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Research Trends in Translanguaging: A Systematic Review of Master Theses and Doctoral Dissertations

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to review master theses and doctoral dissertations which were conducted upon translanguaging and catalogued on the official website of the Council of Higher Education, the National Theses Database in Türkiye. The theses and dissertations were analyzed in terms of emerging themes, research design, participants, data collection, and data analysis tools. There were 10 master theses and seven doctoral dissertations in the database. The gathered data were subjected to summative content analysis. According to the findings, while individual differences were the most studied theme in the master theses, it was the teaching methodology in the doctoral dissertations. Moreover, a mixed method was the most preferred research design, and tertiary level students were the most common participants in both groups. Finally, interviews were the most employed data collection tools while qualitative content analysis and descriptive statistics were the most preferred data analysis tools in both groups. Further educational implications are discussed.

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Statement of Publication Ethics	Since the study was conducted on public open master theses and doctoral dissertations which are readily accessible on the Council of Higher Education, the National Theses Database (https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/), no ethical committee approval was obtained. The current study does not require ethics committee approval.
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Introduction

The term translanguaging (TL) was initiated by Cen Williams in 1996 via a Welsh word, namely trawsieithu, to define a deliberate transition between English and Welsh while speaking and writing in a classroom setting (Andrews et al., 2018). Grosjean (2010, p. 4), on the other hand, makes an inclusive definition of bilingualism by defining bilinguals as people possessing both linguistic competence and performance via knowing and using at least two languages in their daily lives. Finally, Wei (2018) approaches translanguaging as a practical theory and considers it 'as a multilingual, multisemiotic, multisensory, and multimodal resource that human beings use for thinking and for communicating thought' (p. 26). According to Wei, rather than replacing code-switching, the term translanguaging highlights historical, political, and ideological aspects of languages. Thus, the term is stated to be an important tool for bilingual or multilingual educational contexts.

In line with the afore-mentioned definitions, a number of studies have been conducted on translanguaging with regard to bilingual education in different contexts. For instance, Creese and Blackledge (2010) recommended employing bilingual approaches rather than monolingual approaches and proposed a flexible educational approach in Chinese and Gujarati community language schools in England. Based on in-class observations and audio-recordings, the authors concluded that a flexible bilingual pedagogy encompasses several key strategies. These include repetition and translation in different languages, engaging the audience, fostering identity positions, acknowledging the necessity of using various languages to convey meaning, using multiple languages simultaneously for diverse objectives, and enhancing access to the curriculum and achievement. Also, Yuvayapan (2019) investigated the perspectives of Turkish EFL teachers on TL via a questionnaire, classroom observations, and semi-structured interviews. It was revealed that the participating teachers' views did not match their practices about L1 usage. Despite their positive views on employing TL in their classes, the teachers listed stakeholder expectations (from institution, colleague, parents) as limiting factors, inhibiting frequent use of TL. Specifically, the participants avoided using Turkish, though they attached importance to using L1 to assist students with a lower level of linguistic proficiency to make clarifications and teach vocabulary. It was observed that the teachers held classroom-based and student-based aims while employing TL rather than adopting a systematic approach to enhance the L2 performance of their students. Consequently, the mismatch between the participants' perceptions and practices was attributed to institutional and contextual factors since TL was considered to be an obstacle in teaching foreign languages by relevant stakeholders.

To contribute to the newly emerging literature on TL, this study aims to offer a systematic review of master theses and doctoral dissertations about TL in the Turkish EFL context in terms of emerging themes, participants, research design, data collection, and analysis tools. In this way, the findings of the current paper could shed light on the nature of TL-related studies, demonstrate what still needs to be done for further methodological considerations, and offer a research space for future researchers.

Literature Review

When the relevant literature on TL is reviewed, it is seen that previous studies focused on its definitions, applications, advantages, and challenges. TL is a controversial issue among scholars regarding its definition and epistemological underpinnings in that while TL practices are welcomed and accepted by some scholars and practitioners, some opponents who criticize the theoretical foundations of TL or welcome it partially (Vogel & García, 2017). To start with definitions, Canagarajah (2011) sees TL as an ability which multilingual speakers refer to via their diverse linguistic repertoire to move among various languages. Similar to García (2009), Lewis et al. (2012) argue that TL is a unique concept in terms of both definition and usage and make a distinction between TL and code-switching and translation. The authors consider TL as a context-bound and sociolinguistic concept and attribute an ideological and political side to it. Additionally, MacSwan (2017) offered codeswitching, translation, and borrowing as examples of TL and proposed 'an integrated multilingual model of individual bilingualism' for TL, claiming that although bilinguals possess diverse grammar, they rely on one language repertoire. On the other hand, Fang and Xu (2022) mention the common traits of Global Englishes and TL by questioning the ideology of native speakerism and favoring various discursive practices in classroom settings. The authors claim that these two concepts can complement each other in English Language Teaching (ELT) in the future. All things considered, TL could be defined as a perspective which extends to include all language learners to explain how they manage their mental processes for comprehension and production via employing their diverse linguistic repertoire dynamically to fulfill educational purposes (Conteh, 2018; Duarte, 2020; Lewis et al., 2012; Vogel & García, 2017; Wei, 2018).

In terms of applications, the reflections of the TL perspective may take different forms in educational settings for both teaching and testing purposes. For example, bilingual dictionaries as well as monolingual dictionaries can be employed for two-way transfer in different languages within the scope of two solitudes assumption in bilingual pedagogy (Cummins, 2005, 2008). Teachers can also utilize various languages in texts, tasks, rubrics, and tests for pedagogical purposes. Furthermore, they can refer to students' reflections and self-evaluations (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). These applications could be implemented with different age groups in that students at different age groups could benefit from TL, ranging from young learners (Csillik & Golubeva, 2020) to university students (Inci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022), for educational purposes. In this sense, by adopting 'critical translanguaging' to resist certain ideologies and protect linguistic and cultural diversity (Sah & Kubota, 2022), teachers can build a bridge – in other words an active dialogue- between theory and practice for bilingual and multilingual education (Cummins, 2019). However, it is possible to encounter a mismatch between TL-related attitudes and practices of teachers due to their own teaching beliefs or institutional expectations to refer to only English (Almayez, 2022). Therefore, teachers should be provided with opportunities and training about how to employ TL practices to improve their students' learning skills (Khan et al., 2021).

As for advantages and disadvantages, TL may offer various benefits or cause some challenges in educational settings. To start with the benefits, students can process and

comprehend the subject matter deeply, enhance their skills in the language where they are weaker (Baker, 2001, pp. 281-282), negotiate meaning, and communicate more easily (Nie et al., 2022). Also, multilingual learners can refer to TL to mediate understanding, co-construct meaning, and manifest knowledge (Portoles & Marti, 2017, p. 66). In addition, TL can be beneficial in terms of providing practice opportunities, scaffolding, employing group work for better comprehension and enhanced collaboration skills, and using L1 for classroom interaction (Erdin & Salı, 2020). Besides, TL practices could enhance students' critical awareness and facilitate their comprehension and communication (Yang et al., 2023). Finally, TL can enhance metalinguistic awareness (Zhang & Chan, 2021), and critical thinking and contribute to identity investment and power relations (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). Therefore, it can be claimed that TL practices are beneficial in cognitive, interactive, and affective domains (Teng & Fang, 2022).

Despite the afore-mentioned benefits, TL is not without challenges or problems. To begin with, Jaspers (2018) mentioned the transformative limits of TL by mentioning its less transformative probability and more commonality with monolingual authorities as a dominating force. Similarly, the participants in the study of Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri (2015) approached TL critically in that they found L1 use as an ineffective and conditional practice in the classroom setting, and linked TL to the grammar-translation method. García and Lin (2017), on the other hand, explored the benefits and challenges of employing TL practices for bilingual education and came up with two problem areas. The first one was related to the two theories, namely supporting the idea of softening boundaries and assuming a single language repertoire in bilingual education. The second one was related to the possibility of TL presenting a threat to minority languages. In this sense, practitioners could encounter some problems with the different socio-political status of the languages used in the class and the possibility of bias while employing different languages in a classroom setting (Rasman, 2018). Thus, a more cautious and purposeful approach to adopting TL practices was recommended (Liu et al., 2022).

As it is seen, TL has occupied a prominent place in ELT and appears to be in need of more research to unveil the hidden dimensions in both theoretical and practical senses. In this sense, the current status of TL in different genres and contexts in the form of a systematic review is needed. In addition to the above-mentioned studies, there are a few systematic review studies conducted in English Language Teaching (ELT) departments, especially in terms of master theses and doctoral dissertations. Although these are important academic genres (Hyland, 2009), they seem to be overlooked in some aspects and could not get attention as much as research articles in the relevant literature.

Master theses and doctoral dissertations have been subjected to a systematic review by different scholars in the Turkish EFL context in terms of research trends. To start with, Kirmizi, (2012) investigated master theses that were conducted in the ELT field and published between 2005 and 2010. The author found that the themes of these theses centered on language skills, psychology, teaching methods, material evaluation or curriculum design, and evaluation, to name a few. On the other hand, Özmen et al. (2016) examined doctoral dissertations in English Language Teaching (ELT) field published between 2010 and 2014 about their subject areas, research design, and research context.

The authors concluded that teaching English as a foreign language, foreign language teacher education and second language acquisition were the major subject areas. Additionally, mixed method was the dominant research method and tertiary education appeared to be the most preferred research context. Finally, Acıroğlu (2020) analyzed the research trends of master theses and doctoral dissertations published in the ELT field between 2015 and 2018. The author revealed that quantitative and mixed methods research designs were largely employed in the studies, and Likert-type of surveys and semi-structured interviews were the commonly preferred ways of collecting data. Moreover, the studies focused on undergraduate students, in-service teachers, and teacher educators as the participants. Finally, the subjects of the study which came to the fore were communicative skills, English language teaching and learning, and vocabulary teaching. In light of the findings, the author recommended employing qualitative studies for the sake of delving into the phenomenon in question and focusing on K-12 students attending state schools as participants.

Consideration of translanguaging (TL) as a pedagogy in recent studies and the need for more research studies to gain deeper insights into its theoretical and practical underpinnings (Erdin & Salı, 2020) were the starting point for the current paper. In addition, the data collection tools and participants in the above-mentioned studies paved the way for the current study. Specifically, although a number of studies were conducted on TL in various academic genres such as research articles and book chapters, master theses and doctoral dissertations seem to be an overlooked genre. Thus, this study aims to present a systematic review of master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted upon TL in Türkiye. In this sense, the unexplored areas of TL are shared with researchers, and some research-based implications are offered to contribute to the agenda of future post-graduate students.

Due to its controversial role and definition, TL still seems to require further research to see its role in establishing rapport with learners and conducting classroom-based studies so that appropriate pedagogies could be developed accordingly (Conteh, 2018). Although TL has been extensively studied in different contexts, it appears that it is a new phenomenon which has attracted the attention of scholars in the past decades. In this vein, recent publications on TL demonstrate its novel nature and implied the need for more studies to shed light upon its unexplored areas. Also, the number of studies on TL in the Turkish EFL context still seems limited and calls for more analyses. Furthermore, master theses and doctoral dissertations seem to be under-researched within the scope of TL. Finally, studies on research trends in master theses and doctoral dissertations do not specifically focus on TL but rather center on ELT-related research trends in doctoral dissertations (Özmen et al., 2016) and master theses (Kirmizi, 2012) or both master theses and doctoral dissertations in a specific time. In this sense, the current paper attracts attention to TL, includes master theses and doctoral dissertations as under-researched academic genres, and benefits from a systematic review in order to take a holistic approach and offer a detailed picture of the status of TL in the Turkish EFL context. In other words, this study fills an important gap in TL, master/doctoral theses, and systematic review areas and offers a specific focus for future researchers. Consequently, this study paves the way

for future research agenda and has the potential to guide future researchers in their attempts to explore the complex nature of TL. To this end, the current paper aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to emerging themes?

2. Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to research design?

3. Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to participants?

4. Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to data collection tools?

5. Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to data analysis tools?

Methodology

Research Design and Sampling

This paper aimed to offer a systematic review of master theses and doctoral dissertations which were conducted upon translanguaging and published in Türkiye. These theses and dissertations were analyzed in terms of their emerging themes and categories, research design, participants/materials, data collection tools, and data analysis tools, respectively. After the relevant theses and dissertations were gathered, they were coded on an Excel file. After that, the gathered data were coded and categorized according to their type, publication year, emerging themes and categories, participants, data collection tools, and data analysis tools. In this sense, the current paper adopted a descriptive research design since the aim was to systematically describe and interpret the phenomenon in question (Cohen et al., 2007) and present the frequency of occurrences regarding the above-mentioned areas as well. Also, since master theses and doctoral dissertations were the main concern of this study, document analysis which is a type of qualitative research to review and evaluate printed or electronic documents through systematic procedures (Bowen, 2009) was adopted.

Since the current paper specifically focused on master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on TL in Türkiye, purposive sampling (Dörnyei, 2007) was applied in that the researchers chose the studies to be included in the sample depending on various characteristics (their genre, subject area, context) to meet the specific needs of this study (Cohen et al., 2007; Fraenkel et al., 2012).

Data Collection Procedures

The inclusion criteria for the gathered documents were their genre, subject of study, and context since this paper specifically focused on the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging in Türkiye. After that, the researchers visited the official website of the Council of Higher Education, the National Theses Database to

reach and download the relevant theses and dissertations. As is seen in Diagram 1, PRISMA stands for Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses, and the researchers searched for the theses and dissertations under the labels of "translanguage" or "translanguaging". In the initial investigation, 23 studies were identified. However, six were excluded for various reasons: two studies focused on code switching or language switching without any specific reference to translanguaging; two studies investigated the transfer of Arabic words to Turkish; one study examined the transfer of Turkish words to Georgian; and the last study, written in French, focused on amphiboly in French and Turkish. After excluding these studies, 17 studies were specifically about translanguaging, either in the theoretical or practical sense. In total, there were 10 master theses and seven doctoral dissertations in the database. Three doctoral dissertations were conducted in another country while the rest of the studies were conducted in Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context. Additionally, nine master theses were published in English Language Teaching (ELT) departments and one thesis was published in the Department of English Language and Literature. As for the doctoral dissertations, among the ones which were conducted in the Turkish context, three dissertations were published in ELT departments while one dissertation was published in the Department of English Language and Literature.

Study Materials

The characteristics of the gathered master theses and doctoral dissertations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of Master Theses and Doctoral Dissertations by Year

Year	Master theses	Doctoral Dissertations
2018	1	0
2019	1	2
2020	3	2
2021	3	3
2022	2	0
Total	10	7

There were 10 master theses and seven doctoral dissertations which were published upon translanguaging (TL) and were accessible on the Turkish database. As is seen in Table 1, translanguaging has recently attracted attention among Turkish scholars since 2018. This indicates that the phenomenon in question is quite a new subject within these academic genres, specifically master theses and seven doctoral dissertations. The table suggests that studies related to translanguaging were relatively more abundant between 2020 and 2021 in both groups. However, there were no doctoral dissertations on translanguaging in 2018 or 2022. Finally, it should be noted that the data for this study were collected on October 14, 2022. The list of these theses and dissertations is provided in the Appendix.

Data Analysis

As a qualitative research method, content analysis provides opportunities to analyze documents via systematic examination (Cohen et al., 2013; Fraenkel et al., 2012;

Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). Content analysis is a frequently referred research tool to achieve research goals in language and literature-related studies. It is mainly concerned with the existence of various keywords, patterns, or important concepts in texts (Hoffman et al., 2011). It is seen as a flexible means of qualitative analysis to describe and interpret different types of texts (White & Marsh, 2006).

For this purpose, the gathered data were analyzed in light of summative content analysis which requires counting and comparing keywords via relating content to the underlying context; however, the researchers first reviewed the relevant literature so as not to miss any important aspects or end up with irrelevant categories (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Since qualitative data analysis has an iterative nature, the researchers compared the content of each thesis and dissertation to reach synthesis (Dörnyei, 2007; Fraenkel et al., 2012). In other words, the researchers followed a zigzag pattern to gather a more complete picture of the emerging themes. In light of the relevant literature, the researchers decided to systematically analyze the theses and dissertations in terms of their subject of study, research design, participants, data collection, and data analysis tools. They first identified the keywords which represented the underlying content about TL in terms of the above-mentioned areas and counted their frequency of occurrence. In this way, the researchers aimed to reveal the patterns and themes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001), and categorize the emerging themes in the qualitative data via constant comparison (Glaser & Strauss, 2017; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Besides, in order to increase objectivity in the qualitative data analysis procedures, there were two coders, namely the researchers. For the sake of ensuring intra-rater reliability, each coder first analyzed the data separately and revised her emerging themes and categories about three weeks later. To ensure inter-rater reliability, the coders held two meetings to compare their analyses. After 25% of the data were analyzed, in the first meeting, the agreement level between the coders was found to be .83 according to the inter-rater formula proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994). In this meeting, some minor changes for the themes and categories were made to clarify the disagreed aspects and apply the same procedure for the rest of the data. In the second meeting, when all the data were analyzed, the agreement level was revealed to increase up to .95. Both meetings resulted in a high level of coder agreement level as .70 is considered to be the minimal ideal level for inter-rater reliability.

Diagram 1. The PRISMA Flow Diagram for Selecting Theses and Dissertations

Identification	National Theses Database= master and doctoral studies on translanguaging (n = 23)

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Screening	Studies written in French was excluded (n=1)

↓

Eligibility	Studies on code switching or language switching without any reference to translanguaging were excluded (n=2)

↓

Studies about the Arabic words which were transferred to Turkish were excluded (n=2)

↓

Studies about the Turkish words which were transferred to Georgian were excluded (n=1)

↓

Included	Studies included for analysis (n= 17)

Findings

The findings of the research questions (RQs) are given in the following tables.

RQ 1: Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to emerging themes?

The emerging themes and categories in the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on TL are presented in Table 2 and Table 3.

Table 2. Emerging Themes and Categories in the Master Theses

Theme	Category	Frequency
Individual differences	strategies	2
	attitudes	1
	anxiety and self-esteem	1
	Total	4
Language acquisition	Turkish-English bilingual acquisition	2
	Turkish as a second language	1
	Total	3
Teaching methodology	task-based language teaching activities	1
	TL goals and strategies	1
	Total	2
Teacher education	Teacher beliefs	1
	Total	1

In the master theses, four themes emerged and these were individual differences, language acquisition, teaching methodology and teacher education, respectively. While individual differences included the categories of strategies, attitudes and anxiety, language acquisition covered bilingual acquisition and second language acquisition. In addition, teaching methodology included teaching activities and strategies and finally teacher beliefs fell under the theme of teacher education. To illustrate, Küçük (2018) aimed to investigate student and lecturer attitudes towards using TL as a learning and teaching strategy, and reveal TL strategies and practices employed by students and teachers within the scope of English medium instruction (EMI). It was demonstrated that TL practices were widely employed by the students and teachers, and the participants held favorable attitudes towards TL. Specifically, the students employed TL practices for scaffolding, translation and note-taking purposes while the lecturers employed them for facilitating comprehension, explaining new concepts and motivating students. On the other hand, Janid Baradi (2020) examined the TL practices of a group of Arab students acquiring Turkish and concluded that the TL practices were in the form of code-mixing between the two languages. Also, it was stated that TL was facilitated with the use of cognates but it was confused because of false cognates. As for teaching methodology, Aytaç Tanık (2021) focused on task-based classroom activities to reveal TL practices and strategies of EFL students and found that the students referred to TL to overcome their learning difficulty, complete the tasks and scaffold their pairs. Finally, Özyer (2021) investigated EFL teachers' perspectives on TL practices and revealed that state school teachers put more emphasis on TL compared to private school teachers and thus referred to students' native language more in their classes.

