions of Turkish EFL students on idea production. The second challenging aspect for the participants was to produce complex and grammatically accurate sentence structures. To address this issue, experimental research can be designed to find what kind of training EFL learners would benefit from.

This study is not without limitations. The study was conducted with a small group of participants, which restricts the generalizability of the findings. Moreover, the study relied on one tool as the data collection instrument. Further studies may be conducted with a bigger sample size and with the employment of alternative data collection instruments.

### Notes on the contributors

**Tuba Demirkol** is an assistant professor at the School of Foreign Languages, Social Sciences of University of Ankara. She teaches Linguistics, Translation and Methodology courses at the ELT department. Her research areas cover discourse analysis, English-medium instruction, academic English and pragmatics in L2 learning.

**Hakan Demiröz** is an associate professor at the School of Foreign Languages, Social Sciences of University of Ankara. He teaches Teaching Language and Literature, Advanced Grammar, Translation and Assessment of Language Skills at the ELT department. His research interest includes teaching reading and writing, use of literature in ELT, and assessment of language skills.

### References

- Al-Gharabally, M. (2015). The writing difficulties faced by L2 learners and how to minimize them. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research*, 3(5), 42-49.
- Altınmakas, D., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). An exploratory study on factors influencing undergraduate students' academic writing practices in Turkey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 37, 88-103.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2018.11.006>
- Apridayani, A., & Teo, A. (2021). The interplay among SRL strategies, English self-efficacy, and English proficiency of Thai university students. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 8(3), 1123-1143.  
<https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v8i3.20213>
- Bailey, D. R. (2019). Conceptualization of second language writing strategies and their relation to student characteristics. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 16(1), 135-148.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2019.11.1.9.135>
- Bandura, A. (1995). Exercise of personal and collective efficacy in changing societies. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 1-45). Cambridge University Press.
- Bandura, A. (2005). Guide for creating self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 307-337). Information Age Publishing.
- Bárkányi, Z. (2021). Motivation, self-efficacy beliefs, and speaking anxiety in language MOOCs. *ReCALL*, 33(2), 143-160.  
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344021000033>
- Bektaş-Çetinkaya, Y. (2020). Writing self-efficacy in English as a foreign language: Turkish Context. *International Journal of Language Studies*, 14(2), 89-102.

- Bian, X., & Wang, X. (2016). Chinese EFL undergraduates' academic writing: Rhetorical difficulties and suggestions. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6(1), 20-29.
- Celaya, M. L., & Nav es, T. (2009). Age-related differences and associated factors in foreign language writing: Implications for L2 writing theory and school curricula. In R. M. Manchon (Ed.), *Writing in foreign language contexts: Learning, teaching, and research* (pp. 130–155). Multilingual Matters.
- Citil, C., & Yurdakul, B. (2020). Examining English self-efficacy beliefs of university preparatory class students. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 20(86), 39-60. <https://doi.org/10.14689/ejer.2020.86.3>
- Çimenli, B., & Çoban, M. H. (2019). Self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulated learning strategies of prep school students and their relation with language proficiency levels. *Bartın University Journal of Faculty of Education*, 8(3), 1072-1087. <https://doi.org/10.14686/buefad.603454>
- Dipolog-Ubanan, G. F. (2016). L1 influence on writing in L2 among UCSI Chinese students: A case study. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities*, 24(4), 1841-1853.
- Erkan, D. Y., & Saban, A. İ. (2011). Writing performance relative to writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing: A correlational study in Turkish tertiary-level EFL. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 13(1), 164-192.
- Ekmekçi, E. (2018). Exploring Turkish EFL students' writing anxiety. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, 18(1), 158-175.
- Fathi, J., Ahmadnejad, M., & Yousofi, N. (2019). Effects of blog-mediated writing instruction on L2 writing motivation, self-efficacy, and self-regulation: A mixed methods study. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 159-181. <https://doi.org/10.22055/RALS.2019.14722>
- Genç, E., & Yaylı, D. (2019). The second language writing anxiety: The perceived sources and consequences. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 45(45), 235-251. <https://doi.org/10.9779/PUJE.2018.231>
- Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *The Academy of Management Review*, 17(2), 183-211. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258770>
- Golparvar, S. E., & Khafi, A. (2021). The role of L2 writing self-efficacy in integrated writing strategy use and performance. *Assessing Writing*, 47, 100504. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2020.100504>
- Guo, X., & Huang, L. S. (2020). Are L1 and L2 strategies transferable? An exploration of the L1 and L2 writing strategies of Chinese graduate students. *The Language Learning Journal*, 48(6), 715-737. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2018.1435710>

- Graham, S. (2010). Learner strategies and self-efficacy: Making the connection. *Language Learning Journal*, 35(1), 81-93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571730701315832>
- Han, J., & Hiver, P. (2018). Genre-based L2 writing instruction and writing-specific psychological factors: The dynamics of change. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 40, 44-59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2018.03.001>
- Ortega, L. (2011). Reflections on the learning-to-write and writing-to-learn dimensions of second language writing. In R. M. Manchon (Ed.), *Learning-to-write and writing-to-learn in an additional language 31*, pp. 237-250. John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.1075/llt.31.16ort>
- Qasem, F. A. A., & Zayid, E. I. M. (2019). The challenges and problems faced by students in the early stage of writing research projects in L2, University of Bisha, Saudi Arabia. *European Journal of Special Education Research*, 4(1), 32-47. <https://dx.doi.org/10.46827/ejse.v0i0.2271>
- Kahraman, A. (2012). Prospective ELT teacher's sense of writing self-efficacy and its effects on writing achievement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 711-714. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.186>
- Kim, K. J., & Pae, T. I. (2021). Examining the simultaneous effects of L1 writing, L2 reading, L2 proficiency, and affective factors on different task types of L2 writing. *Discourse Processes*, 58(7), 662-680. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0163853X.2021.1872989>
- Kirmizi, Ö., & Kirmizi, G. D. (2015). An investigation of L2 learners' writing self-efficacy, writing anxiety and its causes at higher education in Turkey. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 4(2), 57-66. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v4n2p57>
- Kitikanan, P., & Sasimonton, P. (2017). The relationship between English self-efficacy and English learning achievement of L2 Thai learners. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 10(1), 149-164. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1229638.pdf>
- Kormos, J. (2012). The role of individual differences in L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(4), 390-403. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2012.09.003>
- Kormos, J., & Trebits, A. (2012). The role of task complexity, modality, and aptitude in narrative task performance. *Language Learning*, 62(2), 439-472. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00695.x>
- Lu, Y. (2010). *Cognitive factors contributing to Chinese EFL learners' L2 writing performance in timed essay writing*. [Doctoral dissertation, Georgia State University]. <https://doi.org/10.57709/1396514>
- Manchón, R. M., & Larios, J. R. D. (2008). Writing-to-learn in instructed language learning contexts. In Soler, E.A., Jordà, M.S. (Eds.) *Intercultural language use and language learning* (pp. 101-121). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-5639-0\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-5639-0_6)
- Matthews, P. H. (2010). Factors influencing self-efficacy judgements of university students in foreign language tutoring. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(4), 618-635. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01057.x>

- McLean, S., & Poulshock, J. (2018). Increasing reading self-efficacy and reading amount in EFL learners with word-targets. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 30(1), 76–91.
- Mizumoto, A. (2013). Effects of self-regulated vocabulary learning process on self-efficacy. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 253-265. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2013.836206>
- Murad Sani, A., & Zain, Z. (2011). Relating adolescents' second language reading attitudes, self-efficacy for reading, and reading ability in a non-supportive ESL setting. *The Reading Matrix*, 11(3), 243-254.
- Onoda, S. (2011). Examining the relationships between self-efficacy, effort regulation strategy use, and English vocabulary skills. *Reading*, 24, 107-125.
- Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 19, 139–158. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10573560308222>
- Piniel, K. & Csizér, K. (2014). Changes in motivation, anxiety and self-efficacy during the course of an Academic Writing Seminar. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 164-194). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092574-015>
- Rahimpour, M., & Nariman-Jahan, R. (2010). The influence of self-efficacy and proficiency on EFL learners' writing. *Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, 7(11), 19-32.
- Rahman, M. S. (2017). The advantages and disadvantages of using qualitative and quantitative approaches and methods in language “testing and assessment” research: A literature review. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 6(1), 102-112. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/jel.v6n1p102>
- Schunk, D. (2003). Self-efficacy for reading and writing: Influence of modelling, goal setting and self-evaluation. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 19(2), 159-172. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10573560308219>
- Siefert, T. R. (2013). Translation in foreign language pedagogy: the rise and fall of the grammar translation method (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). Harvard University. Available at <https://nrs.harvard.edu/urn-3:HUL.InstRepos:10952296>
- Silva, T., & Brice, C. (2004). Research in teaching writing. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 70-106. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190504000042>
- Shukri, N. A. (2014). Second language writing and culture: Issues and challenges from the Saudi learners' perspective. *Arab World English Journal*, 5(3), 190-207.
- Tahmouresi, S., & Papi, M. (2021). Future selves, enjoyment and anxiety as predictors of L2 writing achievement. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 53, 100837. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2021.100837>
- Tanyer, S., & Susoy, Z. (2019). Is L2 writing difficult? Causal attributions of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers and relevance to writing scores. *Language Teaching and Educational Research*, 2(1), 20-40. <https://doi.org/10.35207/late.499153>



- Woodrow, L. (2011). College English writing affect: Self-efficacy and anxiety. *System*, 39(4), 510-522. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.10.017>
- Wyatt, M. (2021). Research into second language learners' and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: Making the connections. *TESOL Quarterly*, 55(1), 296-307. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3010>
- Zabihi, R. (2018). The role of cognitive and affective factors in measures of L2 writing. *Written Communication*, 35(1), 32-57. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088317735836>
- Zabihi, R., Mousavi, S. H., & Salehian, A. (2020). The differential role of domain-specific anxiety in learners' narrative and argumentative L2 written task performances. *Current Psychology*, 39, 1438-1444. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-9850-6>
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and educational development. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 202-231). Cambridge University Press.

LITERARY ARTICLES & ESSAYS**Stand-up that stands out:****Analysis of gendered sequences from a Foucauldian perspective**

Nur Sürüç Şen

Anadolu University, Turkey/Contact: [nssuruc@anadolu.edu.tr](mailto:nssuruc@anadolu.edu.tr) **Abstract**

This article intends to unveil the conceptualization of gender and power dynamics buried in the sequences uttered by Turkish female comedians in their stand-up performances. Investigating ten clips of staged performances, 69 gendered and 28 failed utterances are given a closer look with the help of thematic analysis under in vivo coding framework. Furthermore, the utterances are transcribed and analyzed in line with conversation analysis premises. The findings might shed light upon the content of the instances alongside discursive strategies that the comedians use to tackle gender and power issues. This defined artifact analysis attempts to put forward how the Turkish female comedians place themselves and other women with regards to power dynamics in the society under the roof of their story lines. Basing on their reactions, audiences' attitudes towards the subject matter have been analyzed. In this respect, humor functioned in many ways such as depicting others' expectations and impositions upon women, eradicating passivized roles assigned by the society, and so on. Overall, the analysis demonstrates that humor can have several dimensions, operating as reflecting on the experiences and societal perceptions in the eyes of a woman. Within the analyzed dataset, the instances seem to be unearthing certain patterns and recursive experiences found in the stories of the comedians.

**Keywords**

*Humor, gender, power, Foucault, stand-up performance, discursive function*

**Submission date**

22.09.2021

**Acceptance date**

06.05.2022

© 2022 The Literacy Trek &amp; the Authors – Published by The Literacy Trek

**APA Citation**

Sürüç Şen, N. (2022). Stand-up that stands out: Analysis of gendered sequences from a Foucauldian perspective. *The Literacy Trek*, 8(2), 223-241. <https://doi.org/10.47216/literacytrek.998939>

**Introduction**

Previously, women were regarded as passive objects of humor, receiving public jokes with a silent smile. The wave of change in gendered domain of humor, triggered by several sociological pressing events, started from the Western societies (Kotthoff, 2006b) with the millennium. The combination of femininity and use of active humor is becoming more and more apparent in the mainstream. Such analytical methods applied to humor in a given discourse might provide novel understanding of its dialogical features better (Kotthoff, 2006b).

Gender is referred as “a system of meanings that influences access to power, status, and material sources.” (Crawford, 2003, p. 1413). In this vein, gender is thought to be open to be constructed, deconstructed or even co-constructed by using humor (Crawford, 2003). Depending on the social context, the interlocutors might use gender to perform a particular social identity or to highlight a gendered dimension (Meyerhoff & Niedzielski 1994; Meyerhoff 1996; Hay, 2000; Eckert & McConnell-Ginet 2007; Cameron 2009; Holmes & Marra, 2010). In this sense, comedians might help people to have more inclusive perspective and challenge pre-set power structures (Russell, 2002; Willis, 2005) via verbal reconceptualization.