Table 3. Emerging Themes and Categories in the Doctoral Dissertations

Theme	Category	Frequency
Teaching methodology	language skill/writing	2
	TL pedagogies	1
	Total	3
Language acquisition	boundary crossing	1
	multilingualism	1

	Total	2
Individual differences	Socialization	1
	Total	1
Teacher education	Teacher identity	1
	Total	1

Similar to the master theses, the same themes emerged in the doctoral dissertations; however, the order of these themes and the relevant categories displayed differences when compared to those of master theses. To start with, Karabulut (2019) explored the implementation of TL practices for enhancing learners' L2 writing skills. The participants in the study indicated that TL practices assisted them to enhance their writing skills in terms of various aspects such as organization, planning, grammar, vocabulary and group work. Also, it was found that the scores of the students in the TL group were significantly higher than those of the other groups. On the other hand, Yardımcı (2020) investigated cross-linguistic interaction of multilingual English language learners in their writing tasks and thinking processes. The results demonstrated that the bi/multilingual participants actively relied on their previously learnt languages and were flexible in employing their linguistic repertoires while thinking. However, Turkish was dominant in their thinking process while writing a composition in L2. As for the individual differences, Keleş (2020) explored his own experiences in term of learning and teaching English and becoming an educational researcher within the scope of socialization. The author concluded that there were complex factors in his socialization such as attitudes of different members, individual desires, language ideologies and previous experiences. The author finally concluded that his transnational academic discourse socialization was a multifaceted and complex process which displayed TL practices. Finally, Yüzlü (2021) examined identity reconstruction of EFL teachers within the scope of TL training as part of ELT pedagogy and found that this training changed their existing identities.

RQ 2: Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to research design?

The research design of the master theses and doctoral dissertations are presented in Table 4 and Table 5.

Table 4. Research Design of the Master Theses

Research Design	Frequency
mixed methods research design	5
qualitative research design	4
quantitative research design	1
Total	10

According to Table 4, five master theses adopted a mixed methods research design, four of them referred to a qualitative research design and finally one of them was conducted via a quantitative research design. As it is seen, half of the master theses adopted mixed methods research design. To start with, Apa Öztürk (2022) adopted an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design to examine the attitudes of preparatory class students towards TL practices via combining both quantitative and

qualitative data. While the quantitative data were collected via a questionnaire, the qualitative data were gathered via observation and interviews. In a similar vein, Sezer (2022) revealed the TL goals and strategies were employed by university lecturers in English medium classes via adopting an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design in that the author relied on both numerical and textual data in the form of a questionnaire and interview. However, Dağhan Aslan (2019) aimed to benefit from descriptive ethnographic research perspectives and conducted a qualitative study to reveal the TL strategies employed by teachers. Also, Erbakan (2020) conducted a single case study under qualitative research design to examine the relationship between bilingual language acquisition and TL in a simultaneous Turkish-English bilingual education program. Similarly, Kayadibli Oğuz (2021) executed a longitudinal qualitative case study to provide insights into the nature of TL in her own daughter's case by providing detailed examples of the Turkish-English context in which her daughter grew up and illustrating her language development during the first four years of her life. Finally, different from the rest of the master theses, Özkaynak (2020) preferred a quantitative research design via a survey and specifically employed a correlational research design to provide insights into the link between TL practices, foreign language classroom anxiety, reconceptualized L2 motivational self-system and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals.

Table 5. Research Design of the Doctoral Dissertations

Research Design	Frequency
mixed methods research design	4
qualitative research design	3
Total	7

According to Table 5, four doctoral dissertations adopted a mixed methods research design whereas three of them adopted a qualitative research design. Similar to the master theses, there were more studies with a mixed methods research design. However, in contrast to the master theses, there were no doctoral dissertations with a quantitative research design. For example, Karabulut (2019) executed a convergent parallel mixed method design. Also, Küçükali (2021) followed a mixed methods research design. Besides, Zorluel Özer (2021) employed sequential mixed-methods procedures, specifically focusing on the perspectives of college composition instructors and students on TL. However, Yılmaz (2019) adopted a linguistic ethnographic multi-case study under the qualitative research design to investigate languaging practices of culturally and linguistically diverse students in discursive spaces such as a heritage language school (HLS), mainstream schools (MSs) and homes, and to reveal the role of TL in boundary crossing among the Turkish American youngsters. Finally, Keleş (2020) referred to evocative and analytic autoethnography as a new qualitative research methodology in his study.

RQ 3: Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to participants?

The participants, materials and subjects chosen for the master theses and doctoral dissertations are demonstrated in Table 6 and Table 7.

Table 6. Participants/Materials/Subjects in the Master Theses

Participants	Categories	Frequency
Tertiary level students	prep class university students	2
	first year engineering and management students	1
	Turkish learners of Arabic	1
	Total	4
University Lecturers	EMI lecturers	2
	Total	2
K-12 students	High school students	2
	Total	2
In-service teachers	German teacher	1
	EFL teachers at different levels and schools	1
	Total	2
Young learners	4-year-old child	1
	pre-school students in a private school	1
	Total	2
Other	Interlocutors (nanny, parents, tutor, teacher)	1
	Total	1

At the end of the analyses, it was found that six types of participants were chosen for the master theses, namely tertiary level students, university lecturers, K-12 students, in-service teachers, young learners and interlocutors. For instance, Küçük (2018) conducted a study on English medium instruction students, namely first year engineering and management students and lecturers delivering English content courses while Dağhan Aslan (2019) focused on a German language teacher and 10th graders at an Anatolian high school. On the other hand, Erbakan (2020) included pre-school students in a private school in her study and Kayadibli Oğuz (2021) included her own daughter and her interlocutors, specifically 4-year-old child, her mother, father, nanny, nanny's daughter, English tutor, the second nanny and kindergarten teacher.

Table 7. Participants/Materials/Subjects in the Doctoral Dissertations

Participants	Categories	Frequency
Tertiary level students	prep class university students	2
	multilingual university students	1
	college composition students	1
	Total	4
In-service teachers	MS-HL teachers	1
	Language teachers at university	1
	MoNE English teachers	1
	Total	3
Instructors	Language teachers at university	1
	college composition instructors	1
	Total	2
Other	Interlocutors (mother)	1
	educational researcher	1

	Total	2
Young learners	Turkish-American youngsters	1
	Total	1

Similar to the master theses, tertiary level students were in the first place as participants in the doctoral dissertations and similar participant profiles emerged. However, the order of these participants was different from that of the master theses. Also, there were no K-12 students as participants in the doctoral dissertations. To start with, Yardımcı (2020) examined cross-linguistic interaction of multilingual English language learners in Mardin, specifically five Turkish, five Arab, five Kurd and five Syriac Christian students studying at a university. In a similar vein, Küçükali (2021) investigated planned vs. spontaneous TL practices of bilingual teachers of English, multilingual teachers of English and Russian/Turkish, and their students in the School of Foreign Languages at a state university. On the other hand, Yüzlü (2021) examined identity construction of 12 in-service EFL teachers working at a kindergarten, primary school, secondary school and high school. Finally, Keleş (2020) referred to his own socialization experiences as an educational researcher whereas Yılmaz (2019) preferred Turkish-American youngsters together with their mothers, mainstream teachers and heritage language teachers.

RQ 4: Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to data collection tools?

Data collection tools employed in the master theses and doctoral dissertations are presented in Table 8 and Table 9. The frequency of the categories is provided in parentheses as well. It should be noted that some studies employed various data collection tools and thus the frequency of categories and total occurrences may not match.

Table 8. Data Collection Tools in the Master Theses

Theme	Category (occurrence)	Frequency (Total)
Interview	Semi-structured (3)	8
	Focus group (3)	
	Stimulated recall (1)	
	Open-ended questions (1)	
Questionnaire	Questionnaire (5)	6
	Survey (1)	
	Scale (1)	
Observation	Observing lectures (1)	4
	Observing classroom (1)	
	Observing the activities (1)	
	Observing online reading classes (1)	
Recording	Audio (3)	4
	Video (2)	
	Voice (1)	
Field notes	Field notes (2)	4
	Diary (1)	
	Documents (1)	

| | Teacher logs (1) | |
| | Task activities (1) | |

In light of the analyses, it appeared that the master theses referred to such data collection tools as interviews, questionnaires, observation, recording and field notes. To exemplify, Küçük (2018) employed a Likert-type questionnaire, conducted individual semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews (both were face-to-face), used an observation checklist for non-participant observation and made video-recording of the lectures. In addition, Dağhan Aslan (2019) employed a research diary, classroom observation field notes and checklist, transcriptions of the semi-structured interview, and included various documents in her study such as worksheets, exam papers, classroom artifacts, bilingual stuffs such as dictionary, books of the students or library books, syllabi, handouts and classroom diagram.

Table 9. Data Collection Tools in the Doctoral Dissertations

Theme	Category (occurrence)	Frequency (Total)
Field notes	Field notes (3)	6
	Tasks (3)	
	Documents (2)	
	Self-reflections (1)	
	Artefacts (1)	
	Scores (1)	
	Reflective journals (1)	
	Multimodal dataset (1)	
Interview	Semi-structured (6)	6
	Stimulated recall (1)	
	Focus group (1)	
	Think aloud protocol (1)	
Questionnaire	Survey (2)	5
	Scale (1)	
	Questionnaire (1)	
	Post-questionnaire (1)	
Observation	Observing schools and homes (1)	3
	Observing classrooms (2)	
Recording	Audio (1)	2
	Video (1)	

Similar data collection tools were used in the doctoral dissertations as well; however, the order of these tools was different from that of the master theses. For instance, in her study, Yılmaz (2019) referred to questionnaires, semi-structured in-depth interviews with the students, parents and teachers, observations within the heritage language schools, mainstream schools and homes, field notes and audio-recordings of students' language practices in the heritage language schools. In addition, Küçükali (2021) used a post-questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, graphic elicitation tasks and students' exam scores in her study.

RQ 5: Are there any differences between the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on translanguaging with regard to data analysis tools?

Data analysis tools used in the master theses and doctoral dissertations are demonstrated in Table 10 and Table 11.

Table 10. Data Analysis in the Master Theses

Data analysis	Frequency
qualitative content analysis	9
descriptive statistics	4
ANOVA	3
Independent samples t-test	2
structural equation modeling	1
exploratory factor analysis	1
Levene's test	1
Gabriel post hoc test	1
Kruskal Wallis	1
Tukey's multiple comparison test	1

It should be noted that some studies employed various data analysis tools and that is why there is a mismatch between data analysis tools and their frequency. Besides, under qualitative content analysis, a number of terms are used in these theses. For example, the following terms are used in the gathered data: inductive content analysis, thematic analysis, ethnographic analysis, descriptive coding, deductive analysis, inductive method, descriptive analysis, categorization, selective coding method. For this purpose, qualitative content analysis emerged as an umbrella term to cover the above-mentioned terms as qualitative data analysis tools. In addition, six studies referred to SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), one relied on Notepad and finally one employed Excel program to analyze the data.

According to Table 10, the master theses referred to qualitative content analysis more than the other data analysis tools. This is followed by descriptive statistics, ANOVA and Independent samples t-test. To illustrate, Apa Öztürk (2022) preferred descriptive statistics via SPSS for obtaining mean and standard deviation, ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) and inductive content analysis. On the other hand, Sezer (2022) used SPSS for descriptive statistics for frequencies, Kruskal Wallis, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy tests, one-way analysis of variance, independent samples t-test, Tukey's multiple comparison test and selective coding method.

Table 11. Data Analysis in the Doctoral Dissertations

Data analysis	Frequency
qualitative content analysis	7
descriptive statistics	4
Kruskal-Wallis test	2
Mann-Whitney U test	2
Friedman test	1
The Wilcoxon-Signed Rank test	1

| Spearman Rank correlation analysis | 1 |
| ANOVA | 1 |

Similar to the master theses, doctoral dissertations also employed a number of data collection tools. In addition, different terms are used for qualitative data analysis. To illustrate, the following terms are used in the doctoral studies: thematic analysis, open-axial-selective coding, qualitative analysis, inductive analysis, content analysis, transcription-comparison-categorization, autoethnographic analysis, chronicling the past strategy, critical analysis, content and visual analysis, grounded theory analysis - constant comparative method, thematic coding, descriptive and focused coding. To gather the findings under an umbrella term, qualitative content analysis was preferred again. Furthermore, four studies employed SPSS, two studies relied on N-vivo program, one study used RANGE program, one study preferred CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) Program, one study referred to MAXQDA and finally one study employed Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) in data analysis. It is seen that the programs employed for data analysis are more varied in the doctoral dissertations compared to those employed in the master theses.

Similar to the master theses, qualitative content analysis and descriptive statistics were the commonly employed data analysis tools in the doctoral dissertations. However, the order of the remaining data analysis tools displays differences in terms of order and there are some different analysis types in the doctoral dissertations. For instance, Karabulut (2019) employed both descriptive and inferential statistics in her study. She employed SPSS and RANGE program and analyzed her data via descriptive statistics for frequency and percentage. She also used Kruskal-Wallis test, Friedman test, Mann-Whitney U test and The Wilcoxon-Signed Rank test. Additionally, she referred to a two-step qualitative analysis and inductive analysis in her study. Additionally, Yüzlü (2021) employed grounded theory analysis, which is constant comparative method via open coding axial coding, selective coding in his study. He also preferred verbatim transcriptions and used MAXQDA.

Discussion and Conclusion

This paper aims to elucidate the methodological foundations of master theses and doctoral dissertations on translanguaging (TL). The analysis covers aspects such as research design, participant selection, data collection and analysis tools, and the emerging themes within these studies. These studies were chosen among the ones which were accessible via the Council of Higher Education, the National Theses Database website in Türkiye. In light of the analyses, it was found that while individual differences were the most studied subject in the master theses, teaching methodology was in the first place in the doctoral dissertations. As for the research design, mixed methods research design was the most preferred methodological design in both groups. Similarly, tertiary-level students were dominant as the participant group in both groups. As for data collection tools, the interview was the most preferred data collection in the master theses whereas field notes

and interviews were equally dominant in the doctoral dissertations. Finally, qualitative content analysis was in the first place and descriptive statistics were in the second place in both groups.

First of all, what draws attention is that the studies on TL have been conducted since 2018 in that the MA theses were conducted between 2018-2022 while the doctoral dissertations were conducted between 2019-2021. For this reason, it appears that there are no parallel studies to compare the results of the current paper. However, it is possible to consider some of the earlier systematic review studies on master theses and doctoral dissertations in the Turkish EFL context. In this sense, this study's results bear some similarities and differences with previous research. To start with, in contrast to Kirmizi, (2012), the master theses in this study did not center on language skills in the first place but focused on individual differences such as strategies, attitudes, anxiety, and self-esteem, and this is followed by language acquisition, namely Turkish-English bilingual acquisition and Turkish as a second language. However, teaching methodology seems to be the important emerging theme in both Kirmizi's (2012) study and current paper since two master theses in this study were concerned with task-based language teaching activities and TL goals and strategies. As for doctoral dissertations, the emerging themes included teaching methodology, language acquisition, and teacher education, which were similar to the categories of Özmen et al. (2016). In addition, the mixed method was the most preferred research design, and tertiary-level students were the most studied participant groups in the doctoral dissertations in this study, which echo the results of Özmen et al. (2016) again. Finally, different from Acıroğlu (2020), there was only one master thesis conducted in quantitative research design while there was no quantitative doctoral dissertation in this study. However, interviews, questionnaires, and tertiary-level students were dominantly preferred in the theses and dissertations in this study, which is parallel to the findings of Acıroğlu (2020). Another similarity with Acıroğlu (2020) is that teaching methodology is among the emerging themes in the theses and dissertations analyzed in this study. However, it should be noted these studies did not focus on TL specifically but investigated the ELT-related theses and dissertations holistically.

The results of some of the master theses and doctoral dissertations bear some similarities with previous studies. To start with, as Canagarajah (2011) argues, Karabulut (2019) underlines the value of TL practices in foreign language writing classes. Also, Küçük (2018) and Aytaç Tanık (2021) propose that TL could be employed for scaffolding with peers and teachers, and facilitating comprehension, which is in line with Erdin and Salı (2020), Baker (2001), and Yang, Yang, and Shi (2023). In addition, echoing Csillik and Golubeva (2020), Erbakan (2020) gives examples of how TL practices can emerge among young learners. Furthermore, similar to Creese and Blackledge (2015), and Yang, Yang, and Shi (2023), Apa Öztürk (2022) indicates that students could refer to TL to show their critical thinking skills. Finally, echoing Yuvayapan (2019), Dağhan-Aslan (2019) attracts attention to teachers' lack of a systematic approach while employing TL practices and Özyer (2021) stresses the changing TL practices of teachers in different schools. In this sense, teacher training programs are advised to include the introduction of TL practices in classroom settings for different educational contexts.

In summary, TL appears to be a new perspective and has the potential to cater to the needs of bilingual and multilingual students in today's globalized world. Though TL has emerged in the past decades, it has recently attracted attention in Türkiye, which implies the need for more research in the Turkish context. Although the results of this study cannot be generalized to other contexts, it still demonstrates the progress and direction of TL-related master and doctoral studies in Türkiye, and offers a research agenda for future researchers. In light of the relevant literature and the study findings, it can be claimed that TL may be considered as a barrier by some stakeholders and refrain teachers from referring to L1 in their classes, which is likely to result in a mismatch between their TL- related beliefs and practices. For this purpose, policy makers and authorities can guide pre-service and in-service teachers to integrate TL into their classes via delivering workshops, initiating projects, and promoting microteaching, practicum activities, lesson plans, and materials that include TL instances. In this way, the mismatch between the beliefs and practices of teachers may be minimized and they can become conscious of concrete in-class applications such as using cognates, translation, group work, and discussion activities. Finally, although TL can facilitate comprehension, help to build rapport, improve classroom interaction and foster critical thinking, teachers should be careful about their teaching practices so that students can get the maximum benefit from their linguistic repertoire more effectively. In this vein, teachers can become a model for TL in their classes to encourage students to participate more in classroom activities.