Drawing on a Foucauldian perspective, the notion of power in this paper occupies a considerable place, negotiated, and built through interactions (Foucault, 1994; Adegbebo, 2017). It can be demonstrated in various ways for several orientations such as challenging an imposed perspective. Nevertheless, Foucault (1972) discussed that “knowledge is (also) a power over others, the power to define others” (Tang, 2019, p.523). This process (i.e.; subjectification) is also observable in stand-up performance contexts, where humor is objected to identify oneself sometimes at the expense of irrationalization of others. That is why; it has the potential to be constituted as a dynamic discourse in which the individuals are not seen as passive subjects, rather as promoters of discourses for underlining their power struggles. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to investigate the usage of humor in Turkish stand-up comedy by female comedians and to demonstrate the sequences about gender by taking a perspective that is power-sensitive. By drawing on the Foucauldian underpinnings of power/ knowledge dynamics demonstrated verbally, the linguistic performances of female Turkish comedians are addressed to be the subject of analysis throughout this paper.

### **Literature Review**

When it comes to stand-up comedy, several scholars have studied it as a context where gender is re-discovered, performed, turned upside down to trim patriarchal stereotypical ideologies (see Gilbert, 2004; Cullen, 2015). It was also observed that the audience is involved in scrutinizing the imposed status of women and demonstrating their own perspective (Bing & Scheibman, 2014). Nonetheless, there are almost

always two sides of a coin, implying that there might be an act of humor that reinforces the status quo, or challenges it according to Holmes and Marra (2002). In this sense subversive humor can be distinguished as confronting “existing power relationships, whether informal or formal, explicit or implicit... through discourse strategies which create social distance with the target of the humor and may strengthen bonds with the public.” (Holmes & Marra, 2002; p. 73).

The study conducted by Lampert and Ervin-Tripp (2006) demonstrates that gender and the perceived sympathy among the interlocutors might guide the selection of humor type. In this study, the comedians and the audience are in a small room where an intimate atmosphere is targeted via eye contact, inclusive teasing, and interaction. In the study conducted by Cortés-Conde and Boxer (2010), humorous self-disclosures are examined in all-female groups and it is demonstrated that they have subverted socially constructed gender roles drawing on the intimacy within the context. In a similar vein, Kotthoff (2007) investigates the female identity construction in conversational teasing, where novel gender identities were manifested through stories. On the other hand, Holmes (2006) considers the use of subversive humor in a corporation, which has given rise to the collective use of humor. In the aforementioned study, it is observed that a particular type of clothing is parodied by women to index subversive humor.

The present study might shed light upon a marked community, who are also scarce in number, by unearthing their statements. In this sense, bringing more examples from female stand-up performances might provide a better understanding upon the patterns of conceptualizing gender and power in a Turkish context. This, in turn, might illuminate the audience on the issues that are perceived as taboos, politicized opinions, and undermining women empowerment from the female comedians’ perspective. Their perspectives can be traced through their utterances, language play and stylization practices, giving implications on their life trajectories and the way that they operate imposed social roles in their context. For this reason, conceptualization of female stand-up comedy performances might be crucial since it informs us about;

- (i) how they approach the issues of gender and power in the Turkish context,

(ii) how societal norms are read and interpreted by the female comedians in Turkey,

(iii) how their conceptualizations relate to those from similar contexts across globe.

Overall, the concept of gender is regarded as objectified in the core of performed humor determining the nature of “fun” element and it is stated as only intelligible drawing on the local context (Delap, 2016; Matwick & Matwick, 2019). In a similar context, there is a need for more studies to unfold gender-based sequences of female comedians by a recent publication of Ruiz-Gurillo and Linares-Bernabéu (2020). Although there seems to be a considerable amount of interest in humor discourse from a gender perspective across the globe (Chiaro & Baccolini, 2014; Bing & Scheibman, 2014; Coates, 2014; Crawford, 2003; Cullen, 2015; Kotthoff, 2006), to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, the issue has not been attended to in the Turkish context much. In this light, the present study has set out to investigate the following research question as main focus:

R.Q.: How do the Turkish female comedians conceptualize gender and power in their stand-up performances?

## **Methodology**

### ***Research Design***

The present research can be described as an artifact analysis, since it is argued that artifacts are “the intended and unintended residues of human activity, (which) give alternative insights into the ways in which people perceive and fashion their lives” (Hodder, 1994, p. 304). In this regard, the video clips of the stand-up performances are delineated as artifacts. Falling into the social constructivist paradigm; the study aims at unveiling the voices of a socially marked community and interpreting their conceptualizations according to the context.

### ***Data Selection and Context of the Study***

Stand-up performances, which are held in smaller places where the distance between the comedian and the audience is shorter, might inform us about how the female comedians construct their scripts by touching upon particular points so that their way of coping with the hegemonic norms might be discovered. Making up of the main data

unit of analysis, the clips have been narrowed down according to the following preferences:

- (i) The clip must be recorded under staged stand-up performance parameters,
- (ii) The performance must belong to a Turkish woman,
- (iii) The clip must be aired publicly to a global video sharing platform,
- (iv) The clip must be shared by the comedian and/or with the approval of her,
- (v) The content of the clip must refer to gender and power dynamics,
- (vi) The duration of the clip must be at least two minutes.

The keywords for searching the clips are generated as Turkish equivalent words for “women stand up” in a global video sharing platform. As a result, 22 videos are found to be abiding by the first two criteria and they are reduced to 10 videos (47 minutes 34 seconds in total) after applying all the criteria for sampling. In this vein, data is made up of a collection of ten stand-up performance video clips delivered by various female comedians based in Turkey. The video clips are selected since they constitute for an authentic platform where humorous sequences can be examined with regards to gender and power dynamics. The present study is, thus, set out to examine the way humor functions in highlighting gender, undermining the socially imposed gender roles on a stand-up stage. In this vein, as can be seen in *Table 1*, the collection under analysis consists in 69 gendered and 28 failed sequences at total. Through examining such set of sequences, the speakers’ views upon gender and power in their context and the kinds of reaction that their conception is getting from the audience could be identified.