All in all, since TL is a recent phenomenon for language education and the Turkish EFL context appears to be in need of more studies to come up with concrete applications, K-12 students and teachers should be studied more to reveal what works or fails while using TL in practice. In this vein, pre-service and in-service teacher training programs appear to have an important role in guiding and shaping the TL practices of teachers. Also, students of different age groups and language levels should be included in further studies. To build a bridge between theory and practice, the (mis)match between in-service English teachers' TL-related perspectives and in-class practices should be further investigated. This could help identify factors that facilitate or hinder effective translanguaging implementation. Finally, longitudinal studies can be conducted with different data collection tools such as observation, teacher journals, student logs, recordings, and student-produced language samples so that changing and complex dynamics of TL could be better understood in different educational settings.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

This study aimed to reveal the emerging themes, research design, participants, data collection, and data analysis tools in the master theses and doctoral dissertations conducted on TL in Türkiye. Due to the specific attention to one academic genre in an EFL context, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to other contexts or genres. Also, there were a limited number of theses and dissertations since the topic of TL has recently attracted the attention of postgraduate students in Türkiye. Thus, future systematic studies could be conducted on different genres, namely research articles, book chapters, or conference papers to be more informed about the research focus of various academic

genres. In addition, studies on TL in different contexts, namely in different ESL (English as a second language) and EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts could be investigated at the international level for comparative purposes. Furthermore, future studies can be conducted on sampling types and interpretation of findings from different contexts. Finally, it is recommended that TL-related studies should offer concrete materials and activities for practitioners so that the term could become more applicable in classroom settings where there are students from different language backgrounds.

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Appendix

List of the Master Theses

Apa Öztürk, S. (2022). *Exploring student-directed translanguaging in the English-centric classroom* [Unpublished master thesis]. Dokuz Eylül University.

Aytaç Tanık, E. (2021). *Translanguaging practices and reasons of EFL students in task based language teaching activities* [Unpublished master thesis]. Kocaeli University.

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List of the Doctoral Dissertations

Karabulut, A. (2019). *Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool for Turkish EFL students in writing classes* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Bahçeşehir University.

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Research Article

Effect of Teaching Speaking Strategies on Speaking Performance and Speaking Anxiety

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	This study aimed to determine the effect of teaching speaking strategies on both speaking performance and speaking anxiety. A controlled pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design was employed in the study. The study group comprised 38 eighth-grade students: 19 in the control group and 19 in the experimental group. The data for this study were collected using the speaking evaluation form and the speaking anxiety scale for secondary school students. The data were analyzed using the dependent-samples *t*-test, independent-samples *t*-test, and analysis of covariance. One finding of this study suggested that teaching speaking strategies did not result in a significant difference in speaking performance or speaking anxiety compared with traditional instruction. However, the introduction of speaking strategies had a positive and significant effect on speaking performance in the experimental group, although it did not influence speaking anxiety.
Statement of Publication Ethics	This study was conducted with the ethical and research approval obtained from the Hatay Provincial Directorate of National Education and the Hatay Governorate, following the document dated 25.10.2021, with the reference number E-32889839-605.01-35474396.
Authors' Contribution Rate	The article was derived from the master's thesis titled "The Effect of Teaching Speaking Strategies on Speaking Performance and Affective Qualities of Speaking" prepared under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Ergün HAMZADAYI by Seçil Simge UYAR.
Conflict of Interest	The authors declare no conflicts of interest.
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Introduction

Speaking gains meaning when an individual combines sounds to form words, typically around the age of one. Except in unusual circumstances, the development of speaking skills follows a consistent pattern in all children until the age of five. From this perspective, speaking can be defined as a skill that emerges long before students start school and "encompasses intertwined concepts such as sound, articulation, expression, comprehension, understanding, and communication" (Temizkan, 2017, p. 200). Speaking involves cognitive-mental, physical, and affective dimensions (Bozkurt, 2019; Hamzadayı, 2019) and is a complex act with various sub-skills. Although individuals learn to speak before starting school, their language remains confined to that of their peers and immediate surroundings (Doğan, 2009; Kavcar, 2016; Temizyürek, 2007). Previous studies (Ağca, 2001; Ceran, 2012; Gedik & Orhan, 2014; Kurudayıoğlu, 2003; Özden, 2018; Uçgun, 2007; Yalçın, 2006) emphasized that, although speaking was an innate ability, effective and accurate speech required education. Mother tongue teachers bear significant responsibilities in enabling individuals to proficiently acquire speaking skills.

Most daily conversations are spontaneous and do not require prior preparation. However, for speaking in front of a specific audience on a specific topic and with a specific purpose, preparation and adherence to a plan become essential to convey ideas effectively. Research findings (Akkaya, 2012; Arslan, 2012; Ceran, 2012; Göçer, 2008; Karakoç Öztürk & Altuntaş, 2012; Katrancı & Kuşdemir, 2015; Oğuz, 2009; Özdemir, 2018) indicate that students harbor negative emotions and thoughts toward speaking due to their lack of engagement in prepared speech practices. Additionally, speaking without paying attention to its components may result in failure to convey the intended message to the target audience. Such situations can negatively affect the speaker's affective state. The speaker may face anxiety in the absence of an effective preparation process. Furthermore, a change in affective factors can also influence the physical aspect of speaking, leading to issues such as voice tremors, stuttering, errors in intonation and emphasis, and inconsistencies in body language. Hence, Turkish language lessons should include prepared speech practices through structured activities.

When examining the terms used in the literature as strategies, techniques, and methods, it becomes clear that the distinctions between these terms are not clear, and they can often be used interchangeably. This highlights a lack of consensus in the use of terminology (Kurudayıoğlu & Kiraz, 2020a; Kurudayıoğlu & Kiraz, 2020b; Türkel 2019). A review of the learning outcome "Applies speaking strategies" in the 2019 Turkish Language Curriculum at the secondary school level revealed that it provided methods and techniques for speaking, and the explanations regarding the learning outcome "Delivers prepared speeches" are insufficient. Furthermore, the secondary school curriculum level does not include a learning outcome or explanation related to the affective dimension of speaking. Affective dimension-focused curricula in second-language teaching have been found to positively impact students' affective development (Kara, 2003). This finding may also apply to mother-tongue education. By identifying speaking strategies and helping students acquire these strategies, it is possible to not only positively influence their speaking proficiency but also alleviate speaking anxieties that impact their speaking performance. In

this context, addressing the cognitive and physical dimensions of speaking, along with speaking anxiety and strategies, is fundamental to shaping the theoretical framework of the research.

Literature Review

Cognitive and Physical Dimensions of Speaking

An individual's ability to express the intended message completely and accurately to the listener is primarily associated with the cognitive aspect of speaking, while factors such as emphasis and intonation in the expression process relate more to the physical aspect (Hamzadayı, 2019, p. 89). The speaking process is categorized into mental design (conceptualization), linguistic and grammatical organization (formulation), and physical process/output (articulation). The cognitive and mental aspects of speaking are considered in tandem (Bozkurt, 2019). Individuals must effectively navigate these stages to engage in speaking.

The establishment of speech intent and the mental design process pertains to conceptualization. In contrast, linguistic and grammatical organization involves formulation. The types of knowledge that the speaker possesses are categorized as extralinguistic and linguistic–grammatical knowledge (Bozkurt, 2019, p. 45). Semantic organization occurs during the conceptualization process, and this semantic structure transforms into sentences through various sub-processes in the formulation stage. The speaker employs linguistic and grammatical knowledge during these phases. Consequently, speech is cognitively constructed, activating the physical dimension of speaking.

The physical dimension of speaking encompasses respiration, phonation, and articulation, and these processes involve the speaker's respiratory system, vocal folds, and speech organs, respectively (Bozkurt, 2019). In this context, air strikes the vocal folds during exhalation, producing a clear sound. This sound is then articulated with the assistance of the oral and nasal cavities, which house various speech organs. As a result, speech sounds, including vowels and consonants, are generated.

Speaking Anxiety

The affective dimension plays a decisive role alongside the cognitive and physical dimensions in successfully realizing the speaking process or in identifying the sources of problems observed during the speaking process (Hamzadayı, 2019, p. 89). An individual's attitude toward speaking, perception of self-efficacy related to speaking skills, and the level of anxiety experienced before and during speaking make up the affective dimension of speaking (Gölpınar et al., 2018, p. 76). Consequently, the speaking process and the development of speaking proficiency are deeply intertwined with the affective dimension. Indeed, the affective component influences all cognitive learning and lexical production processes.

Anxiety is defined as "a specific emotional state that includes unpleasant feelings of nervousness, tension, and worry that are consciously perceived and associated with the activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Spielberger, 1972). Anxiety affects individuals in multiple ways: physically, cognitively, motivationally, affectively, and

behaviorally (Beck & Emery, 1985). Frequent and persistent episodes of anxiety can have a negative impact on an individual's life.

Studies on anxiety focus on three different types: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Trait anxiety pertains to anxiety that has become an inherent characteristic of an individual's personality, whereas state anxiety is the anxiety experienced at a specific moment in response to a particular situation (Ellis, 1994). Situation-specific anxiety differs from the previous two, manifesting only in distinct events or contexts, such as anxiety experienced during a speech presentation (MacIntyre, 1999).

Speaking anxiety is described as the anxiety that causes an individual to avoid speaking, leads to feelings of nervousness, and results in difficulty expressing thoughts effectively; this form of anxiety can also be accompanied by physical symptoms such as sweating and an increased heart rate (Keşaplı & Çifci, 2017, pp. 464-465). Studies (Akay & Uzun, 2018; Demirel, 2019; Solak & Yılmaz, 2017; Yılmaz, 2018) cited negative educational environments, inaccuracies in assessment and evaluation practices, individual attitudes, and a lack of knowledge and skills as the primary reasons for individuals experiencing speaking anxiety.

Studies indicate that speaking anxiety is negatively correlated with speaking performance (Daly, Vangelisti, & Lawrence, 1989; Daly, Vangelisti, & Weber, 1995; Gölpınar et al., 2018; Menzel & Carrell, 1994; Phillips, 1992; Syafryadin et al., 2020). Students' speaking anxieties are associated with their choice of speech topics (Daly, Vangelisti, Neel, & Cavanaugh, 1989; Duran & Kaplan, 2018). Speaking anxiety can influence both the quality and the duration of speeches (Gallego et al., 2021). The highest level of anxiety is often felt on stage, whereas moderately high anxiety is felt before pre-preparation, during preparation, and before speech presentations (Viwattanabunchong, 2017). Moreover, research shows that speech anxiety is not only connected to speaking performance but also correlates with attitude and self-efficacy, both of which are components of the affective dimension of speaking (Adkins, 2006; Baki & Kahveci, 2017; Dwyer & Fus, 1999; Ellis, 1995; Gökhan, 2020; Gürsoy & Karaca, 2018; Hermagustiana et al., 2021; Mohammadi & Rezaei, 2021; Tekşan et al., 2019; Villegas Puyod et al., 2020).

Speaking Strategies

Strategies can be defined as "a concept that encompasses the activities of selecting methods, materials, tools, equipment, and instructional guidance to be applied according to the learning outcomes" (Kurudayıoğlu & Kiraz, 2020a, p. 389). However, the concept of a speaking strategy is defined as "a framework and an overall speaking plan encompassing the determination of methods, techniques, tools, equipment, and resources that can be employed to achieve a speaking purpose" (Kurudayıoğlu & Kiraz, 2020b, p. 172). Hence, speaking strategies can be described as the process of effectively managing the planning, execution, and evaluation of speaking, as well as selecting and implementing the methods, materials, techniques, tools, and equipment necessary to achieve the intended goal of speaking.

Studies have identified strategies for reading, writing, and listening skills, and have tested them on students through various applications (Bozkurt, 2020; Topuzkanamış, 2014;

Yıldız, 2015). Güneş (2019) compiled speaking strategies from various studies based on different orientations. Speaking strategies can be categorized into three domains based on their structure and function: pre-speaking strategies, during-speaking strategies, and post-speaking strategies. Pre-speaking strategies involve planning and organizing the speech; during-speaking strategies involve managing the speech; and post-speaking strategies involve evaluating the speech. The speaking strategies for the prepared speech skill are presented in three categories in Table 1, drawing from perspectives in various previously published studies (Beebe & Beebe, 2013; Coopman & Lull, 2018; DeVito, 2017; German, 2017; Güneş, 2019; Harris, 2017; Jaffe, 2016; Lucas, 2009; O'Hair et al., 2019; Osborn et al., 2015; Özdemir, 2016; Tucker et al., 2019; Verderber et al., 2012; Yalınkılıç, 2019; Young & Travis, 2012; Zarefsky, 2017).

Table 1. Speaking Strategies

Processes		Strategies
Pre-speaking	Speech planning	Determining the overall purpose of the speech
		Selecting the topic of the speech
		Activating prior knowledge about the topic
		Using discussion or brainstorming techniques
		Limiting the content of the speech
		Analyzing the target audience
		Conducting research
		Anticipating audience questions
	Speech organizing	Deciding on the speech's organizational pattern
		Outlining the main points
		Scripting the speech
		Determining the presentation method
		Collecting supporting materials for the speech
		Rehearsing the speech
During speaking		Using body language effectively
		Using voice effectively
		Using supporting materials during the speech
		Adhering to the speech plan
		Addressing audience questions
Post-speaking		Assessing the purpose of the speech and the achievement of the goal
		Assessing the accuracy of the analysis of the target audience
		Assessing the content of the speech
		Assessing the structure of the speech
		Assessing the delivery of the speech

Examining the models developed to explain speaking (Bayat, 2019; Bozkurt, 2019; Güneş, 2019), one observes that these models emphasize both the cognitive and physical aspects of speaking. The cognitive dimension of speaking pertains to the formation and regulation of content in the speaker's mind, whereas the physical dimension concerns the act of conveying this content to listeners. Strategies employed before, during, and after a

speech address both the cognitive and physical dimensions of speaking. Anxiety, as a component of the affective dimension, affects these processes in various ways. Individuals with elevated levels of speaking-related anxiety may not manage these processes effectively. Conversely, those who are not effective in managing speaking cognitively and physically may experience an increase in speaking anxiety levels. Thus, students should be educated about speaking and engage in sufficient practice to manage the factors influencing speaking. These practices can be facilitated through teaching activities structured within the Turkish Language Curriculum.

Studies on teaching speaking strategies (Atik, 2006; Cohen et al., 1996; Gençoğlu, 2011; Keskin, 2013; Kılıç, 2003; Koşar & Bedir, 2014; Melendez et al., 2014; Nakatani, 2005; Tsai, 2018) predominantly focus on second language. These studies demonstrate that strategy instruction positively influences students' application of speaking strategies and their speaking performance. Based on these findings, it can be hypothesized that teaching speaking strategies in the context of mother tongue education can also enhance students' speaking performance and reduce speaking anxiety. To validate this hypothesis, this study assembled speaking strategies and evaluated their effects on speaking performance and anxiety. Pursuant to this objective, the study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?
5. Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?
6. Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?
7. Is there a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?
8. Is there a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?

Methodology

Research Design and Publication Ethics

This study was conducted based on a quantitative research approach using a pretest-posttest control group quasi-experimental design. In such a design, equivalent groups are selected, followed by an unbiased assignment. One or more groups are designated as the experimental group(s) and the other(s) as the control group(s) (Özmen, 2019). In this study, efforts were made to create two equivalent groups based on pre-test scale scores, academic achievement, sex, and number. One group was randomly selected as the experimental group, whereas the other was selected as the control group. The independent variable being investigated in the experimental group was teaching speaking strategies. The experimental model used in this study is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Experimental Model Used in This Study

Group	Pre-implementation	Implementation	Post-implementation
	Pre-test		Post-test
Experimental	A1	Teaching speaking strategies	A3
Control	A2	Traditional instruction	A4

The expressions A1, A2, A3, and A4 in Table 2 represent the "Speaking Evaluation Form" (Sargın, 2006) and the "Speaking Anxiety Scale for Secondary School Students" (Demir & Melanlıoğlu, 2014) was applied as pre-test and post-test to the experimental and control groups.

This study was conducted with the ethical and research approval obtained from the Hatay Provincial Directorate of National Education and the Hatay Governorate, following the document dated October 25, 2021, with the reference number E-32889839-605.01-35474396.

Study Participants

A total of 38 students participated in this study: 19 in the control group and 19 in the experimental group. They were studying in two separate classes at the eighth-grade level in a secondary school in Hatay province during the first semester of the academic year 2021–2022. The sex and number distribution in the groups are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Sex And Number Distribution in the Experimental and Control Groups

Sex	Experimental group	Control group
Female	8	9
Male	11	10
Total	19	19

Turkish language achievement scores from the end of the second semester of the academic year 2020–2021 were used to equalize the experimental and control groups. The data distribution was examined graphically using the Shapiro–Wilk test (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. Skewness–Kurtosis Plot of Turkish Language Achievement Scores
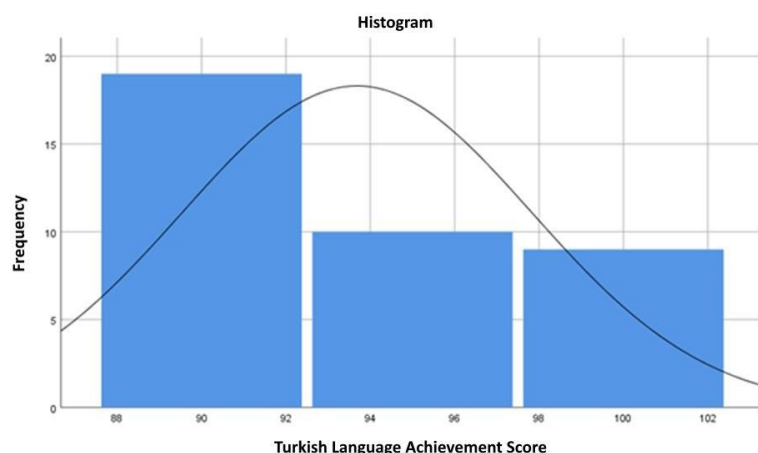
Skewness value for the Turkish language achievement scores was 0.539, and the kurtosis value was –1.328 (Fig. 1). Skewness and kurtosis values between –1 and +1 were considered excellent for most psychometric purposes, and the values between –2 and +2 were deemed acceptable depending on the implementation (George & Mallery, 2019). Based on these findings, it was evident that the Turkish language achievement scores did not follow a normal distribution. Therefore, the Mann–Whitney U test was used to compare Turkish language achievement scores between the groups. The data representing the groups' Turkish language achievement scores for the second semester of the academic year 2020–2021 are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Turkish Language Achievement Scores By Groups

Variable	Group	N	Mean ± SD	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	p
Turkish language achievement scores	Control	19	94.21 ± 3.82	21.16	402.0	149.0	0.370
	Experimental	19	93.16 ± 4.47	17.84	339.0		

Notably, no statistically significant difference was observed in Turkish language achievement scores among groups ($p > 0.05$; Table 4). This indicated that the experimental and control groups were equivalent in terms of academic achievement in Turkish language courses.

Data Collection and Analysis

The "Speaking Evaluation Form" (Sargın, 2006) was used to ascertain findings related to speaking performance in the study. It consisted of three sub-dimensions: speaking order, language awareness, and psychological condition of the speaker, totaling 51 items. The form followed a five-point Likert-type scale. Its reliability coefficient, established through expert opinions, was found to be .89, suggesting its validity and reliability.

The "Speaking Anxiety Scale for Secondary School Students" (Demir & Melanlıoğlu, 2014) was employed to determine the findings related to speaking anxiety levels in this study. This scale encompassed five sub-dimensions and 33 items, which included prejudgment of the speaking skill, speaking self-confidence, enjoyment of

speaking, anxiety of being evaluated, and willingness to speak in the classroom. It adopted a five-point Likert-type format. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the entire scale was .716. The internal consistency coefficients for the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth factors were .860, .777, .617, .672, and .601, respectively, indicating the scale's validity and reliability.