**Table 1.** Main data unit of analysis

Clip N°	Length	Humorous Sequences	Gendered Sequences	Failed
C1	02:13	21	6	0/0
C2	03:28	12	4	2/4
C3	05:16	41	21	2/2
C4	06:32	29	8	4/7
C5	08:00	38	9	0/0
C6	08:45	9	4	3/3

**Table 1.** Main data unit of analysis

Clip N°	Length	Humorous Sequences	Gendered Sequences	Failed
C7	08:02	29	12	5/7
C8	03:52	0	0	7/7
C9	08:59	3	0	5/5
C10	02:32	17	5	0/0

*Data Analysis and Procedure*

Conversation analytic approach embraces a meticulous analysis of interaction in a particular discourse under the roof of interactional sociolinguistics. Its light onto consecutive speech acts in humor discourse is found to be efficiency in investigating the socially constructed phenomena behind joking (Norrick, 2010). The applicability of conversation analysis into humor is also commonly recognized by some scholars such as Kitzinger (2002), who argues that conversation analysis might be conducive in focusing on “the fine-grained details of women’s (and men’s) subjective, i.e., personal and political experience(s)” and unearthing socially constructed phenomenon such as power (p.56).

In this study, laughter is regarded as an identifier of a humorous sequence, following Norrick’s (1993) idea that joking, and laughter are located in the humor context as complementary fashion, establishing an adjacency pair. When interpreting the humorous sequences in the transcribed data of the stand-up performances, conversation analysis falls into the center of examining the discursive flow of interaction. To make the qualitative analysis conducive for comparison and interpretation, each humorous sequence is transcribed following the principles of Hoey and Kendrick (2017). In this regard, Schnurr and Chan (2011) demonstrate that the audience might connect with the comedian by also playing along, joking back, smiling, laughing, or giving no reaction, which might show their alignment or disalignment with the humored subject. To be able to get a more comprehensive understanding, failed humor will be given room in the analysis as a separate section.

Upon delivering the content analysis of the transcriptions, in vivo coding framework (Saldana, 2012) has been utilized to unearth how Turkish female comedians conceptualize gender and power in their own words. In this regard, the transcriptions are analyzed inductively, based on the emerging patterns that are

derived from the adjacency pair of humorous utterance + laughter, and humorous utterance + silence or considerably amount of less interaction than usual. The utterances are analyzed under lexical choice, under the description of study areas within the ‘institutionality of interaction’ put forward by Heritage (2005). The lexical choices are relevant here to demonstrate the participants’ ways of producing particular roles and identities in front of an audience. While interpreting the data; indexicality, pause, style shifting, and nonverbal communication are also taken into consideration. To assure validity of the content analysis to a certain amount, an expert holding an MA degree in English Language Teaching has been selected as an external audit and reviewed the transcribed data with codes. Via negotiation, the codes are updated to become more descriptive of the humorous sequences.

## **Findings and Discussion**

### *Quantitative Findings*

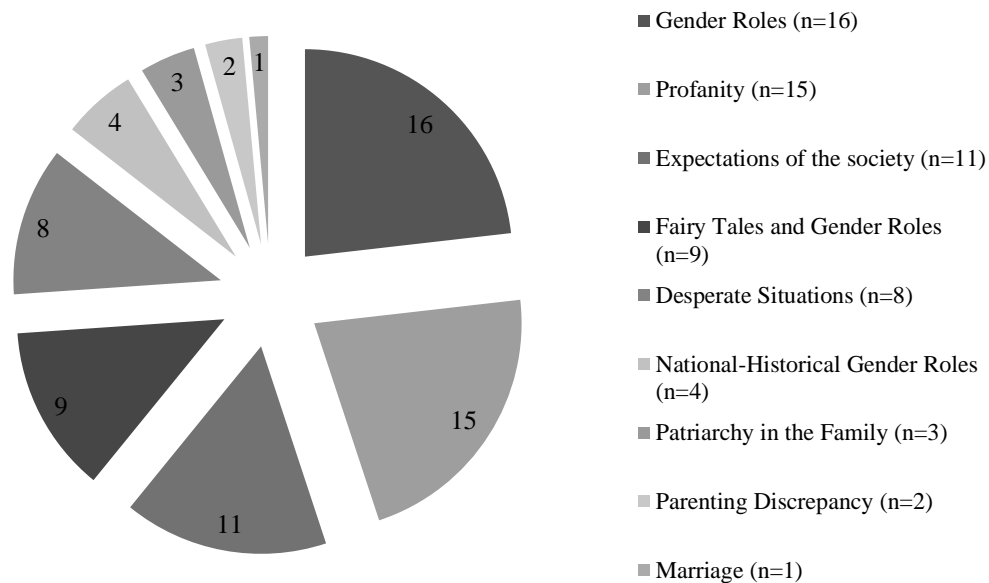
Considering the topics mentioned by Turkish female comedians, the following figures demonstrate the frequencies found in the dataset with the help of descriptive statistics. The topics emerged in the analysis can be unfolded as following:

- *Gender Roles*, denoting the outer views on womanhood assigned by the society;
- *Profanity*, highlighting the local tendency to use of specific words that belong to femininity when cursing;
- *Expectations of the Society*, indicating a set of permissible behavior that is imposed upon women by other people;
- *Fairy Tales and Gender Roles*, criticizing the stereotypical passive roles assigned to women in the fairy tales;
- *Desperate Situations*, describing the situations where women are left alone with their unpleasant experience;
- *National-Historical Gender Roles*, covering the views of society upon role of gender in the historical and national context;



- *Patriarchy in the Family*, giving insight upon the gender/power dynamics regarded in the family;
- *Parenting Discrepancy*, depicting different parenting mindsets with regards to raising a boy versus a girl;
- *Marriage*, characterizing how society regards it as women’s priority.

As can be seen in the *Figure 1*, *Gender Roles* seem to be the topic attracting the most occurrences, followed by *Profanity*, *Expectations of the Society*, *Fairy Tales* and *Gender Roles*, *Desperate Situations*, *National-Historical Gender Roles*, *Patriarch in the Family*, *Parenting Discrepancy*, and *Marriage*, respectively. The topics are mostly regarded as controversial, dealing with gender and power at some point.

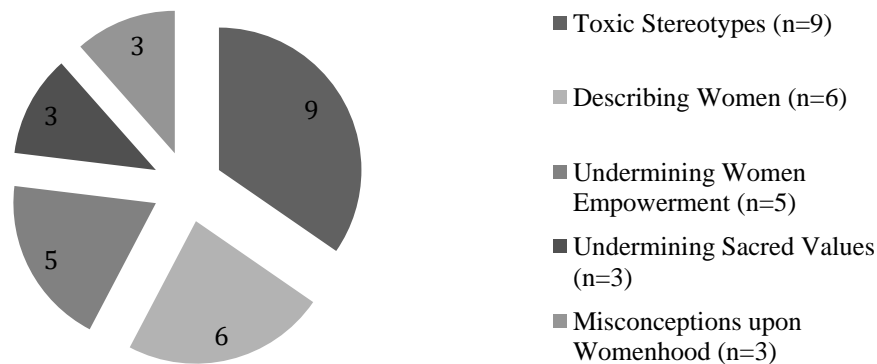


**Figure 1.** Frequency of Topics - Gendered Sequences

As mentioned earlier, the gendered sequences and failed sequences are analyzed separately, so that the instances reflecting the audience’s perceptions and opinions would surface in the analysis. Therefore, *Figure 2* shows the distribution of sentences, in which the audience stayed considerably quiet with no or lower amount of reaction while being exposed to the sentences loaded with gender and power dynamics. The topics of the sequences can be described as hereunder:

- *Toxic Stereotypes*, utilizing the cliché overgeneralizations with respect to being women and how it is viewed in Turkey as a disadvantage;

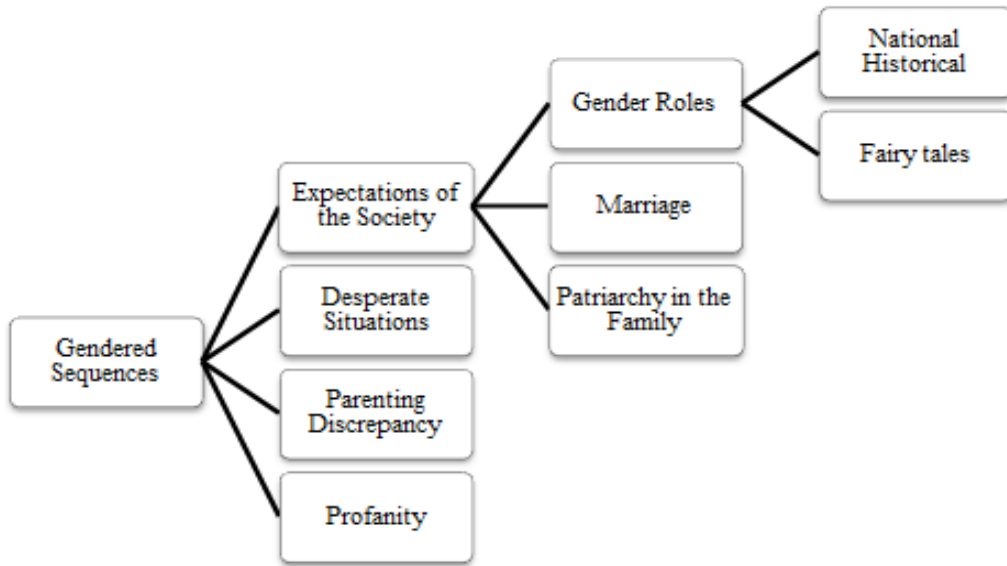
- *Describing Women*, presenting themselves with certain negative attributions or attaching loaded definitions to being women;
- *Undermining Women Empowerment*, performing a self-disgrace with respect to women;
- *Undermining Sacred Values*, blunting the sharp edges of the societal values such as motherhood through a humorous sequence;
- *Misconceptions upon Womanhood*, sharing unpleasant experiences resulted from false or no information upon womanhood when becoming an adolescent.



**Figure 2.** Frequency of Topics - Failed Sequences

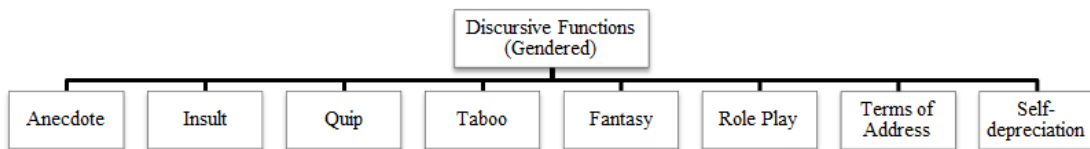
### ***Qualitative Findings***

As a result of in vivo coding framework (Saldana, 2012), the gendered sequences are categorized in a hierarchical order, as depicted in *Figure 3*. It can be examined that *Expectations of the Society* holds the majority of the weight since it is attached to other themes such as *Marriage*, *Patriarchy in the Family*, *Gender Roles*; which sets the roof for *National-Historical Gender Roles* and *Fairy Tales*. On the other hand; themes labeled as *Desperate Situations*, *Parenting Discrepancy*, and *Profanity* stands with a near hierarchy that of *Expectations of the Society*.



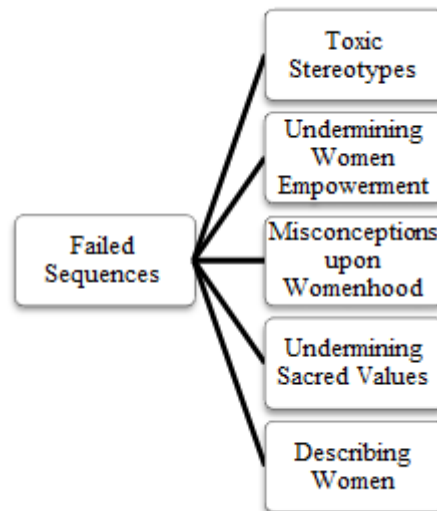
**Figure 3.** Hierarchical Distribution of Gendered Sequences' Themes

The analysis is further elaborated on by having a closer look to the discursive functions, which the comedians use for dealing with the topics regarding gender and power in their stand-up performances. The gendered sequences are performed using discursive strategies (see *Figure 4*) such as telling an anecdote, insulting certain concept, delivering a wise comment, unfolding taboo subject matters, using particular words that ring a bell in the mind of the audience, and perform in a way that puts the comedian down in a sarcastic way.