SPSS Statistics 21.0 (IBM Corp. NY, USA) and MS-Excel 2007 programs were used for calculations and statistical analyses. A *p* value < 0.05 indicated a statistically significant difference.

In this study, the groups' scale results were evaluated using both graphical methods and the Shapiro–Wilks test to verify whether the results adhered to a normal distribution. The results indicated that the scales used appeared to follow a normal distribution. The pre-test and post-test results in the experimental and control groups were compared both within and between the groups for statistical analyses of the data. When data exhibited a normal distribution, the dependent-samples *t*-test was employed for within-group comparisons of pre-test and post-test scores and in contrast, the independent-samples *t*-test was used for between-group comparisons (Özsevgeç, 2019). The dependent-samples *t*-test compared the pre-test and post-test results within the groups, whereas the independent-samples *t*-test was used to compare the pre-test results between the groups.

The independent-samples *t*-test was used to analyze the post-test scores between the groups in the language awareness sub-dimension and the total speaking anxiety scale. However, discrepancies were noted in the groups' pre-test scores for the speaking order, psychological condition of the speaker sub-dimensions, and the total speaking performance scale. As the speaking order, psychological condition of the speaker sub-dimensions, and total speaking performance scale's pre-test and post-test scores exhibited a normal distribution, the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) assumptions were reviewed. The homogeneity of variances was assessed using Levene's test, revealing that the variances of the groups' post-test scores did not differ significantly ($p > 0.05$). Given these findings, it was decided to use ANCOVA for comparing the post-test scores between the groups for the speaking order, psychological condition of the speaker sub-dimensions, and the total speaking performance scale.

Procedure

The research process lasted for six weeks, and the research timeline is provided in Table 5.

Table 5. Timeline of Experimental Procedures

Week	Activities
Week 1	Prepared speech (administration of pre-tests) (2 class hours)
Week 2	Explanation of speaking strategies (2 class hours)
Week 3	Students' prepared speech practices (1 class hour)
Week 4	Students' prepared speech practices (1 class hour)
Week 5	Students' prepared speech practices (1 class hour)
Week 6	Prepared speech (administration of post-tests) (2 class hours)

A specific speaking topic was selected for administering the pre-tests. Students were instructed to design and deliver a prepared speech on this topic, and their presentations were recorded. Subsequently, the speaking anxiety scale was used as a pre-test. These recordings were then shared with two expert Turkish language teachers for the application of the speaking evaluation form as a pre-test.

Speaking strategies were provided to the experimental group, considering the students' grade levels after the pre-test administration, the research objectives, and the lesson duration. Prepared speech practices were conducted following the instruction. Every student had the chance to showcase their speech plan, assess their speaking procedure, and receive feedback on their plans, presentations, and evaluation processes. No intervention was made in the course of the control group. The lessons were conducted according to traditional methods. Before crafting their speeches, these students were given instructions based on the learning outcomes detailed in the 2019 Turkish Language Curriculum for eighth-grade student level. After their speeches, feedback was given based on these learning outcomes. Both groups made two separate speech presentations during the speech practices.

A specific speaking topic was determined for administering the post-tests to the groups, and students were asked to design and deliver a prepared speech based on the given topic. Students' presentations were recorded. Then, the speaking anxiety scale was used as a post-test, and, as before, the speech recordings were shared with the two expert Turkish language teachers for their evaluation using the speaking evaluation form.

Results

The first research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Speaking Performance Pre-Test Scores by Groups

Variable	Group	N	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	t	p
Pre-test speaking order	Control	19	64.45 ± 5.56	1.28	3.032	*0.004
	Experimental	19	69.03 ± 3.52	0.81		
Pre-test language awareness	Control	19	63.00 ± 3.37	0.77	0.841	0.406
	Experimental	19	63.92 ± 3.38	0.77		
Pre-test psychological condition of the speaker	Control	19	12.55 ± 0.86	0.19	2.540	*0.016
	Experimental	19	11.71 ± 1.16	0.26		
Pre-test speaking performance total	Control	19	140.00 ± 7.92	1.82	2.070	*0.046
	Experimental	19	144.66 ± 5.79	1.33		

A statistically significant difference was observed between groups in terms of the speaking order (*p = 0.004), psychological condition of the speaker sub-dimensions (*p = 0.016), and the total speaking performance scale (*p = 0.046) based on their pre-test scores (Table 6). Conversely, for the language awareness sub-dimension pre-test scores, no statistically significant difference was found between the groups ($p > 0.05$). The data indicated that the experimental and control groups were not equivalent in terms of speaking

order, psychological condition of the speaker sub-dimensions, and overall speaking performance. However, they were comparable in terms of the language awareness sub-dimension.

The second research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Speaking Anxiety Pre-Test Scores by Groups

Variable	Group	*N*	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	*t*	*p*
Pre-test prejudgment of the speaking skill	Control	19	37.16 ± 10.96	2.51	0.200	0.842
	Experimental	19	37.95 ± 13.22	3.03		
Pre-test speaking self-confidence	Control	19	14.95 ± 5.47	1.25	0.420	0.677
	Experimental	19	15.68 ± 5.35	1.23		
Pre-test enjoying speaking	Control	19	8.84 ± 3.01	0.69	0.286	0.777
	Experimental	19	9.10 ± 2.66	0.61		
Pre-test anxiety of being evaluated	Control	19	9.63 ± 2.83	0.65	1.549	0.130
	Experimental	19	8.10 ± 3.23	0.74		
Pre-test willingness to speak in the classroom	Control	19	10.95 ± 3.42	0.78	1.545	0.131
	Experimental	19	12.79 ± 3.91	0.89		
Pre-test speaking anxiety total	Control	19	81.53 ± 18.99	4.36	0.351	0.727
	Experimental	19	83.63 ± 17.94	4.11		

No statistically significant difference was observed among groups for the speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions and the speaking anxiety scale total pre-test scores ($p > 0.05$; Table 7). The data indicated that the experimental and control groups were equivalent in terms of the sub-dimensions and overall speaking anxiety level.

The third research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Speaking Performance Pre-Test And Post-Test Scores in the Experimental Group

Variable	Test	*N*	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	*t*	*p*
Speaking order	Pre-test	19	69.03 ± 3.52	0.81	5.372	*< 0.001
	Post-test	19	76.79 ± 4.29	0.98		
Language awareness	Pre-test	19	63.92 ± 3.38	0.77	6.031	*< 0.001
	Post-test	19	70.95 ± 3.85	0.88		
Psychological condition of the speaker	Pre-test	19	11.71 ± 1.16	0.26	8.243	*< 0.001
	Post-test	19	15.18 ± 1.86	0.43		
Speaking performance total	Pre-test	19	144.66 ± 5.79	1.33	6.875	*< 0.001
	Post-test	19	162.92 ± 8.89	2.04		

A statistically significant difference was observed within the experimental group for the speaking order (*$p < 0.001$), language awareness (*$p < 0.001$), psychological condition

of the speaker sub-dimensions ($^*p < 0.001$), and the speaking performance scale total ($^*p < 0.001$) pre-test and post-test scores (Table 8). The data indicated that teaching speaking strategies positively affected the sub-dimensions and overall speaking performance in the experimental group.

The fourth research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Speaking Anxiety Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores in the Experimental Group

Variable	Test	N	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	t	p
Prejudgment of the speaking skill	Pre-test	19	37.95 ± 13.22	3.03	0.152	0.881
	Post-test	19	37.53 ± 12.81	2.94		
Speaking self-confidence	Pre-test	19	15.68 ± 5.35	1.23	1.084	0.293
	Post-test	19	17.53 ± 5.17	1.18		
Enjoying speaking	Pre-test	19	9.10 ± 2.66	0.61	1.129	0.274
	Post-test	19	9.89 ± 3.45	0.79		
Anxiety of being evaluated	Pre-test	19	8.10 ± 3.23	0.74	0.275	0.787
	Post-test	19	8.31 ± 3.53	0.81		
Willingness to speak in the classroom	Pre-test	19	12.79 ± 3.91	0.89	1.741	0.099
	Post-test	19	11.10 ± 4.09	0.94		
Speaking anxiety total	Pre-test	19	83.63 ± 17.94	4.11	0.224	0.825
	Post-test	19	84.37 ± 21.89	5.02		

No statistically significant difference was observed within the experimental group for the speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions and the speaking anxiety scale total pre-test and post-test scores ($p > 0.05$; Table 9). The data indicated that teaching speaking strategies did not impact the sub-dimensions and overall speaking anxiety level in the experimental group.

The fifth research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Speaking Performance Pre-Test And Post-Test Scores in the Control Group

Variable	Test	N	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	t	p
Speaking order	Pre-test	19	64.45 ± 5.56	1.28	8.235	*< 0.001
	Post-test	19	76.03 ± 6.58	1.51		
Language awareness	Pre-test	19	63.00 ± 3.37	0.77	7.055	*< 0.001
	Post-test	19	69.50 ± 3.60	0.83		
Psychological condition of the speaker	Pre-test	19	12.55 ± 0.86	0.19	3.292	*0.004
	Post-test	19	14.29 ± 2.28	0.52		
Speaking performance total	Pre-test	19	140.00 ± 7.92	1.82	9.302	*< 0.001
	Post-test	19	159.92 ± 10.65	2.44		

The effect of teaching speaking. . .

A statistically significant difference was observed within the control group for the speaking order ($^*p < 0.001$), language awareness ($^*p < 0.001$), psychological condition of the speaker sub-dimensions ($^*p = 0.004$), and the speaking performance scale total ($^*p < 0.001$) pre-test and post-test scores (Table 10). The data indicated that traditional instruction positively affected the sub-dimensions and overall speaking performance in the control group.

The sixth research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Speaking Anxiety Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores in the Control Group

Variable	Test	*N*	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	*t*	*p*
Prejudgment of the speaking skill	Pre-test	19	37.16 ± 10.96	2.51	1.774	0.093
	Post-test	19	32.79 ± 12.09	2.77		
Speaking self-confidence	Pre-test	19	14.95 ± 5.47	1.25	0.229	0.821
	Post-test	19	14.58 ± 7.16	1.64		
Enjoying speaking	Pre-test	19	8.84 ± 3.01	0.69	0.054	0.957
	Post-test	19	8.78 ± 4.53	1.04		
Anxiety of being evaluated	Pre-test	19	9.63 ± 2.83	0.65	1.327	0.201
	Post-test	19	8.31 ± 2.45	0.56		
Willingness to speak in the classroom	Pre-test	19	10.95 ± 3.42	0.78	0.150	0.883
	Post-test	19	11.10 ± 4.78	1.09		
Speaking anxiety total	Pre-test	19	81.53 ± 18.99	4.36	1.325	0.202
	Post-test	19	75.58 ± 24.40	5.59		

No statistically significant difference was observed within the control group for the speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions and the speaking anxiety scale total pre-test and post-test scores ($p > 0.05$; Table 11). The data indicated that traditional instruction did not impact the sub-dimensions and overall speaking anxiety level in the control group.

The seventh research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking performance and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Tables 12–15.

Table 12. Speaking Order Sub-Dimension Post-Test ANCOVA Results by Groups

Variance source	Sum of squares	SD	Mean squares	*F*	*p*
Pre-test	80.836	1	80.836	2.743	0.107
Group	3.823	1	3.823	0.130	0.721
Error	1031.559	35	29.473		
Total	222968.250	38			

No statistically significant difference was observed among groups for the speaking order sub-dimension post-test scores ($F = 0.130$, $p = 0.721$; Table 12).

Table 13. Language Awareness Sub-Dimension Post-Test Scores by Groups

Variable	Group	N	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	t	p
Post-test language awareness	Control	19	69.60 ± 3.60	0.83	1.110	0.274
	Experimental	19	70.95 ± 3.85	0.88		

No statistically significant difference was observed among groups for the language awareness sub-dimension post-test scores ($p > 0.05$; Table 13).

Table 14. Psychological Condition of the Speaker Sub-Dimension Post-Test ANCOVA Results by Groups

Variance source	Sum of squares	SD	Mean squares	F	p
Pre-test	9.573	1	9.573	2.284	0.140
Group	14.030	1	14.030	3.348	0.076
Error	146.690	35	4.191		
Total	8416.50	38			

No statistically significant difference was observed among groups for the psychological condition of the speaker sub-dimension post-test scores ($F = 3.348$, $p = 0.076$; Table 14).

Table 15. Speaking Performance Total Post-Test ANCOVA Results by Groups

Variance source	Sum of squares	SD	Mean squares	F	p
Pre-test	211.965	1	211.965	2.282	0.140
Group	15.935	1	15.935	0.172	0.681
Error	3250.798	35	92.880		
Total	993705.0	38			

No statistically significant difference was observed among groups for the speaking performance scale total post-test scores ($F = 0.172$, $p = 0.681$; Table 15).

These data suggested that introducing speaking strategies did not lead to a notable difference in either the sub-dimensions or the overall speaking performance compared with traditional instruction.

The eighth research question was "Is there a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of overall speaking anxiety and its sub-dimensions?". The findings regarding this question are presented in Table 16.

Table 16. Speaking Anxiety Post-Test Scores by Groups

Variable	Group	N	Mean ± SD	Mean standard error	t	p
Post-test prejudgment of the speaking skill	Control	19	32.79 ± 12.09	2.77	1.172	0.249
	Experimental	19	37.53 ± 12.81	2.94		
Post-test speaking self-confidence	Control	19	14.58 ± 7.16	1.64	1.455	0.154
	Experimental	19	17.53 ± 5.17	1.18		
Post-test enjoying speaking	Control	19	8.79 ± 4.53	1.04	0.847	0.403
	Experimental	19	9.89 ± 3.44	0.79		
Post-test anxiety of being evaluated	Control	19	8.31 ± 2.45	0.56	0.001	0.999
	Experimental	19	8.31 ± 3.53	0.81		
	Control	19	11.10 ± 4.78	1.09	0.001	0.999

Post-test willingness to speak in the classroom	Experimental	19	11.10 ± 4.09	0.94		
Post-test speaking anxiety total	Control	19	75.58 ± 24.40	5.59	1.169	0.250
	Experimental	19	84.37 ± 21.89	5.02		

No statistically significant difference was observed among groups for the speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions and the speaking anxiety scale total post-test scores ($p > 0.05$; Table 16). The data indicated that teaching speaking strategies did not create a difference in the sub-dimensions and overall speaking anxiety level compared with traditional instruction.

Conclusion and Discussion

This study examined the impact of teaching speaking strategies on speaking performance and anxiety levels. One of the primary findings indicated no statistically significant difference in speaking performance between the experimental and control groups. This result implied that teaching speaking strategies did not notably influence the speaking performance of secondary school students compared with traditional instruction. A literature review indicated that teaching cognitive awareness strategies (Kartallıoğlu, 2015) and direct instruction (Kemiksiz, 2016) were more effective than traditional methods. Additionally, providing strategy instruction heightened students' awareness of these strategies (Kartallıoğlu, 2015). However, these outcomes were not consistent with the results of the present study. This discrepancy underlines the need for further research comparing speaking strategies with traditional teaching methods.

Compared with the pre-test and post-test scores in the experimental group, teaching speaking strategies positively affected students' speaking performance. Supporting this claim, research related to public speaking (PS) indicated that PS training consistently improved speaking performance (Al Tamimi, 2014; Fawcett & Miller, 1975; Herbein et al., 2018; Nadia & Yansyah, 2018; Rubin et al., 1995; Wilson, 1989). For instance, students undergoing PS training in a second language showed steady progress in speaking performance over time (Zhang et al., 2020). Oral communication courses effectively enhanced students' nonverbal communication skills (Jones, 2021), and opportunities for PS practice furthered these skills (Sari, 2012; Wilson, 1989). Moreover, research showed that more preparation time and previous PS experience correlated with higher grades in communication courses (Pearson & Child, 2008). The speaking performance increased with an increase in preparation time, with students scoring higher when dedicating more time to presentation and rehearsal (Pearson, Child & Kahl Jr., 2006). A notable correlation was found between high-quality speaking performance and factors such as preparation time, preparing visual aids, rehearsals, silent and loud rehearsal durations, and external research (Menzel & Carrell, 1994). Other studies emphasized the role of specific speaking strategy choices in determining student performance (Brown, 1993). These conclusions aligned with the findings of this study. However, some studies indicated that PS training did not significantly impact students' speaking performances (Osma et al., 2017) and past PS experiences did not predict basic PS course grades (Pearson, Child, Herakova et al., 2010). These findings did not align with the results of this study. However, different studies revealed that teachers found PS courses highly useful in addressing the fundamental

problems related to students' speaking skills (Iftakhar, 2013); students perceived that taking PS courses enhanced their speaking skills in various aspects (Adiwinata, 2017).

Studies indicated that teachers often lacked comprehensive knowledge about methodologies and techniques used for speaking instruction (Arhan, 2007; Coşkun Çınar, 2015). They tended to use limited and similar methods (Arhan, 2007). In the evaluation processes, they also tended to focus more on the prosodic skills of speaking (Hamzadayı & Dölek, 2017). Several studies noted that students' speaking skills did not reach a satisfactory level (Dülger, 2011; Sargın, 2006; Yeşiltepe Sağlam, 2010). Moreover, diverse speech problems were observed in different age groups in terms of cognitive, physical, and affective aspects (Akkaya, 2012; Arslan, 2012; Başaran & Erdem, 2009; Kara, 2020; Kaya, 2019; Sever & Topçuoğlu Ünal, 2020; Topçuoğlu Ünal & Degeç, 2012; Yıldırım, 2020). Given that teaching speaking strategies noticeably improved the speaking skills of students in the experimental group, integrating speaking strategies into lessons starting from secondary school can be suggested. This can add diversity to teaching processes and contribute to teachers' instructional practices. Therefore, including speaking strategies in the curriculum starting from the secondary school level may be beneficial.

Another key insight provided by this study was that teaching speaking strategies did not create a statistically significant difference in speaking anxiety levels between experimental and control groups. Contrasting this, studies suggested that direct instruction reduced students' speaking anxiety compared with traditional education (Kemiksiz, 2016). The results of the present study did not align with these findings. Therefore, more rigorous investigation is needed into the impact of speaking strategies on speaking anxiety.

It was evident that teaching speaking strategies did not significantly impact the students' levels of speaking anxiety compared with the pre-test and post-test scores in the experimental group. A study revealed that teaching cognitive awareness strategies reduced students' speaking anxiety (Kartallıoğlu, 2015). Various studies on PS suggested that PS training (Al Tamimi, 2014; Bednar, 1991; Colbeck, 2011; Dwyer & Davidson, 2021; LeFebvre et al., 2020), laboratory-supported PS training (Ellis, 1995), skill-based education (Pribyl et al., 2001), and the introduction of delivery skills in PS training (Neer & Kircher, 1989) contributed to reducing students' speaking anxiety. Similar findings were noted in studies focusing on pre-service teachers, indicating that instruction in prepared speech (Özdemir, 2018), oral expression courses (Katrancı & Kuşdemir, 2015), and speaking skill courses (Sarıkaya, 2020) reduced pre-service teachers' speaking anxiety. Research revealed that the level of students' speaking anxiety varied based on the strategies they employed while preparing for speeches, and this anxiety level influenced the frequency of their speaking strategy usage (Brown, 1993). To alleviate speaking anxiety, students often engaged in preparing and rehearsing speeches (Netta et al., 2020; Pratama et al., 2018; Widhayanti, 2018) and employed hand-body movements during speech delivery (Netta et al., 2020; Pratama et al., 2018). However, some studies suggested that oral communication courses might exacerbate students' speaking anxiety (Jones, 2021).