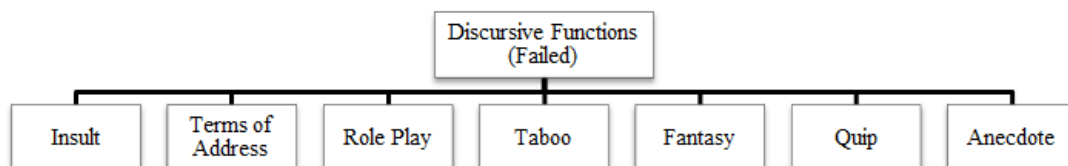
**Figure 4.** Discursive Functions of Gendered Sequences

When it comes to the other side of the coin, indicating the things that the audience keeps the distance to react to; failed sequences seem to be in the order displayed in *Figure 5*. Therefore, categories labeled as *Toxic Stereotypes*, *Undermining Women Empowerment*, *Misconceptions upon Womanhood*, *Undermining Sacred Values*, and *Describing Women* stand next to one another.



**Figure 5.** Hierarchical Distribution of Failed Sequences' Themes

Regarding the discursive strategies that are utilized in the course of failed instances (see *Figure 6*); there are certain functions which are undermining women empowerment through assigning negative labels to women, generalizing values of women with particular addressee words, mimicking a passive-dependent women, unearthing taboo subjects that are not normally spoken in public, creating a hypothetical scenario where women fails with abiding by the expectations of the society, verbalizing a personal observation upon how women is perceived by men, sharing a memory in which a woman is treated unfairly.



**Figure 6.** Discursive Functions of Failed Sequences

In the dataset, the exposure of certain mindsets clarifying the boundaries of womanhood seems to start at early ages in the family. The family is also viewed as the place where the little girls meet with men for the first time. They tend to conceptualize the concept of men through the closest male relatives such as father, uncle, or brother. It is also implied that meeting other men outside the family is frowned upon for a long time before it becomes permissible. In this light, the verbatim extract belonging to the category of Patriarchy in the Family is stated as following:

C1: Kız çocuklarının erkek figürleriyle karşılaştığı İLK yer, ailesindeki erkekler. Amcanı, abini, dayımı görüyorsun erkek diye. Uzun süre biz başka bir erkek görmüyoruz .hh (Audience laughs) (Anecdote)

Alongside growing up with a mindset limiting the actions of women, the comedians indicate some scenarios where they get no support when they face unpleasant situations. Let alone talk about it publicly, they cannot tell it even to their life partners. Instead, they are forced to feel indignity for having such experience, no matter what the underlying reason might be. It is depicted in the following extract from the *Desperate Situations*:

C3: Cevap verebileceğin hiçbir şey yok. (Audience laughs)  
Ve eşine sevgiline anlatabileceğin bir şey değil yani. Eve gidip şöyle diyemiyosun=(Audience laughs)Seda şimdi ERKEKLİK GURURU GEREĞİ (.) hani ben böyle bir şeyi- senin bana bunu bu şekilde anlatman= yani erkeklik gururu gereği ben böyle bir şeyi duyamam. (Audience laughs)  
Tamam °ben duyuram° şakin ol sinirlenme! (Audience laughs) (Role play)

Such unsupportive approach is reinforced with unanswered questions that are not allowed to be mingled with. Then, further in the same performance, the comedian shares an anecdote, in which her mother warns her about what is inappropriate regarding menstruation without any reasoning. The reason why the audience stays silent here might be that they take a pause to feel the weight of reality since the events are quite personal and also perceived as taboo. The extract hereunder belongs to the category of *Expectations of the Society*:

C7: Çünkü bize hiçbir şey anlatılmadı, tabular vardı:. X kromozomlular olarak özellikle tabular DAHA FAZLAYDI. (Audience gets silent) (Quip)  
Adet dedikleri[sanki adetlerimizden törelerimizdenmiş gibi]aslında regl denilen şey hayatıma girme öncesinde^... °Regl olursan sankin bunlardan kullanma!° (Her mother warned her not to use a tampon) (Audience gets silent) (Taboo, Anecdote)

The unsupportive and blurry environment, in which the female comedians grow up is intertwined with double standards brought up by the parenting practices valuing boys over girls. Pampering boys while providing no solid scaffold for girls, the parents are observed as creating a sense of overselling for boys, which boosts self-esteem of the boys in an unequal manner. The comedian underlines this inequality with a witty comment and indicates that it also calls for more effort to meet on a similar ground. In this vein, the following verbatim extract is labeled under *Parenting Discrepancy*:

- C7: *DİĞER bir kulvardan yetiştirilmiş erkek cinsiyle (.) konu[ortak]ortada buluşmaya çalışıyoruz aslında ama ↑ onlar FARKLI yetiştirilmişler (Audience gets silent)*  
*Onlar EN çabuk sen bitirirsin, hadi çocuğum BİRİNCİ sensin, AF:erin benim oğluma, en hızlı SEN yapıyorsun=°konu hız DEĞİL ki° (Audience laughs)*  
*Hız (.) felakettir ↓ (Audience laughs) (Role Play, Quip)*

The desperate situations are further observed in the usage of the profanity lexicon, denoting offensive or obscene words, which are prevalently used with feminine words by mostly males in a vulgar manner. The comedian brings up the disturbance caused by this prevalent usage offending women as individually and offers an impersonalized version of it by generating a male counterpart of such profanity words to even the odds. However, her attempts are mostly discouraged in that it cannot be regarded as a true counterpart in how it feels, sounds, etc. It can be examined in the following extract labeled under *Profanity*:

- C3: ANONİM bi \*\* olsun orda: (Audience laughs)  
 Çünkü kesinlikle üzerimize almıyoruz (Audience laughs)  
 Lafın: gelişi koyuyoruz kızım yani (Audience gets silent) (Taboo, Quip)

As for the gender roles assigned in the society, the role of women in the governance is highlighted with a quip. The reaction against such faded role is indicated alongside getting no reaction from the audience. It might imply a thoughtful pause, which the audience takes a break from humor and thinks about the weight of reality it holds. Further, this break is broken by another quip that a women governor would be criticized by the looks all the time, demonstrated in the following excerpt of *Gender Roles*:

- C4: Çok kadın hükümdar olmadığı için bilmiyoruz ama (Audience gets silent)  
 Ben buna kadın hükümdar farkı derim hh (Audience laughs; a male audience says "Bravo!" here.)  
 Erkek hükümdarlardan bir farkı da kilo aldığıında hamile sanılması (h) (Audience laughs) (Quip)

The roles assigned to genders are further verified by instances that imply the societal expectations of women. It is, therefore, viewed as uncommon to be a female comedian in this context, given that the expectations go against such extroversion of opinions. On the other hand, regarding the following extract; it is supported by the audience that women can be outgoing and active user of humor with a strong applause.