Research regarding the influence of PS experiences on speaking anxiety demonstrated that such experiences reduced anxiety (Ercan Güven, 2020; Karalı et al., 2021; Nash et al., 2016; Özkan & Kinay, 2015). Moreover, students with less speaking experience

tended to have higher heart rates during the speaking process (Pörhölä, 1997). Studies also revealed that students with prior PS training or external curricular experiences (Christensen, 2000; Johnson, 2012) and those who frequently engaged in speaking both within and outside academic settings experienced diminished PS anxiety (Christensen, 2000). Such studies supported the idea that speaking strategies had an impact on students' speaking anxiety, which was not consistent with the findings of this study.

Various studies indicated that excessive preparation was insufficient to cope with anxiety (Thomas et al., 1994). Students with elevated speaking anxiety might achieve lower grades despite investing more time in speech preparation than those with lower anxiety (Ayres, 1996). Additionally, some studies suggested that PS training did not affect students' speaking anxiety levels (Herbein et al., 2018; McCourt, 2007; Nadia & Yansyah, 2018). These findings were in line with the results of this study.

In conclusion, this study showed that, although teaching speaking strategies did not change the speaking anxiety in the experimental group, it positively influenced their speaking performance. This suggested that speaking strategies were effective in enhancing students' speaking skills. Therefore, speaking strategies should be included in activities related to speaking proficiency. This study had a limitation, as instructional and implementation processes lasted only for six weeks. Hence, studies with longer instructional processes are needed on this subject.

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Dil Eğitimi ve Araştırmaları Dergisi

Araştırma Makalesi

Konuşma Stratejilerinin Öğretiminin Konuşma Başarımına ve Konuşma Kaygısına Etkisi

Seçil Simge UYAR *   **Ergün HAMZADAYI***

MAKALE BİLGİSİ	ÖZET
	Araştırmanın amacı konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin konuşma başarımına ve konuşma kaygısına etkisini belirlemektir. Araştırmada kontrol gruplu ön test-son test yarı deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 8. sınıfta öğrenim gören 19'u kontrol ve 19'u deney grubu olmak üzere toplam 38 öğrenci oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın verileri konuşma değerlendirme formu ve ortaokul öğrencileri için konuşma kaygısı ölçeği ile toplanmıştır, veriler bağımlı örneklem *t*-testi, bağımsız örneklem *t*-testi ve kovaryans analizi ile çözümlenmiştir. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlardan biri konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin geleneksel eğitime göre konuşma başarımı ve konuşma kaygısı üstünde anlamlı bir farklılaşma oluşturmadığı yönündedir. Öte yandan konuşma stratejilerinin öğretimi deney grubunun konuşma başarımı üstünde olumlu yönde ve anlamlı bir etki göstermiş fakat konuşma kaygısı üstünde herhangi bir etki göstermemiştir.
Yayın Etiği Bilgilendirme	
Yazarların Katkı Oranı	
Çıkar çatışması	Çalışmada herhangi bir çıkar çatışması yoktur.
Gönderim	Uyar, S.S., & Hamzadayı, E. (2023). Konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin konuşma başarımına ve konuşma kaygısına etkisi. *Journal of Language Education and Research, 9*(2), 248-297.

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Giriş

Konuşma, bireyin yaklaşık olarak ilk yaşını aldığı dönemde sesleri birleştirip sözcükler üretebilmesiyle anlam kazanır. Olağan dışı bir durum gerçekleşmez ise beş yaşına kadar geçen sürede konuşma becerisinin gelişimi tüm çocuklarda ortak bir biçimde ilerler. Buradan yönelimle konuşma öğrenciler okula başlamadan çok önce gerçekleşen, "ses, boğumlama, anlatma, anlama, anlaşma, iletişim gibi iç içe geçmiş kavramları da kapsayan bir beceri" (Temizkan, 2017, s. 200) olarak tanımlanabilir. Konuşmanın bilişsel-zihinsel, fiziksel ve duyuşsal boyutları bulunan (Bozkurt, 2019; Hamzadayı, 2019), çeşitli alt becerileri içeren karmaşık bir edim olduğu söylenebilir. Her ne kadar bireyler okula başlamadan önce konuşmayı öğrenmiş olsalar bile, bu onların yaşıtlarının ve yakın çevresinin dilidir (Doğan, 2009; Kavcar, 2016; Temizyürek, 2007). Araştırmalarda (Ağca, 2001; Ceran, 2012; Gedik ve Orhan, 2014; Kurudayıoğlu, 2003; Özden, 2018; Uçgun, 2007; Yalçın, 2006) konuşmanın doğuştan gelen bir yeti olduğuna ancak etkili ve doğru bir konuşma için eğitime gereksinim duyulduğuna vurgu yapılır. Bireylerin bu edimi yetkin bir biçimde işletebilmesinde anadili eğitmenlerine büyük sorumluluklar düşer.

Günlük yaşamda gerçekleştirilen konuşmaların çoğu anlık bir biçimde gelişir ve ön hazırlık gerektirmez. Buna karşın belirli bir konuda ve belirli bir amaç doğrultusunda bir topluluk karşısında konuşma eylemi gerçekleştirilecek ise düşüncelerin etkili bir biçimde aktarılabilmesi için ön hazırlık yapmanın, bir plan hazırlayarak bu plana uymanın gerekli olduğu söylenebilir. Araştırma sonuçları (Akkaya, 2012; Arslan, 2012; Ceran, 2012; Göçer, 2008; Karakoç Öztürk ve Altuntaş, 2012; Katrancı ve Kuşdemir, 2015; Oğuz, 2009; Özdemir, 2018) öğrencilerin hazırlıklı konuşma uygulamaları gerçekleştirmedikleri için konuşmaya yönelik olumsuz duygu ve düşünceler taşıdıklarını gösterir. Bunun yanı sıra konuşma sürecinin bileşenlerine dikkat edilmeden konuşma gerçekleştirildiğinde konuşmacı iletmek istediği düşünceyi hedeflediği kitleye ulaştıramayabilir. Bu durum konuşmacının duyuşsal durumunu da olumsuz yönde etkileyebilir. Konuşmacı, etkili bir hazırlık süreci geçirmeden konuşmayı gerçekleştirdiğinde kaygılanabilir. Yine duyuşsal etmenlerde gerçekleşen bir değişim ise konuşma sırasında konuşmanın fiziksel boyutunu etkileyerek ses titrekliği, kekemelik, tonlama ve vurgu hatalarına, beden dili uyumsuzluklarına yol açabilir. Bu nedenlerle Türkçe derslerinde, yapılandırılmış çeşitli etkinlikler yardımıyla hazırlıklı konuşma uygulamalarına yer verilmelidir.

Alanyazında strateji, teknik ve yöntem olarak kullanılan terimler incelendiğinde, terimlerin birbirinden farkının belirgin olmadığı ve bunların birbirinin yerine kullanılabildiği, dolayısıyla terimler üstünde bir uzlaşı olmadığı görülmektedir (Kurudayıoğlu ve Kiraz, 2020a; Kurudayıoğlu ve Kiraz, 2020b; Türkel 2019). 2019 Türkçe Dersi Öğretim Programı'nın ortaokul düzeyindeki "Konuşma stratejilerini kullanır." kazanımının açıklamaları incelendiğinde konuşma yöntem ve tekniklerine yer verildiği, programda yer alan "Hazırlıklı konuşma yapar." kazanımı ile ilgili açıklamaların ise yeterli olmadığı söylenebilir. Öte yandan programın ortaokul düzeyinde konuşmanın duyuşsal yönü ile ilgili bir kazanım veya açıklamaya da yer verilmemiştir. İkinci dil öğretiminde duyuşsal boyut ağırlıklı programın, öğrencilerin duyuşsal gelişimini olumlu yönde etkilediği belirlenmiştir (Kara, 2003). Bu sonuç anadil eğitimi için de geçerli olabilir. Konuşma stratejilerini belirleyerek bu stratejileri öğrencilere kazandırmak, onların konuşma başarımları kadar, konuşma üstünde etkili olan konuşma kaygılarını da olumlu yönde

etkileyebilir. Bu bağlamda konuşmanın bilişsel ve fiziksel boyutları, konuşma kaygısı ve konuşma stratejileri üzerinde durmak araştımanın kuramsal çerçevesini oluşturmak açısından önem taşımaktadır.

Alanyazın Taraması

Konuşmanın Bilişsel ve Fiziksel Boyutları

Bireyin karşısındakine vermek istediği iletiyi içerik olarak tam ve düzgün bir biçimde dile getirebilmesi konuşmanın daha çok bilişsel yönüyle, bu dile getirme sürecindeki vurgu ve tonlama gibi etmenler ise daha çok konuşmanın fiziksel yönüyle ilgilidir (Hamzadayı, 2019, s. 89). Konuşma üretim süreci; zihinsel tasarım (kavramlaştırma), dilsel ve dil bilgisel düzenleme (biçimlendirme), fiziksel süreç/çıktı (boğumlama) olarak sıralanır ve konuşmanın bilişsel ve zihinsel yönleri bir bütün olarak ele alınır (Bozkurt, 2019). Bireylerin konuşmayı gerçekleştirebilmeleri için bu aşamaları sağlıklı bir biçimde işletebilmeleri gerekir.

Konuşma niyetinin oluşması ve zihinsel tasarım süreci kavramlaştırma, dilsel ve dil bilgisel düzenleme biçimlendirme, konuşucunun sahip olduğu bilgi türleri ise dil dışı ve dilsel-dil bilgisel bilgiler olarak tanımlanır (Bozkurt, 2019, s. 45). Kavramlaştırma sürecinde anlamsal düzenleme yapılırken, biçimlendirme aşamasında bu anlamsal yapı çeşitli alt işlemlerin gerçekleştirilmesiyle tümceler haline getirilir. Konuşmacı bu süreçleri gerçekleştirirken dilsel ve dil bilgisel bilgi türlerini kullanır. Böylece konuşma bilişsel olarak üretilir. Bu üretimin sonucunda konuşmanın fiziksel boyutu harekete geçer.

Konuşmanın fiziksel boyutu ise solunum (*respiration*), sesleme (*phonation*) ve boğumlama (*articulation*) ile konuşma organlarını içeren; konuşmacının uygun sesleri çıkarması sürecidir (Bozkurt, 2019). Buna göre nefes verme sırasında havanın ses tellerine çarpması ile salt ses oluşur, bu ses çeşitli konuşma organlarının bulunduğu ağız ve geniz boşluğunun yardımıyla boğumlanır. Böylece konuşma sesi olan ünlü ve ünsüzler oluşur.

Konuşma Kaygısı

Konuşma sürecinin başarılı bir biçimde gerçekleştirilmesinde ya da konuşma sürecinde görülen sorunların kaynağında, bilişsel ve fiziksel boyutlar kadar duyuşsal boyut da belirleyici bir rol oynar (Hamzadayı, 2019, s. 89). Bireyin konuşmaya olan tutumu, konuşma becerisine yönelik özyeterlik algısı, konuşma öncesinde ve sırasındaki kaygı düzeyi konuşmanın duyuşsal boyutunu oluşturur (Gölpınar vd., 2018, s. 76). Dolayısıyla konuşma süreci ve konuşma becerisi eğitiminin, duyuşsal boyutla bir bütün haline geldiği söylenebilir. Nitekim duyuşsal alan tüm bilişsel öğrenmeleri ve sözce üretim süreçlerini etkiler.

Kaygı "otonom sinir sisteminin etkinleşmesi veya uyarılması ile ilişkilendirilen hoş olmayan, bilinçli olarak algılanan sinirlilik, gerginlik ve endişe duygularını içeren belirli bir duygusal durum" (Spielberger, 1972) olarak tanımlanır. Kaygı bireyi fiziksel, bilişsel, güdüsel, duyuşsal, davranışsal olarak çeşitli biçimlerde etkiler (Beck ve Emery, 1985). Kaygının güçlü ve sürekli biçimde tekrarlanması ise bireyin yaşamını olumsuz yönde etkiler.

Kaygı ile ilgili çalışmalarda sürekli kaygı (*trait anxiety*), durumluk kaygı (*state anxiety*) ve olaya özgü kaygı (*situation-specific anxiety*) olmak üzere üç farklı kaygı türüne

vurgu yapılır (MacIntyre ve Gardner, 1991). Sürekli kaygı bireyin kişilik özelliği haline gelmiş kaygı türü iken, durumluk kaygı bir duruma tepki olarak belirli bir anda hissedilen kaygıdır (Ellis, 1994). Olaya özgü kaygı kavramı ise sadece belirli bir olayda veya bağlamda gerçekleşmesi ile bu iki türden ayrılır, konuşma sunumu sırasında duyumsanan kaygı olaya özgü kaygı örneklerinden biridir (MacIntyre, 1999).

Konuşma kaygısı, topluluk karşısında veya karşılıklı gerçekleşen konuşmalarda bireyin konuşmaktan kaçınmasına, heyecanlanmasına, düşüncelerini etkili biçimde aktaramamasına yol açan, terleme, kalp atışlarının hızlanması gibi fiziksel belirtilerle kendini gösteren kaygı (Keşaplı ve Çifci, 2017, s. 464-465) olarak tanımlanır. Alanyazındaki çalışmalarda (Akay ve Uzun, 2018; Demirel, 2019, Solak ve Yılmaz, 2017; Yılmaz, 2018) bireylerin konuşma kaygısı yaşamalarında olumsuz eğitim öğretim ortamları, ölçme ve değerlendirme uygulamalarındaki yanlışlar, bireysel tutumlar, bilgi ve beceri eksikliği öncelikli nedenler olarak sıralanır.

Alanyazın incelendiğinde konuşma kaygısının konuşma başarımı ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olduğu (Daly, Vangelisti ve Lawrence, 1989; Daly, Vangelisti ve Weber, 1995; Gölpınar vd., 2018; Menzel ve Carrell, 1994; Phillips, 1992; Syafryadin vd., 2020), öğrencilerin konuşma kaygıları ile konuşma konusu seçimlerinin ilişkili olduğu (Daly, Vangelisti, Neel ve Cavanaugh, 1989; Duran ve Kaplan, 2018), konuşma kaygısının konuşmanın niteliği ve süresi üstünde etkili olduğu (Gallego vd., 2021); kaygının en yüksek düzeyde sahnede yaşandığı, hazırlık öncesi, hazırlık süreci ve konuşma sunumu öncesinde ise kısmen yüksek kaygıya sahip olunduğu (Viwattanabunchong, 2017) saptanmıştır. Konuşma kaygısının sadece konuşma başarımı ile değil, konuşmanın duyuşsal boyutunu oluşturan tutum ve özyeterlik kavramları ile ilişkili olduğunu gösteren araştırmalar (Adkins, 2006; Baki ve Kahveci, 2017; Dwyer ve Fus, 1999; Ellis, 1995; Gökhan, 2020; Gürsoy ve Karaca, 2018; Hermagustiana vd., 2021; Mohammadi ve Rezaei, 2021; Tekşan vd., 2019; Villegas Puyod vd., 2020) da bulunmaktadır.

Konuşma Stratejileri

Strateji, "öğretim amaçlarına göre uygulanacak yöntemleri, materyalleri, araç-gereçleri seçme ve öğretimi yönlendirme etkinliklerinin tamamını kapsayan bir kavram olarak tanımlanabilir" (Kurudayıoğlu ve Kiraz, 2020a, s. 389). Konuşma stratejisi kavramı ise "bir konuşma amacına ulaşmak üzere işe koşulabilecek yöntem, teknik, araç ve gereçlerin belirlenmesini kapsayan, çerçeve niteliğinde, genel bir konuşma planı" (Kurudayıoğlu ve Kiraz, 2020b, s. 172) olarak tanımlanır. Bir başka deyişle konuşma stratejileri; konuşmanın planlama, yürütme ve değerlendirme süreçlerini etkili bir biçimde yönetebilmek ve konuşma ile gerçekleştirilmek istenen amaca ulaşabilmek için uygulanacak yöntemleri, materyalleri, teknikleri, araç-gereçleri seçme ve uygulama işi olarak tanımlanabilir.

Alanyazın incelendiğinde okuma, yazma ve dinleme becerilerine yönelik stratejilerin saptandığı ve bunların çeşitli uygulamalarla öğrenciler üzerinde sınandığı çalışmalar (Bozkurt, 2020; Topuzkanamış, 2014; Yıldız, 2015) olduğu görülür. Güneş (2019) ise çeşitli çalışmalardan yönelimle konuşma stratejilerine yer vermiştir. Konuşma becerisine yönelik stratejilerin yapısına ve işlevine bakıldığında bu stratejileri; konuşma öncesi stratejiler, konuşma sırası stratejiler ve konuşma sonrası stratejiler olarak üç ulamda değerlendirmek

olanaklıdır. Konuşma öncesi stratejiler konuşmayı planlama ve düzenleme aşamalarını, konuşma sırası stratejiler konuşmayı yönetebilmeyi, konuşma sonrası stratejiler ise konuşmayı değerlendirmeyi içerir. Alanyazındaki çalışmalardan (Beebe ve Beebe, 2013; Coopman ve Lull, 2018; DeVito, 2017; German, 2017; Güneş, 2019; Harris, 2017; Jaffe, 2016; Lucas, 2009; O'Hair vd., 2019; Osborn vd., 2015; Özdemir, 2016; Tucker vd., 2019; Verderber vd., 2012; Yalınkılıç, 2019; Young ve Travis, 2012; Zarefsky, 2017) yönelimle hazırlıklı konuşma becerisine yönelik konuşma stratejileri üç ulamda Çizelge 1'de sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 17. Konuşma Stratejileri

Aşamalar		Stratejiler
Konuşma öncesi	Konuşmayı planlama	Konuşmanın genel amacını belirleme
		Konuşmanın konusunu belirleme
		Konuyla ilgili ön bilgileri harekete geçirme
		Tartışma veya beyin fırtınası tekniklerini kullanma
		Konuşma içeriğini sınırlama
		Hedef dinleyiciyi çözümleme
		Araştırma yapma
		Dinleyicinin sorularını tahmin etme
	Konuşmayı düzenleme	Konuşmanın anlatım desenini belirleme
		Ana hatları belirleme
		Metinleştirme
		Sunum biçimini belirleme
		Konuşmayı sunmaya yardımcı olacak materyaller hazırlama
		Konuşma provası gerçekleştirme
Konuşma sırası		Beden dilini doğru kullanma
		Sesi doğru kullanma
		Konuşmayı sunmaya yardımcı olacak materyalleri kullanma
		Konuşma planına uyma
		Dinleyicilerin sorularını yanıtlama
Konuşma sonrası		Konuşmanın amacını ve amaca ulaşma durumunu değerlendirme
		Hedef dinleyici ile ilgili yapılan çözümlemenin doğruluğunu değerlendirme
		Konuşmanın içeriğini değerlendirme
		Konuşmanın yapısını değerlendirme
		Konuşma sırasını değerlendirme

Konuşmayı açıklamak üzere geliştirilen modeller incelendiğinde (Bayat, 2019; Bozkurt, 2019; Güneş, 2019), bu modellerde konuşmanın bilişsel ve fiziksel yönüne vurgu yapıldığı görülür. Konuşmanın bilişsel boyutu içeriğin konuşmacının zihnindeki oluşumu ve denetlenmesiyle ilgiliyken fiziksel boyutu içeriğin dinleyicilere aktarım süreciyle ilgilidir. Konuşma öncesi, sırası ve sonrasında kullanılacak söz konusu stratejiler konuşmanın bilişsel ve fiziksel boyutlarını içerir. Duyuşsal boyutun etmenlerinden biri olan kaygı ise bu süreçleri çeşitli yönlerden etkiler. Konuşmaya yönelik kaygı düzeyi yüksek bireylerin bu süreçleri etkili bir biçimde yönetemeyeceği, konuşmayı bilişsel ve fiziksel olarak yönetmede etkili olamayan bireylerin de konuşma kaygı düzeyinin artacağı savlanabilir. Dolayısıyla konuşmaya etki eden etmenlerin kontrol edilebilmesi için

öğrencilerin konuşma ile ilgili bilgilendirilmesi ve yeterince uygulama yapması gerektiği söylenebilir. Bu uygulamalar Türkçe Dersi Öğretim Programı çerçevesinde düzenlenmiş öğretim etkinlikleriyle gerçekleştirilebilir.

Alanyazın incelendiğinde konuşma stratejilerinin öğretimi ile ilgili çalışmaların (Atik, 2006; Cohen vd., 1996; Gençoğlu, 2011; Keskin, 2013; Kılıç, 2003; Koşar ve Bedir, 2014; Melendez vd., 2014; Nakatani, 2005; Tsai, 2018) ağırlıklı olarak ikinci dil öğretimi üstünden gerçekleştirildiği görülür. Söz konusu araştırmaların sonuçları, strateji öğretiminin öğrencilerin konuşma stratejisi kullanımları ve konuşma başarımlarını olumlu yönde etkilediğini ortaya koyar. Buradan yönelimle anadili eğitimi sürecinde de konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin konuşma başarımı ve konuşma kaygısı üstünde etkili olacağı varsayılabilir. Bu varsayımın doğruluğunu sınamak amacıyla gerçekleştirilen bu çalışmada konuşma stratejileri derlenmiş, stratejilerin konuşma başarımı ve konuşma kaygısına etkisi incelenmiştir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda araştırmada aşağıdaki sorulara yanıt aranmıştır:

1. Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından ön test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

2. Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından ön test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

3. Deney grubunun konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

4. Deney grubunun konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

5. Kontrol grubunun konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

6. Kontrol grubunun konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

7. Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

8. Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?

Yöntem

Araştırmanın Modeli ve Yayın Etiği

Bu araştırma, nicel araştırma yaklaşımlarından ön test-son test kontrol gruplu yarı deneysel desen doğrultusunda gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ön test-son test kontrol gruplu yarı deneysel desende birbirine denk gruplar seçilerek bunlardan biri/birkaçı deney, biri/birkaçı

kontrol grubu olacak biçimde yansız atama yapılır (Özmen, 2019). Araştırmada ön test ölçek puanı, akademik başarı, cinsiyet ve sayı yönlerinden birbirine denk iki grup oluşturulmaya çalışılmış ve bu gruplardan biri deney, biri kontrol grubu olacak biçimde yansız olarak seçilmiştir. Deney grubu üstünde etkisi incelenen bağımsız değişken konuşma stratejilerinin öğretimidir. Araştırmanın deney modeli Çizelge 2'de gösterilmiştir.

Çizelge 18. Araştırmada Uygulanan Deneysel Desen

Grup	Uygulama öncesi	İşlem	Uygulama sonrası
	Ön test		Son test
Deney	O1	Konuşma stratejilerinin öğretimi	O3
Kontrol	O2	Geleneksel eğitim	O4

Çizelge 2'de yer alan O1, O2, O3 ve O4 ifadeleri deney ve kontrol grubuna ön test ve son test olarak uygulanan "Konuşma Değerlendirme Formu"nu (Sargın, 2006) ve "Ortaokul Öğrencileri İçin Konuşma Kaygısı Ölçeği"ni (Demir ve Melanlıoğlu, 2014) temsil etmektedir.

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Çalışma Kümesi

Araştırma 2021-2022 eğitim-öğretim yılının birinci döneminde Hatay ilindeki bir ortaokulda 8. sınıf düzeyinde ve iki ayrı şubede öğrenim gören 19'u kontrol ve 19'u deney grubu olmak üzere toplam 38 öğrenci ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmanın deney ve kontrol gruplarının cinsiyet ve sayı yönünden dağılımına Çizelge 3'te yer verilmiştir.

Çizelge 19. Deney ve Kontrol Gruplarının Cinsiyet ve Sayıya Göre Dağılımı

Cinsiyet	Deney grubu	Kontrol grubu
Kız	8	9
Erkek	11	10
Toplam	19	19

Deney ve kontrol gruplarının denkleştirilmesinde 2020-2021 eğitim-öğretim yılının ikinci dönemi sonuna ait Türkçe dersi başarı puanları kullanılmıştır. Verilerin normal dağılıma uyma durumları grafiksel olarak ve Shapiro-Wilks testi ile incelenmiştir. Buna ilişkin grafiğe Şekil 1'de yer verilmiştir.

Çizim 2. Türkçe Dersi Başarı Puanı Çarpıklık Basıklık Grafiği

Histogram
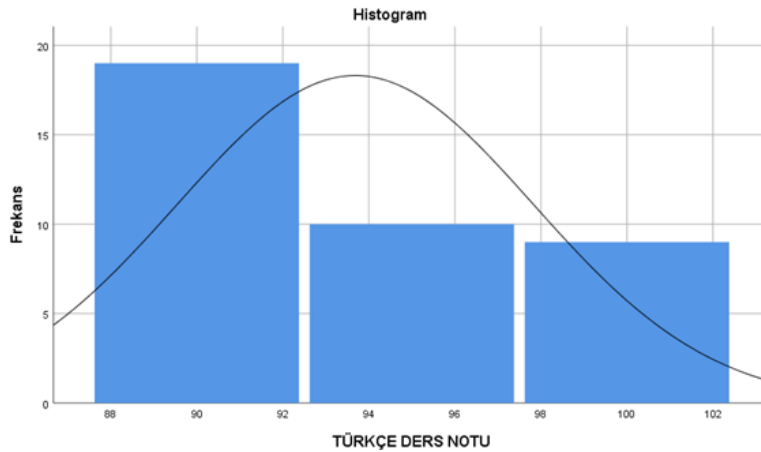
Şekil 1'e göre Türkçe dersi başarı puanı çarpıklık (skewness) değeri 0.539, basıklık (kurtosis) değeri -1.328 olarak saptanmıştır. Çarpıklık ve basıklık değerlerinin -1 ila +1 arasında olmasının çoğu psikometrik amaçlar için mükemmel, -2 ila +2 arasında olmasının ise uygulamaya bağlı olarak kabul edilebilir olduğuna yer verilir (George ve Mallery, 2019). Bu bulgulara göre Türkçe dersi başarı puanlarının normal dağılıma uymadığı görülmüş, gruplara göre Türkçe Dersi Başarı puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında Mann-Whitney U testi kullanılmıştır. Deney ve kontrol gruplarının 2020-2021 eğitim-öğretim yılının ikinci dönemi sonuna ait Türkçe dersi başarı puanlarına yönelik verilere Çizelge 4'te yer verilmiştir.

Çizelge 20. Gruplara Göre Türkçe Dersi Başarı Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Grup	N	Ort ± SS	Sıra ortalaması	Sıralar toplamı	U	p
Türkçe dersi başarı puanı	Kontrol	19	94.21 ± 3.82	21.16	402.0	149.0	0.370
	Deney	19	93.16 ± 4.47	17.84	339.0		

Çizelge 4'e göre, gruplara göre öğrencilerin Türkçe dersi başarı puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($p > 0.05$). Bu durum deney ve kontrol gruplarının Türkçe dersi akademik başarısı yönünden denk olduğunu gösterir.

Veri Toplama Araçları ve Çözümlemesi

Araştırmanın konuşma başarımına yönelik bulgularının saptanmasında kullanılan "Konuşma Değerlendirme Formu" (Sargın, 2006); konuşma düzeni, dil bilinci, konuşmacı psikolojisi olmak üzere üç alt boyuttan ve 51 maddeden oluşmuştur. Form 5'li likert tipindedir. Uzman görüşü alınarak hazırlanan formun güvenirlik katsayısı .89 olarak belirlenmiştir. Bu veriler ölçeğin geçerli ve güvenilir olduğunu göstermektedir.

Grupların konuşma kaygı düzeylerinin saptanmasında ise "Ortaokul Öğrencileri İçin Konuşma Kaygısı Ölçeği" (Demir ve Melanlıoğlu, 2014) kullanılmıştır. Ölçek konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı, konuşma öz güveni, konuşmaktan zevk alma, değerlendirilme kaygısı ve sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma olmak üzere beş alt boyuttan ve 33 maddeden oluşmuştur. Ölçek 5'li likert tipindedir ve tüm ölçek için Cronbach Alfa güvenirlik katsayısı .716; iç tutarlılık katsayıları ise birinci faktör için .860, ikinci faktör için .777, üçüncü faktör

için .617, dördüncü faktör için .672, beşinci faktör için .601 olarak belirlenmiştir. Bu veriler ölçeğin geçerli ve güvenilir olduğunu göstermektedir.

Araştırmada istatistiksel çözümlemeler ve hesaplamalar için IBM SPSS Statistics 21.0 (IBM Corp. NY, ABD) ve MS-Excel 2007 programları kullanılmış, istatistiksel anlamlılık düzeyi $p < 0.05$ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Araştırmada deney ve kontrol gruplarına uygulanan ölçek sonuçlarının normal dağılıma uygunluğu grafiksel olarak ve Shapiro-Wilks testi ile değerlendirilmiştir. Buna göre kullanılan ölçeklerin normal dağılıma uydukları görülmüştür. İstatistiksel verilerin incelenebilmesi için deney ve kontrol gruplarının ön test-son test sonuçları grup içi ve gruplar arası olarak karşılaştırılmıştır. Verilerin normal dağılım gösterdiği durumlarda ön test ve son test puanların grup içi karşılaştırmasında parametrik testlerden bağımlı örneklem *t*-testi, ön test ve son test puanlarının gruplar arası karşılaştırmasında ise parametrik testlerden bağımsız örneklem *t*-testi kullanılır (Özsevgeç, 2019). Deney ve kontrol gruplarının ön test-son test sonuçlarının grup içi karşılaştırılmasında bağımlı örneklem *t*-testi, deney ve kontrol gruplarının ön test sonuçlarının gruplar arası karşılaştırılmasında bağımsız örneklem *t*-testi kullanılmıştır.

Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma başarımı alt boyutlarından dil bilinci son test puanlarının, konuşma kaygısı ölçeği toplamı ve alt boyutları son test puanlarının gruplar arası karşılaştırılmasında bağımsız örneklem *t*-testi kullanılmıştır. Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma başarımı alt boyutlarından konuşma düzeni, konuşmacı psikolojisi ile konuşma başarımı toplam son test puanlarının gruplar arası karşılaştırılmasında grupların ön test puanlarının eşit olmadığı görülmüştür. Konuşma düzeni, konuşmacı psikolojisi, konuşma başarımı toplam ön test-son test puanları normal dağılım gösterdiğinden kovaryans analizinin (ANCOVA) diğer varsayımlarının karşılanıp karşılanmadığı denetlenmiştir. Varyansların homojenliği Levene's Testi ile incelenmiş ve grupların son testlerinin varyanslarının farklılaşmadığı saptanmıştır ($p > 0.05$). Buradan yola çıkılarak konuşma başarımı alt boyutlarından konuşma düzeni, konuşmacı psikolojisi ile konuşma başarımı toplamı son testlerinin gruplar arası karşılaştırılmasında varsayımları karşılanmış olan ANCOVA'nın uygulanmasına karar verilmiştir.

İşlem Basamakları

Araştırmanın süreci altı hafta sürmüş, buna yönelik zaman çizelgesine Çizelge 5'te yer verilmiştir.

Çizelge 21. Deneysel İşlemler Zaman Çizelgesi

Hafta	Uygulama etkinlikleri
1. Hafta	Hazırlıklı konuşma (ön testlerin uygulanması) (2 ders saati)
2. Hafta	Konuşma stratejilerinin anlatımı (2 ders saati)
3. Hafta	Öğrencilerin hazırlıklı konuşma uygulamaları (1 ders saati)
4. Hafta	Öğrencilerin hazırlıklı konuşma uygulamaları (1 ders saati)
5. Hafta	Öğrencilerin hazırlıklı konuşma uygulamaları (1 ders saati)
6. Hafta	Hazırlıklı konuşma (son testlerin uygulanması) (2 ders saati)

Araştırmanın deney ve kontrol gruplarına ön test uygulanabilmesi için konuşma konusu belirlenerek öğrencilerden hazırlıklı konuşma metni tasarlamaları ve sunmaları istenmiştir. Öğrencilerin sunumları kayıt altına alınmıştır. Ardından öğrencilere ön test

olarak konuşma kaygısı ölçeği uygulanmış, konuşma kayıtları alanında uzman iki Türkçe öğretmeni ile paylaşılarak ön test olarak konuşma değerlendirme formu uygulanmıştır.

Ön testin ardından deney grubuna öğrencilerin sınıf seviyeleri, araştırmanın ve öğretimin amacı ile ders süresi dikkate alınarak stratejilerin öğretimi yapılmıştır. Öğretimin ardından hazırlıklı konuşma uygulamaları gerçekleştirilmiştir. Her öğrencinin konuşma planını sunması ve değerlendirmesi sağlanmış; öğrencilere planları, sunumları ve değerlendirme süreçleri ile ilgili dönütler verilmiştir. Kontrol grubunun ders işleyişine bir etkide bulunulmamıştır. Dersler geleneksel eğitime uygun olarak yürütülmüş ve konuşmalarını hazırlamadan önce öğrencilere 2019 Türkçe Dersi Öğretim Programı'nın 8. sınıf düzeyinde yer alan kazanımlarla ilgili uyarılar yapılmıştır. Sunumların ardından bu kazanımlara uygun olarak dönüt verilmiştir. Deney ve kontrol grubu öğrencileri konuşma uygulamaları sürecinde iki defa konuşma sunumu yapmışlardır.

Araştırmanın deney ve kontrol gruplarına son test uygulanabilmesi için konuşma konusu belirlenerek öğrencilerden hazırlıklı konuşma metni tasarlamaları ve sunmaları istenmiştir. Öğrencilerin sunumları kayıt altına alınmıştır. Ardından öğrencilere son test olarak konuşma kaygısı ölçeği uygulanmış, konuşma kayıtları alanında uzman iki Türkçe öğretmeni ile paylaşılarak son test olarak konuşma değerlendirme formu uygulanmıştır.

Bulgular

Araştırmanın birinci sorusu "Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından ön test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?" biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Çizelge 6'da sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 22. Gruplara Göre Konuşma Başarımı Ön Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Grup	N	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	t	p
Ön test konuşma düzeni	Kontrol	19	64.45 ± 5.56	1.28	3.032	*0.004
	Deney	19	69.03 ± 3.52	0.81		
Ön test dil bilinci	Kontrol	19	63.00 ± 3.37	0.77	0.841	0.406
	Deney	19	63.92 ± 3.38	0.77		
Ön test konuşmacı psikolojisi	Kontrol	19	12.55 ± 0.86	0.19	2.540	*0.016
	Deney	19	11.71 ± 1.16	0.26		
Ön test konuşma başarımı toplam	Kontrol	19	140.00 ± 7.92	1.82	2.070	*0.046
	Deney	19	144.66 ± 5.79	1.33		

Çizelge 6'ya göre gruplara göre öğrencilerin konuşma düzeni alt boyutu ön test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında (*$p = 0.004$), konuşmacı psikolojisi alt boyutu ön test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında (*$p = 0.016$), konuşma başarımı ölçeği toplam ön test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında (*$p = 0.046$) istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark vardır. Gruplara göre öğrencilerin dil bilinci alt boyutu ön test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($p > 0.05$). Bu veriler deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma başarımının alt boyutlarından konuşma düzeni, konuşmacı psikolojisi ve konuşma başarımı toplam puanları yönünden denk olmadığını, konuşma başarımının alt boyutlarından dil bilinci puanı yönünden ise denk olduğunu gösterir.

Araştırmanın ikinci sorusu "Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından ön test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?" biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Çizelge 7'de sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 23. Gruplara Göre Konuşma Kaygısı Ön Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Grup	N	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	t	p
Ön test konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı	Kontrol	19	37.16 ± 10.96	2.51	0.200	0.842
	Deney	19	37.95 ± 13.22	3.03		
Ön test konuşma öz güveni	Kontrol	19	14.95 ± 5.47	1.25	0.420	0.677
	Deney	19	15.68 ± 5.35	1.23		
Ön test konuşmaktan zevk alma	Kontrol	19	8.84 ± 3.01	0.69	0.286	0.777
	Deney	19	9.10 ± 2.66	0.61		
Ön test değerlendirilme kaygısı	Kontrol	19	9.63 ± 2.83	0.65	1.549	0.130
	Deney	19	8.10 ± 3.23	0.74		
Ön test sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma	Kontrol	19	10.95 ± 3.42	0.78	1.545	0.131
	Deney	19	12.79 ± 3.91	0.89		
Ön test konuşma kaygısı toplam	Kontrol	19	81.53 ± 18.99	4.36	0.351	0.727
	Deney	19	83.63 ± 17.94	4.11		

Çizelge 7'ye göre gruplara göre öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısı ölçeği alt boyutları (konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı, konuşma öz güveni, konuşmaktan zevk alma, değerlendirilme kaygısı, sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma) ön test puanları ve konuşma kaygısı ölçeği toplam ön test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($p > 0.05$). Bu veriler deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları ve konuşma kaygısı toplam puanları yönünden denk olduğunu gösterir.

Bu araştırmanın üçüncü sorusu "Deney grubunun konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır? " biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Tablo 8'de sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 24. Deney Grubunda Yer Alan Öğrencilerin Konuşma Başarımı Ön Test-Son Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Test	N	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	t	p
Konuşma düzeni	Ön test	19	69.03 ± 3.52	0.81	5.372	*< 0.001
	Son test	19	76.79 ± 4.29	0.98		
Dil bilinci	Ön test	19	63.92 ± 3.38	0.77	6.031	*< 0.001
	Son test	19	70.95 ± 3.85	0.88		
Konuşmacı psikolojisi	Ön test	19	11.71 ± 1.16	0.26	8.243	*< 0.001
	Son test	19	15.18 ± 1.86	0.43		
Konuşma başarımı toplam	Ön test	19	144.66 ± 5.79	1.33	6.875	*< 0.001
	Son test	19	162.92 ± 8.89	2.04		

Çizelge 8'e göre deney grubunda yer alan öğrencilerin konuşma düzeni alt boyutu ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında ($*p < 0.001$), dil bilinci alt boyutu ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında ($*p < 0.001$), konuşmacı psikolojisi alt boyutu ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında ($*p < 0.001$), konuşma başarımı ölçeği toplam ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında ($*p < 0.001$) istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir

fark vardır. Bu veriler konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin deney grubunun konuşma başarımının alt boyutlarını ve konuşma başarımının toplamını olumlu yönde etkilediğini gösterir.