Moreover, societal expectations are commented on by self-depreciation in that the comedian thinks that she looks old enough to have kids and admits it before commented on. In this vein, the following extract is a member of *Expectations of the Society*:

C4: Stand up yapıyorum. Cumartesi günü çocuklarıyla evde oturmak yerine Sarıyer'den kalkıp Kadıköy'e gelmekte SAKINCA görmeyen en komik 500 kadın komedyeninden biriyim (Audience laughs and applauds)  
°İki çocuk° annesiyim ben=evet biliyorum gösteriyorum (Audience laughs) (Quip, Self-depreciation)

Passivized women in the fairy tales are subverted so that gender roles would overrun the expectations of the society. In the following excerpt, it is criticized and questioned deeply how the princes in the fairy tales so shallow and why the princesses do not take any action to save themselves other than waiting for the prince. The excerpt, thus, belongs to *Fairy Tales*:

C7: Herif kızın °suratını hatırlamıyo° (Audience laughs)  
Ayakkabıdan kızını arıyo (Audience laughs)  
Abi (.) nereye baktın sen bütün gece benle dans ederken? (Audience laughs)  
İKİNİZ nasıl çıkacaksınız abi ordan? (Audience laughs)  
Herif yine o=saçtan inebilir, kız YİNE kaldı orda (Audience laughs)  
Abla biraz saksıyı çalıştırsana-onu ke:s biyere bağla:, >herifi beklemek zorunda kalma daha erken bas git< (Audience laughs) (Quip)

Upon analyzing the gender and power dynamics in female stand up performances, it seems to be worth noticing that three clips out of the whole dataset are staged in a nation-wide talent contest aired on television. Before starting their performances, the comedians are mostly discouraged in that labeling their show as “stand-up” would set the expectations so high that they might not meet. The utterances are usually not paired with laughter, the audience only shows reaction when it is called for applause, the comedian gets rejected, or leaves the show. In the following instances, there seems to be stereotypes such as women caring too much about the looks, being over-dramatic, overgeneralized across nations, etc. They are categorized under *Describing Women* and *Toxic Stereotypes*:

C8: Kızları bir görebilir miyim HANIMLARI? (expecting an applause gesture)  
Umarım GÜNÜNÜZDESİNİZDİR (mumbling from audience) TEK derdim (.) ne giyicem. Nasıl görünüyorum? (expecting an applause gesture) (Terms of address)  
C9: (Mimics her husband) Canım(.) gelirken içerden bana çay getirir misin?  
Eyvahlar olsun bu kadına ELLİ ŞIRINGA botoks yemiş etkisi yaratır... NEE? BENDEN? (Audience gets silent)  
İşte KLASİK Türk kadını ... Maalesef öyle DEĞİL. Bir sürü kadın biliyorum hepsi böyle: (Audience gets silent) (Role Play)

### Concluding Remarks

In the present study, ten clips of stand-up performances belonging to Turkish female comedians are stretched out to unfold the sequences that index gender and power, which has been shaped by the perspective provided by Foucault. To this end, the humorous and failed sequences are transcribed and analyzed using in vivo coding framework (Saldana, 2012). For analysis purposes, the sequences are further put into transcription using the conventions of Hoey and Kendrick (2017). The findings are summarized into tables displaying the frequency distribution and the scope of the content regarding gendered (i.e., humorous sequences that are adjacent to laughter of the audience and failed sequences). Whereas the themes humorous sequences are ranked as *Gender Roles*, *Profanity*, *Expectations of the Society*, *Fairy Tales and Gender Roles*, *Desperate Situations*, *National-Historical Gender Roles*, *Patriarchy in the Family*, *Parenting Discrepancy*, *Marriage*; failed sequences are emerged as *Toxic Stereotypes*, *Describing Women*, *Undermining Women Empowerment*, *Undermining Sacred Values*, *Misconceptions upon Womanhood* in the data that is analyzed. As for the discursive functions utilized by the comedians to tackle the issues with gender and power in their performances, diverse strategies are found to be in use such as anecdote, quip, insult, taboo, role play, terms of address, fantasy, and self-depreciation.

Considering the research conducted on a global scale, Ruiz-Gurillo and Linares-Bernabéu (2020), in which the subversion of heteronormative societal norms is analyzed in terms of two female comedians, the results seem to be on the same ground with respect to using humor as a tool for reflecting upon stereotypical gender roles attached to women by the society. In this regard, the humor is observed to be a functioning tool that can act as a mirror depicting the society's views, impositions, and perceptions on womanhood; thus, it might help realizing how those affect themselves as women. It is also used as a platform where the comedians can unburden themselves from the faded roles assigned to women in the fairy tales, and the history. Additionally, it is used as a way to share their experiences upon the parenting discrepancy they are up against and how it affects their life trajectories in the long run. Considering the sequences labeled as failed, it has been found out that the audience has kept their distance with the utterances in the cases where they are loaded with



overused distortions upon how women is placed, described, limited by the society. It is also observed as failed sequences with respect to putting down women empowerment via insertion of belittling lexicon in the instances. Interestingly, the audience neutralize their reactions when it comes to the exchange of unpleasant personal experiences upon womanhood, the journey where they feel left alone to experience and be hold responsible for their and even others' actions. In a similar vein, in the instances where the comedians try to touch upon the values such as motherhood through humor, the audience opts for not reacting.

Overall, the stand-up performances have evidence that humor can be utilized as a multi-purpose gadget, which function as establishing a sincere platform for sharing experiences and perceptions in the eyes of a woman. Although limited to the very boundaries of the selected data that is analyzed, the utterances seem to be revealing deeper stories and experiences unfolding in the speech of the comedians. Such analyses might be beneficial in spotting the ways that empower, undermine, and identify women in a particular context, allowing for comparison alongside. In this regard, further research might take upon analyzing instances of the stand-up performances specified in gender and power dynamics uttered by female comedians from diverse contexts or male comedians. Doing so might reveal how women are regarded in that context, along with the comedians' perspective upon how gender and power is identified locally.

### **Notes on the contributor**

**Nur Sürüç Şen** is a PhD candidate in the Department of Foreign Language Education at Anadolu University. She holds a BA degree in the Foreign Language Education program at Bogazici University. Her interests encompass some teacher-centred and psychology integrated research topics such as pre-service teacher identity as well as some other topics from sociolinguistics. Currently, she is working as an English instructor at the School of Foreign Languages of National Defense University.

### **Acknowledgement**

The author would like to express her gratitude to the scholars who have reviewed this manuscript and shared their comments. She would also like to thank Assist. Prof. Işıl

Erduyan for the helpful comments on the initial draft and Assoc. Prof. Gökhan Öztürk for the insightful feedback upon this research. All errors belong to the author.

## References

- Adegbembo, B. F., & MacQuarrie, C. (2017). The word nigger as racialized and non-racialized: A Foucauldian discourse analysis on the n-word in a Canadian society. *Journal of Undergraduate Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 3, 16-24.
- Bing, J., & Scheibman, J. (2014). Blended space as subversive feminist humor. In D. Chiaro & R. Baccolini (Eds.), *Gender and Humour: Interdisciplinary and International Perspectives* (pp. 13–29). Routledge.
- Cameron, D. (2009). Theoretical issues for the study of gender and spoken interaction. In P. Pichler & E. M. Eppler (Eds.), *Gender and Spoken Interaction*, (pp. 1-17). Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230280748\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230280748_1)
- Chiaro, D., & Baccolini, R. (Eds.). (2014). *Gender and humor: Interdisciplinary and international perspectives*. Routledge.
- Coates, J. (2014). Gender and humor in everyday conversation. In D. Chiaro & R. Baccolini (Eds.), *Gender and humor: Interdisciplinary and international perspectives* (pp. 145–166). Routledge.
- Cortés-Conde, F., & Boxer, D. (2010). Humorous self disclosures as resistance to socially imposed gender roles. *Gender & Language*, 4(1), 73-97.
- Crawford, M. (2003). Gender and humor in social context. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 35(9), 1413-1430. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166\(02\)00183-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00183-2)
- Cullen, F. (2015). Are teenage girls funny? Laughter, humor and young women's performance of gender and sexual agency. *Girlhood Studies*, 8(2), 119-136.
- Delap, L. (2016). Raffaella Baccolini and Delia Chiaro: Gender and humor: Interdisciplinary and international perspectives. *Humor*, 29(1), 135-137. <https://doi.org/10.1515/humor-2015-0133>
- Eckert, P., & McConnell-Ginet, S. (2007). Putting communities of practice in their place. *Gender & Language*, 1(1), 27-37.
- Gilbert, J. R. (2004). *Performing marginality: Humor, gender, and cultural critique*. Wayne State University Press.
- Foucault, M. (1972). *The archeology of knowledge*. Tavistock.
- Foucault, M. (1994) [1981]. So is it important to think? In J. D. Faubion (Ed.), *Power: Essential Works of Foucault 1954-1984* (Vol. 3, pp. 454-458). Penguin.
- Hay, J. (2000). Functions of humor in the conversations of men and women. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 32(6), 709-742. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166\(99\)00069-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(99)00069-7)

- Heritage, J. (2005). Conversation analysis and institutional talk. In K. L. Fitch & R. E. Sanders (Eds.), *Handbook of language and social interaction*, (pp 103-147). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hodder, I. (1994). *The contextual analysis of symbolic meanings: Interpreting objects and collections*. Routledge.
- Hoey, E. M., & Kendrick, K. H. (2017). Conversation analysis. In A. M. B. De Groot, & P. Hagoort (Eds.), *Research methods in psycholinguistics and the neurobiology of language: A practical guide* (pp. 151-173). Wiley & Sons.
- Holmes, J., & Marra, M. (2002). Over the edge? Subversive humor between colleagues and friends. *Humor*, 15(1), 65-87.  
<https://doi.org/10.1515/humr.2002.006>
- Holmes, J. (2006). Sharing a laugh: Pragmatic aspects of humor and gender in the workplace. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 38(1), 26-50.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.06.007>
- Holmes, J. & Marra, M. (Eds.). (2010). *Femininity, feminism, and gendered discourse: A selected and edited collection of papers from the fifth international language and gender association conference (IGALA5)*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Kitzinger, C. (2002). Doing feminist conversation analysis. In P. McIlvenny (Ed.), *Talking gender and sexuality* (pp. 49-78). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Kotthoff, H. (2006). Pragmatics of performance and the analysis of conversational humor. *Humor*, 19(3), 271-304. <https://doi.org/10.1515/HUMOR.2006.015>
- Kotthoff, H. (2006b). Gender and humor: The state of the art. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 38(1), 4-25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.06.003>
- Kotthoff, H. (2007). Oral genres of humor: On the dialectic of genre knowledge and creative authoring. *Pragmatics*, 17(2), 263-296.  
<https://doi.org/10.1075/prag.17.2.04kot>
- Lampert, M. D., & Ervin-Tripp, S. M. (2006). Risky laughter: Teasing and self-directed joking among male and female friends. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 38(1), 51-72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.06.004>
- Matwick, K., & Matwick, K. (2019). Humor and performing gender on TV cooking shows. *Humor*, 32(1), 125-146. <https://doi.org/10.1515/humor-2017-0093>
- Meyerhoff, M., & Niedzielski, N. (1994). Resistance to creolization: An interpersonal and intergroup account. *Language & Communication*, 14(4), 313-330.
- Meyerhoff, M. (1996). Dealing with gender identity as a sociolinguistic variable. In V. Bergvall, J. Bing, & A. Freed (Eds.), *Rethinking language and gender research: Theory and practice* (pp. 202-227), Longman.
- Norrick, N. R. (1993). *Conversational joking: Humor in everyday talk*. Indiana University Press.
- Norrick, N. R. (2010). Humor in interaction. *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 4(4), 232-244. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2010.00189.x>
- Ruiz-Gurillo, L., & Linares-Bernabéu, E. (2020). Subversive humor in Spanish stand-up comedy. *Humor*, 33(1), 29-54. <https://doi.org/10.1515/humor-2018-0134>

- Russell, D. (2002). Self-deprecatory humour and the female comic. *Thirdspace: A journal of feminist theory & culture*, 2(1).
- Saldana, J. (2012). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (2nd ed.). Sage.
- Schnurr, S., & Chan, A. (2011). When laughter is not enough. Responding to teasing and self-denigrating humour at work. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(1), 20-35.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.09.001>
- Tang, C. W. (2019). Creating a picture of the world class university in Taiwan: a Foucauldian analysis. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 20(4), 519-532.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-019-09581-5>
- Willis, K. (2005). Merry hell: Humour competence and social incompetence. In S. Lockyer & M. Pickering (Eds.). *Beyond a joke*, (pp. 126–145). Palgrave Macmillan.