Araştırmanın dördüncü sorusu "Deney grubunun konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?" biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Çizelge 9'da sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 25. Deney Grubunda Yer Alan Öğrencilerin Konuşma Kaygısı Ön Test-Son Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Test	N	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	t	p
Konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı	Ön test	19	37.95 ± 13.22	3.03	0.152	0.881
	Son test	19	37.53 ± 12.81	2.94		
Konuşma öz güveni	Ön test	19	15.68 ± 5.35	1.23	1.084	0.293
	Son test	19	17.53 ± 5.17	1.18		
Konuşmaktan zevk alma	Ön test	19	9.10 ± 2.66	0.61	1.129	0.274
	Son test	19	9.89 ± 3.45	0.79		
Değerlendirilme kaygısı	Ön test	19	8.10 ± 3.23	0.74	0.275	0.787
	Son test	19	8.31 ± 3.53	0.81		
Sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma	Ön test	19	12.79 ± 3.91	0.89	1.741	0.099
	Son test	19	11.10 ± 4.09	0.94		
Konuşma kaygısı toplam	Ön test	19	83.63 ± 17.94	4.11	0.224	0.825
	Son test	19	84.37 ± 21.89	5.02		

Çizelge 9'a göre deney grubunda yer alan öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısı ölçeği alt boyutları (konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı, konuşma öz güveni, konuşmaktan zevk alma, değerlendirilme kaygısı, sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma) ön test-son test puanları ve konuşma kaygısı ölçeği toplam ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($p > 0.05$). Bu veriler konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin deney grubunun konuşma kaygısının alt boyutlarına ve konuşma kaygısının toplamına etki etmediğini gösterir.

Araştırmanın beşinci sorusu "Kontrol grubunun konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?" biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Çizelge 10'da sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 26. Kontrol Grubunda Yer Alan Öğrencilerin Konuşma Başarımı Ön Test-Son Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Test	N	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	t	p
Konuşma düzeni	Ön test	19	64.45 ± 5.56	1.28	8.235	*< 0.001
	Son test	19	76.03 ± 6.58	1.51		
Dil bilinci	Ön test	19	63.00 ± 3.37	0.77	7.055	*< 0.001
	Son test	19	69.50 ± 3.60	0.83		
Konuşmacı psikolojisi	Ön test	19	12.55 ± 0.86	0.19	3.292	*0.004
	Son test	19	14.29 ± 2.28	0.52		
Konuşma başarımı toplam	Ön test	19	140.00 ± 7.92	1.82	9.302	*< 0.001
	Son test	19	159.92 ± 10.65	2.44		

Çizelge 10'a göre kontrol grubunda yer alan öğrencilerin konuşma düzeni alt boyutu ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında (*$p < 0.001$), dil bilinci alt boyutu ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında (*$p < 0.001$), konuşmacı psikolojisi alt boyutu ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında (*$p = 0.004$), konuşma başarımı ölçeği toplam ön test-son test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasında (*$p < 0.001$) istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark vardır. Bu veriler geleneksel eğitimin kontrol grubunun konuşma başarımının alt boyutlarını ve konuşma başarımının toplamını olumlu yönde etkilediğini gösterir.

Araştırmanın altıncı sorusu "Kontrol grubunun konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?" biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Çizelge 11'de sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 27. Kontrol Grubunda Yer Alan Öğrencilerin Konuşma Kaygısı Ön Test-Son Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Test	N	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	t	p
Konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı	Ön test	19	37.16 ± 10.96	2.51	1.774	0.093
	Son test	19	32.79 ± 12.09	2.77		
Konuşma öz güveni	Ön test	19	14.95 ± 5.47	1.25	0.229	0.821
	Son test	19	14.58 ± 7.16	1.64		
Konuşmaktan zevk alma	Ön test	19	8.84 ± 3.01	0.69	0.054	0.957
	Son test	19	8.78 ± 4.53	1.04		
Değerlendirilme kaygısı	Ön test	19	9.63 ± 2.83	0.65	1.327	0.201
	Son test	19	8.31 ± 2.45	0.56		
Sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma	Ön test	19	10.95 ± 3.42	0.78	0.150	0.883
	Son test	19	11.10 ± 4.78	1.09		
Konuşma kaygısı toplam	Ön test	19	81.53 ± 18.99	4.36	1.325	0.202
	Son test	19	75.58 ± 24.40	5.59		

Çizelge 11'e göre kontrol grubunda yer alan öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısı ölçeği alt boyutları (konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı, konuşma öz güveni, konuşmaktan zevk alma, değerlendirilme kaygısı, sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma) ön test-son test puanları ve konuşma kaygısı ölçeği toplam ön test-son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($p > 0.05$). Bu veriler geleneksel eğitimin kontrol grubunun konuşma kaygısının alt boyutlarına ve konuşma kaygısının toplamına etki etmediğini gösterir.

Araştırmanın yedinci sorusu "Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma başarımı toplam ve konuşma başarımının alt boyutları açısından son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?" biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Çizelge 12, Çizelge 13, Çizelge 14 ve Çizelge 15'te sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 28. Gruplara Göre Konuşma Düzeni Alt Boyutu Son Test ANCOVA Sonuçları

Varyans kaynağı	Kareler toplamı	Sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	p
Ön test	80.836	1	80.836	2.743	0.107
Grup	3.823	1	3.823	0.130	0.721
Hata	1031.559	35	29.473		
Toplam	222968.250	38			

Çizelge 12'ye göre gruplara göre öğrencilerin konuşma başarımı ölçeği alt boyutlarından konuşma düzeni son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($F = 0.130$, $p = 0.721$).

Çizelge 29. Gruplara Göre Dil Bilinci Alt Boyutu Son Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Grup	*N*	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	*t*	*p*
Son test dil bilinci	Kontrol	19	69.60 ± 3.60	0.83	1.110	0.274
	Deney	19	70.95 ± 3.85	0.88		

Çizelge 13'e göre gruplara göre öğrencilerin konuşma başarımı ölçeği alt boyutlarından dil bilinci son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($p > 0.05$).

Çizelge 30. Gruplara Göre Konuşmacı Psikolojisi Alt Boyutu Son Test ANCOVA Sonuçları

Varyans kaynağı	Kareler toplamı	Sd	Kareler ortalaması	*F*	*p*
Ön test	9.573	1	9.573	2.284	0.140
Grup	14.030	1	14.030	3.348	0.076
Hata	146.690	35	4.191		
Toplam	8416.50	38			

Çizelge 14'e göre gruplara göre öğrencilerin konuşma başarımı ölçeği alt boyutlarından konuşmacı psikolojisi son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($F = 3.348$, $p = 0.076$).

Çizelge 31. Gruplara Göre Konuşma Başarımı Toplam Son Test ANCOVA Sonuçları

Varyans kaynağı	Kareler toplamı	Sd	Kareler ortalaması	*F*	*p*
Ön test	211.965	1	211.965	2.282	0.140
Grup	15.935	1	15.935	0.172	0.681
Hata	3250.798	35	92.880		
Toplam	993705.0	38			

Çizelge 15'e göre gruplara göre öğrencilerin konuşma başarımı ölçeği toplam son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($F = 0.172$, $p = 0.681$).

Bu veriler konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin geleneksel eğitime göre konuşma başarımının alt boyutları ve konuşma başarımının toplamı üstünde fark oluşturmadığını gösterir.

Araştırmanın sekizinci sorusu "Deney ve kontrol gruplarının konuşma kaygısı toplam ve konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları açısından son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?" biçiminde oluşturulmuştur. Bu soruya ilişkin bulgular Çizelge 16'da sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 32. Gruplara Göre Konuşma Kaygısı Son Test Puanlarının Karşılaştırılması

Değişken	Grup	*N*	Ort ± SS	Ortalama std hata	*t*	*p*

Seçil Simge UYAR & Ergün HAMZADAYI

Son test konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı	Kontrol	19	32.79 ± 12.09	2.77	1.172	0.249
	Deney	19	37.53 ± 12.81	2.94		
Son test konuşma öz güveni	Kontrol	19	14.58 ± 7.16	1.64	1.455	0.154
	Deney	19	17.53 ± 5.17	1.18		
Son test konuşmaktan zevk alma	Kontrol	19	8.79 ± 4.53	1.04	0.847	0.403
	Deney	19	9.89 ± 3.44	0.79		
Son test değerlendirilme kaygısı	Kontrol	19	8.31 ± 2.45	0.56	0.001	0.999
	Deney	19	8.31 ± 3.53	0.81		
Son test sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma	Kontrol	19	11.10 ± 4.78	1.09	0.001	0.999
	Deney	19	11.10 ± 4.09	0.94		
Son test konuşma kaygısı toplam	Kontrol	19	75.58 ± 24.40	5.59	1.169	0.250
	Deney	19	84.37 ± 21.89	5.02		

Çizelge 16'ya göre gruplara göre öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısı ölçeği alt boyutları (konuşma becerisine yönelik ön yargı, konuşma öz güveni, konuşmaktan zevk alma, değerlendirilme kaygısı, sınıf içi konuşmaya istekli olma) son test puanları ve konuşma kaygısı ölçeği toplam son test puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark yoktur ($p > 0.05$). Bu veriler konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin geleneksel eğitime göre konuşma kaygısının alt boyutları ve konuşma kaygısının toplamı üstünde fark oluşturmadığını gösterir.

Sonuç ve Tartışma

Konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin konuşma başarımına ve konuşma kaygısına etkisini incelemek amacıyla gerçekleştirilen bu araştırmanın sonuçlarından biri konuşma başarımı yönünden deney ve kontrol grubu arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olmadığı yönündedir. Bu sonuç konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin geleneksel eğitime göre ortaokul öğrencilerinin konuşma başarımı üstünde fark oluşturmadığını gösterir. Alanyazın incelendiğinde konuşma becerisi üstünde bilişsel farkındalık stratejilerinin öğretiminin (Kartallıoğlu, 2015) ve doğrudan öğretimin (Kemiksiz, 2016) geleneksel eğitime göre daha etkili olduğu, öğrencilere verilen strateji öğretiminin öğrencilerin stratejilere yönelik farkındalıklarını artırdığı (Kartallıoğlu, 2015) görülmüştür. Sözü edilen çalışmaların sonuçları araştırmanın bu sonucuyla örtüşmemektedir. Bu sonuçtan yönelimle konuşma stratejilerinin geleneksel eğitim ile karşılaştırıldığı farklı araştırmalara gereksinim olduğu söylenebilir.

Konuşma stratejilerinin öğretimi yapılan deney grubunun konuşma başarımı ön test ve son testleri karşılaştırıldığında, konuşma stratejilerinin öğrencilerin konuşma başarımlarını olumlu yönde etkilediği görülmüştür. Bu doğrultuda topluluk karşısında konuşma (TKK) ile ilgili gerçekleştirilen çalışmalar incelendiğinde TKK eğitiminin (Al Tamimi, 2014; Fawcett ve Miller, 1975; Herbein vd., 2018; Nadia ve Yansyah, 2018; Rubin vd., 1995; Wilson, 1989) konuşma başarımını olumlu yönde etkilediği belirlenmiştir. İkinci dilde TKK eğitimi alan öğrencilerin konuşma başarımlarının dönem boyunca giderek yükseldiği (Zhang vd., 2020), sözlü iletişim dersinin öğrencilerin sözsüz iletişim becerilerini geliştirmede etkili olduğu (Jones, 2021), öğrencilere TKK uygulaması olanağı vermenin öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerine katkı sağladığı (Sari, 2012; Wilson, 1989) araştırmalardan elde dilen diğer önemli bulgulardır. Öte yandan, konuşma için hazırlık

süresi fazla olan ve geçmişte TKK deneyimi olan öğrencilerin temel düzeyde iletişim dersi notlarının yüksek olduğu (Pearson ve Child, 2008); konuşma için hazırlanma süresi arttıkça konuşma başarısının arttığı, öğrencilerin sunum ve prova için daha çok zaman harcadıklarında daha yüksek puan aldıkları (Pearson, Child ve Kahl Jr., 2006); konuşma başarımının kalitesi ile toplam hazırlık süresi, görsel destek hazırlamak için harcanan zaman, provalar, sessizce yapılan prova süresi, yüksek sesli prova yapılması, kütüphanenin dışında araştırma yapılması gibi değişkenler arasında olumlu yönlü anlamlı ilişki olduğu (Menzel ve Carrell, 1994); belirli konuşma stratejilerini seçme sıklığının öğrencilerin başarımlarını etkilediği (Brown, 1993) araştırmalara yansıyan konuyla ilgili diğer bulgulardır. Sözü edilen çalışmaların bulguları bu araştırmanın bulgularıyla örtüşmektedir.

Öte yandan alanyazında TKK eğitiminin öğrencilerin konuşma başarılarına etki etmediğini gösteren çalışmalar (Osma vd., 2017), geçmişteki TKK deneyimlerinin temel düzeyde TKK dersi notunu yordamadığını gösteren çalışmalar (Pearson, Child, Herakova vd., 2010) olduğu da görülmüştür. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları sözü edilen çalışmaların sonuçlarıyla örtüşmemektedir. Öte yandan öğretmenlerin öğrencilerin konuşma becerisi ile ilgili karşılaştıkları temel sorunları çözmelerinde TKK dersini oldukça yararlı buldukları (Iftakhar, 2013), öğrencilerin de TKK dersi almanın konuşma becerilerini çeşitli yönlerden geliştirdiğini düşündükleri (Adiwinata, 2017) saptanmıştır.

Alanyazındaki çalışmalar öğretmenlerin konuşma eğitiminde kullanılabilecek yöntem ve teknikler hakkında yeterince bilgi sahibi olmadıklarını (Arhan, 2007; Coşkun Çınar, 2015) ve farklı yöntem-teknikler kullanmadıklarını (Arhan, 2007), değerlendirme süreçlerinde ise konuşmanın devinişsel yönüne daha çok odaklandıklarını (Hamzadayı ve Dölek, 2017) göstermiştir. Bunun yanında öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerinin yeterli düzeyde olmadığı (Dülger, 2011; Sargın, 2006; Yeşiltepe Sağlam, 2010), çeşitli yaş gruplarında bilişsel, fiziksel ve duyuşsal yönden birçok konuşma sorunuyla karşılaşıldığı (Akkaya, 2012; Arslan, 2012; Başaran ve Erdem, 2009; Kara, 2020; Kaya, 2019; Sever ve Topçuoğlu Ünal, 2020; Topçuoğlu Ünal ve Degeç, 2012; Yıldırım, 2020) ortaya koyulmuştur. Konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin deney grubu öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerini anlamlı düzeyde geliştirdiği göz önüne alındığında, konuşma stratejilerinin öğretmenlere öğretim süreçlerinde çeşitlilik kazandıracağı ve öğretmenlerin dersi yürütme süreçlerine katkı sağlayacağı, bu nedenlerle konuşma stratejilerine ortaokul düzeyinden başlanarak derslerde yer verilmesinin yararlı olacağı söylenebilir.

Bu araştırmadan elde edilen bir diğer sonuç konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin konuşma kaygısı yönünden deney ve kontrol grubu arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark oluşturmadığı yönündedir. Alanyazın incelendiğinde doğrudan öğretimin geleneksel eğitime göre öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısını azalttığı (Kemiksiz, 2016) görülür. Sözü edilen çalışmanın sonuçları bu araştırmanın sonuçları ile örtüşmemektedir. Bu nedenle konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin konuşma kaygısına etkisinin inceleneceği kapsamlı başka araştırmalara gereksinim olduğu söylenebilir.

Konuşma stratejilerinin öğretimi yapılan deney grubunun konuşma kaygısı ön test ve son testleri karşılaştırıldığında, konuşma stratejilerinin öğrencilerin konuşma kaygı düzeylerini anlamlı düzeyde farklılaştırmadığı anlaşılmaktadır. Alanyazın incelendiğinde bilişsel farkındalık stratejilerinin öğretiminin öğrencilerin konuşmaya yönelik heyecanlarını yatıştırmalarına yardımcı olduğu (Kartallıoğlu, 2015), TKK eğitiminin (Al Tamimi, 2014;

Bednar, 1991; Colbeck, 2011; Dwyer ve Davidson, 2021; LeFebvre vd., 2020), laboratuvar destekli TKK eğitiminin (Ellis, 1995), beceri temelli eğitimin (Pribyl vd., 2001), konuşma sunumuna ağırlık verilerek gerçekleştirilen TKK eğitiminin (Neer ve Kircher, 1989) öğrencilerin konuşma kaygılarını azalttığı bulgulanmıştır. Öğretmen adayları ile gerçekleştirilen çalışmalar incelendiğinde hazırlıklı konuşma öğretiminin (Özdemir, 2018), sözlü anlatım dersinin (Katrancı ve Kuşdemir, 2015) ve konuşma becerisi dersinin (Sarıkaya, 2020) öğretmen adaylarının konuşma kaygılarını azalttığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Öğrencilerin konuşma hazırlarken seçtiği stratejilere bağlı olarak kaygı düzeylerinin çeşitlendiği ve kaygı düzeylerinin onların konuşma stratejilerini seçme sıklığını etkilediği (Brown, 1993) ortaya koyulmuştur. Öğrencilerin konuşma kaygılarını azaltmak için gerçekleştirdikleri eylemler arasında hazırlık ve prova yapma (Netta vd., 2020; Pratama vd., 2018; Widhayanti, 2018), konuşma sırasında el-beden hareketleri kullanma (Netta vd., 2020; Pratama vd., 2018) olduğu görülmüştür. Öte yandan sözlü iletişim dersinin öğrencilerin konuşma kaygılarını artırdığını gösteren çalışmalar (Jones, 2021) olduğu da görülmüştür.

TKK deneyiminin konuşma kaygısına etkisini inceleyen araştırmalarda deneyimin konuşma kaygısını azalttığı (Ercan Güven, 2020; Karalı vd., 2021; Nash vd., 2016; Özkan ve Kinay, 2015), deneyimi az olan öğrencilerin konuşma sürecinde kalp atışlarının daha yüksek olduğu (Pörhölä, 1997) görülmüştür. Ortaöğretimde TKK eğitimi almış veya bu konuda müfredat dışında deneyimi olan (Christensen, 2000; Johnson, 2012), konuşma hazırlığı yapan (Weissberg ve Lamb, 1977) öğrencilerin konuşma kaygılarının düşük olduğunu; öğrencilerin ortaöğretim düzeyinde okulda ve okul dışında konuşma sayıları arttıkça TKK kaygılarının azaldığını gösteren çalışmalar (Christensen, 2000) da bulunur. Sözü edilen çalışmalar konuşma stratejilerinin öğrencilerin konuşma kaygılarına etki ettiğini gösterir. Gerçekleştirilen bu araştırma sözü edilen çalışmalarla örtüşmemektedir.

Çeşitli çalışmalar incelendiğinde, çok fazla hazırlık yapmanın kaygı ile başa çıkmada yeterli olmadığı (Thomas vd., 1994), konuşma kaygısı yüksek olan öğrencilerin konuşma hazırlığına daha fazla zaman ayırsalar dahi konuşma kaygısı az olan öğrencilerden daha düşük notlar aldıkları (Ayres, 1996) bulgulanmıştır. Bunların yanı sıra TKK eğitiminin öğrencilerin (Herbein vd., 2018; McCourt, 2007; Nadia ve Yansyah, 2018) konuşma kaygılarına etki etmediğini gösteren araştırmalar da bulunmaktadır. Sözü edilen çalışmalar bu araştırmanın sonuçlarını destekler niteliktedir.

Sonuç olarak araştırmada konuşma stratejilerinin öğretiminin, araştırmanın deney grubu öğrencilerinin konuşma kaygılarını değiştirmediği fakat konuşma başarımlarını olumlu yönde etkilediği görülmüştür. Bu durum öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerinin gelişmesinde konuşma stratejilerinin etkili olduğunu gösterir. Bu nedenle konuşma becerisi ile ilgili etkinliklerde konuşma stratejilerine yer verilmelidir. Öte yandan araştırmanın öğretim ve uygulama süreci altı hafta sürmüştür. Buradan hareketle konu ile ilgili öğretimsel sürecin uzun tutulduğu çalışmalar yapılması önerilmektedir.

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Research Article

An Investigation of Turkish EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Social-Emotional Learning and School Climate

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	The issues of teacher stress, fulfillment from the teaching practices, and efficacy have been regarded as one of the keystones of teacher development. However, limited studies in the language teaching context have associated all these factors with social-emotional learning (SEL) and school climate. Moreover, particularly after the outbreak of the pandemic, studies focusing on their relations through the lens of teachers were underrepresented in the field. Thus, this research will examine the interplays between English language teachers' SEL beliefs, perceptions of school climate, and the three foregoing teacher outcomes. To that end, 111 Turkish EFL teachers affiliated with schools in diverse districts and tutoring at different education levels were incorporated into the study. After meticulous analysis, a significant difference was detected between the teachers with nearly two decades of experience and their job satisfaction. However, no significant correlations were noted either between SEL beliefs and teachers' sense of occupational stress or school climate and SEL beliefs.

Statement of Publication Ethics	The study has been conducted by following the publication ethics. The ethics committee approval has been obtained for the current study: Name of the Board: Ankara University Ethics Committee, Date: 12.02.2021, and Decision Number: 83).
Conflict of Interest	This study has no conflict of interest.
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Introduction

As the contemporary education system brings, schools encounter more hardships compared to the past, such as isolation from the school climate due to internet addiction, bullying, violence, psychological disorders, emotional distress, and lack of trust in shareholders in the institution. Furthermore, the renewal of the school profiles with students having varied competence, dispositions, and knowledge coming from distinct cultural backgrounds due to the migrations has made this matter more complicated. Far worse, despite the limited number of professionals in the field to arrange organizations for schools in diverse settings within the country, teachers have felt the need for professional development practices than before to build or nurture their social-emotional learning (SEL) and hence navigate how to get out of such kinds of challenges (Cali, 2022; Durlak et al., 2011). Accordingly, scholars have designed some models and frameworks for teachers based on development-centric theoretical perspectives to support their skills, and credentials in such a case to be able to maintain their profession through the functioning of those structures in a socially enriched environment. Yet, apart from these school-based factors, as their associations with teacher outcomes would also bear importance to shed light on teachers' professional well-being, teaching performance, personal growth, and learner success, all of them would be warranted examining particularly considering the impact of Covid-19 on language education. Thus, the current paper will principally investigate the relationship among teacher stress, job satisfaction, teaching efficacy, SEL, and school climate from the eyes of language practitioners during Covid-19.

Literature Review

The last two decades' worth of research has dwelled on the substantiality of SEL within language education contexts. This is on account of the fact that SEL introduces the mainstream that the education system needs to foster students' social and emotional abilities aside from aiming to elevate their academic achievements (Durlak, 2020). Simply put, SEL intends to flourish learners' socio-emotional competencies according to student-centred learning to engross them within this process and hence promote their collaborative, analytical, and communicative skills (Friedlaender et al., 2014). A review of SEL literature reveals that its origin dates back to 1994 when a group of scholars, hosted by the Fetzer Institute, worked on an educational reform that took into account not merely the cognitive development of learners but their overall skills (Elias et al., 1997). They also established the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) organization to put this conceptual framework on an evidence base spanning a large number of educational contexts like kindergarten, primary, and secondary school, and higher education. Accordingly, for 28 years, the CASEL has championed SEL programs to include the implementation of policies in order to help learners get and apply the knowledge on the way to fulfil personal and interpersonal development while managing their emotions.

**Figure 1.** SEL Model (retrieved from https://casel.org/)

As the figure tells its own story, the term 'learning' must have been intentionally selected by the CASEL to impose the fact that the acquisition of all the core competencies within the domains is a process. Another critical point the figure symbolizes is taking students to the centre of the model with the predetermined five competency domains. That is the reason why the community of education witnessed a great deal of attention in proving a reciprocal relationship between SEL and learner success. As a case in point, Weissberg et al. (2015) revealed its correlation with students' learning procedures and the growth of their 21st-century skills, prosocial behaviours, mind-sets, grit, autonomy, and habits of mind. Besides, Kılıç and Bavlı (2021) reported on the positive contributions of SEL to students' self-awareness, emotional management and motivation, communication skills, cooperation, thinking skills and academic success. Friedlaender et al. (2014) also clarified that SEL programs help learners boost interpersonal (e.g., interacting with others), intrapersonal (e.g., interpreting one's own emotions), and cognitive competence (e.g., creative or analytical thinking). Additionally, after their meta-analysis concerning SEL programs, Mahoney and Weissberg (2018) arrived at the conclusion that SEL competencies, social skills, positive manners towards others and selves as well as achievements in academic subjects were tight-knit. Distinct from the other studies, Bettencourt et al. (2016) inspected it from a different point of view and noted to what extent exposure to emotional adverse experiences would impair learners' performance socially throughout the SEL. The findings reiterated signified that though the literature has been inundated with studies on the strong liaison between the two, the role of teachers themselves has drawn scant attention within this framework (Cali, 2022; Collie et al., 2012; Hamilton & Doss, 2020; Palmer et al., 2021). However, their readiness to teach, well-being, social-emotional demands, and beliefs need to be regarded in SEL program designs since teachers will instigate learners to be well-rounded human beings, and steer their professional routes (Schonert-Reichl, 2017).

Teachers, SEL, and School Climate

In the face of the global pandemic, teachers have been ill-equipped but have had to bear tremendous responsibility towards online education policy and high academic standards, experiencing intense stress (Kılıç & Bavlı, 2021; Mahoney et al., 2021; Palmer et al., 2021; Park, 2022; Will, 2020; Veena et al., 2020). Even so, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2015) already alarmed educationalists and policymakers against emotional breakdowns to come that they need to advocate for a holistic program of language education elaborately underlining the significance of SEL and the senses of teachers. As SEL resides in a world of instructional approaches aiming at promoting the quality of educational settings, and theoretically grounded on social constructivist learning theories and developmental psychology thanks to its multifaceted and integrated system (Durlak et al., 2011), the programs were created accordingly. As such, emerging frameworks have considered three discrete but interrelated dimensions of SEL, and entitled them as learning context, SEL for students, and SEL for teachers. Of this triplet, we have already touched upon the importance of scrutinizing SEL practices and programs for students and their promising impact on their outcomes. However, we also need to address whether SEL interrelates with teachers' performance, rapport with learners, or their convictions about encouraging learners to build social-emotional awareness and strategies in the school climate (Cooper et al., 2023). Therefore, two essential elements of the foregoing frameworks (i.e., SEL and school climate) and their connections with teachers warrant being examined in the subsequent phases of the study.

As Erbil (2022) has stressed in a study of the Turkish context, school-based factors had a great influence on all stakeholders in the education system (i.e., teachers, learners, policymakers, principals, and parents) (Friedlaender et al., 2014; Domitrovich et al., 2016; Jennings et al., 2019). This contention has been corroborated by studies proving that learning context not only incorporates school climate and culture, but a set of distinct determinants, such as district policies, communication styles, classroom rules, commitment to success, and performance expectations (e.g., Hoy & Miskel, 2012; Schonert-Reichl, 2017). Correspondingly, different from the aforementioned SEL model in education contexts (Figure 1), Jennings and Greenberg's (2009) prosocial model displays their links:

Figure 2. Prosocial Classroom Model (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p.494)
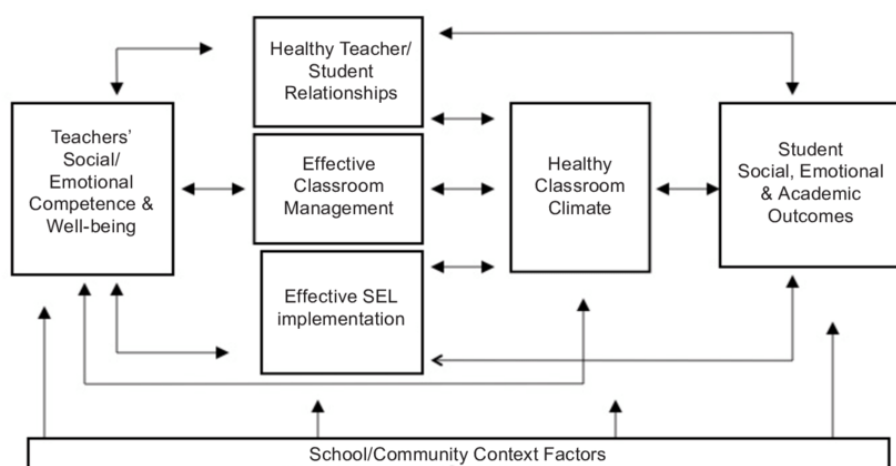
In that vein, Mahoney et al. (2021) systematized SEL practices considering several educational frameworks and finally portrayed the latest version of essential parameters (Figure 3). These two figures imply that schools should highly support SEL by taking account of each shareholder in the classroom climate, namely not just students' but teachers' senses, well-being, social-emotional awareness, and practical implementations (Bridgeland et al., 2013; Kılıç & Bavlı, 2021).

Figure 3. Updated Model of Systemic SEL in Education Contexts (retrieved from https://casel.org/)
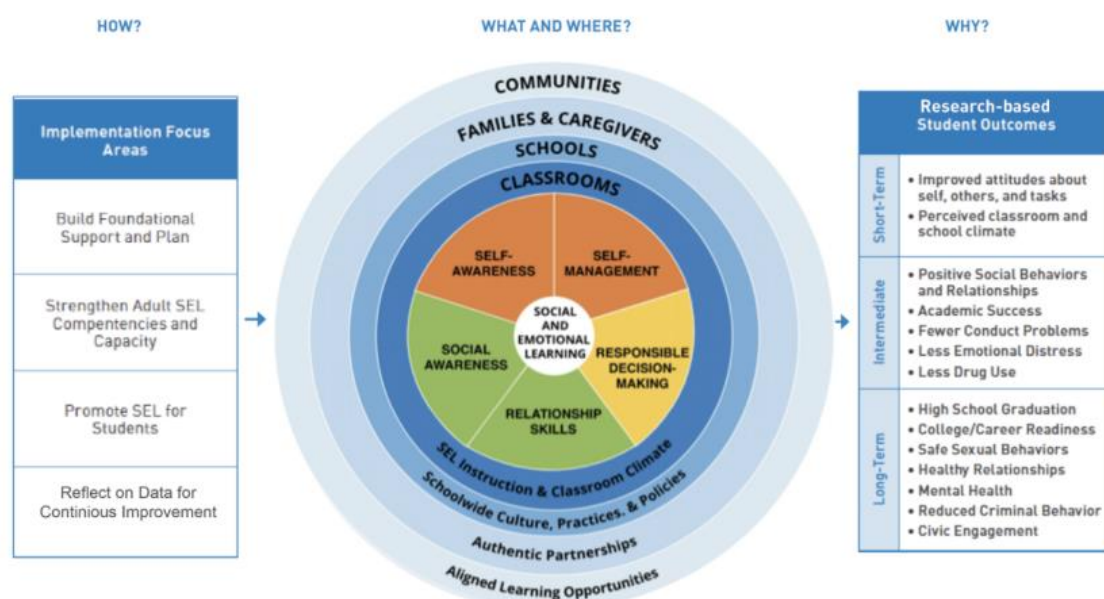
Contrary to what the figures above suggest, Eva and Thayer (2017) found that the discontentedness of teachers in this profession has drastically increased recently, though. Likewise, Brackett et al. (2019) detected the negative emotions of the vast majority of teachers (e.g., 'frustrated', 'overwhelmed'). Particularly with the outbreak of the devastating pandemic and the inception of lockdowns across the globe, disjointed efforts by policymakers and teachers, and the lack of strong leadership from school administrators caused disparities and teachers suffered most from the profound consequences. In turn, they were labelled as disempowered and had to conduct curricular imperative applications due to the lack of communication within the school climate (Cali, 2022). Consequently, the pandemic jeopardized their well-being strictly (Hamilton & Doss, 2020). That is, the problems of teacher absenteeism, turnover, and burnout appeared in the education system (Miller, 2022). By the same token, teachers, who used to be characterized as key agents of change, have been described as *lay people* in the quest to recover insufficiently coordinated SEL programs while trying to rebound from the interruptions (Mahaye, 2020). At the end of the tight global isolations around the world, they have suffered damage and all stakeholders in the school climate have been severely compromised. Then, the relationships among teachers' outcomes and these factors must be examined in-depth.

Occupational perceived stress

As a result of attaching blindly to the fads, and finding provisional solutions to the programs by adopting hodgepodge interventions without sustainability or coordination, teachers may encounter serious challenges or feel stressed while implementing the courses. In the same vein, Kyriacou (2011) underlined various stress sources for teachers, such as being judged depending on teaching performances, verbal persuasions (i.e., problems with the principal or counterparts), unmotivated learners, undefined accountabilities, or new roles. Moreover, due to the dearth of opportunities firstly for personalizing the process, applying pedagogical skills along with the proper curriculum to deepen their learning, and finally acclimatizing the positive school culture within evidence-based SEL programs, teachers were reported experiencing a high sense of occupational stress (Collie et al., 2012). Similarly, Gallup (2014) attributed high stress among teachers to their beliefs that they consider themselves the last person to have a say in school events. To put it simply, teachers' sense of stress would appear when they felt no overlap between their competence and the demands of the job or regarded a case as threatening but without any authority to interfere.

MacIntyre et al. (2020) and Veena et al. (2020) emphasized that with the global crisis, teachers' attempt to perform a delicate balance between academic and personal lives, having to work shelter-in-places, official operations with close deadlines, and curricular imperative applications concomitantly led to the perceptions of stress. Fataar (2020) also mentioned that the 'new normal' in education pushed teachers into anxiety and tension due to the failures in curriculum delivery. In parallel, Mahaye (2020) pointed out the inevitable sense of stress of teachers with the advent of the pandemic owing to its destructive effect on the curricula and some adaptation problems. Keeping the issue further, Arslan (2015) highlighted the negative connotations of stress and exposed its inverse proportion with satisfaction and commitment among teachers. Likewise, Motallebzadeh et al. (2014) affirmed that language practitioners obtaining a sense of SEL competence at significant levels were superior to others in terms of overcoming stress arising from the heavy workload. Cooper et al. (2023) also uncovered the pivotal importance of a supportive school team, school climate, and culture for teachers to practice SEL comfortably in that their depression decreased with perceived support from the school board, and colleagues throughout the Covid-19 pandemic. Finally, after conducting comprehensive research, Brockmeier (2023) found out that teachers practising SEL sensed significantly less stress and better coping with it than the ones who did not implement SEL at the time of Covid-19. As is seen, ample research has concentrated on work stress as a teacher outcome and regarded it as one of the critical predictors of further obstacles in the school context. This point also explains why Schonert-Reichl (2017) has specified stress as 'contagious' in the school setting.

Job Satisfaction

As another item to be associated with school-based factors, and the other teacher outcomes, the gratification of teachers from their profession would come into prominence. The common troubles leading teachers to dissatisfaction with their careers were detected

mainly as poor management of stress and other emotions (Darling-Hammond, 2001). Collie et al. (2012), and Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) conformably pointed out negative associations between the perceived stress of teachers and their job satisfaction. By the same token, to elucidate the diverse effects of stress on language education, McCarthy et al. (2006) touched upon the teachers' deprivation of personal resources and implied the cross-connection of their contentment with stress. At that point, the importance of being supported by the principals, superintendents, or head teachers was pointed out by some scholars (Westling & Whitten, 1996) for teachers to struggle with stress and be fulfilled with the profession.

Aside from showing the prominence of correlations between the shareholders in the education system while referring to job satisfaction, Brackett et al. (2019) claimed that it was directly proportionate to SEL practices, whereas Cooper et al. (2023) discussed it with school climate. As SEL and school culture harbour a variety of items in the system, these scholars aimed to put the spotlight on their multi-pronged nature to refer to potential interrelations of teacher satisfaction. In the end, they confirmed their overlap with one another as a result of the analyses reporting their strong correlations in the same direction. Furthermore, Vansteenkiste et al. (2007) underlined that educators' perception concerning job satisfaction was in parallel with their well-being. Finally, Kinman et al. (2011) and Özdemir and Babadoğan (2023) considered this issue from the point of teacher education and showed its parallelism with professional growth at the end of their research.

Teaching Efficacy

The last teacher outcome that would be related to the other variables was the sense of teaching efficacy. A revealing way to explore their interconnectedness would be attending to its origin in the literature, and some relevant research from the field. The term 'teacher efficacy' was initially coined by a group of scholars from *Research and Development* and was also based upon social learning theories. It was developed with the expectation of revealing teachers' beliefs about to what extent they could control their reinforcements to learners' on-task behaviour (Guskey & Passaro, 1994). In 1997, Bandura introduced his updated construct of self-efficacy which emerged in a way of a strand of social cognitive theories. Accordingly, teachers' perceptions about competencies, resilience to facing troubles, and confidence in managing cognitive processes (e.g., academic achievements, and decision-making) would contribute to their performance. This issue has struck attention since then due to displaying positive correlations with teacher emotions and their triggers aside from its multifaceted reflections on teaching foreign languages, and thereby the transmission of its impact to L2 learners. As a result, the implementations particularly in the last two decades seemed to concentrate on its potential liaison with teachers' stress, skills, job satisfaction, and well-being as well as student learning, teaching strategies, or school culture.

To refer to these studies in more detail, firstly, some scholars notably clarified the negative associations between teaching efficacy and perceived stress of teachers and its echo in job satisfaction (Arslan, 2015). By the same token, Collie et al. (2012) discovered an inverse correlation between the first two items. Further research yielded the conclusion

that high levels of perceived teacher stress led to reduced efficacy rates and hence this even provoked their quitting jobs (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016). It was also reported that the sense of teaching efficacy would determine the degree to which learners thrive and teachers' engagement with the profession. In the same vein, Caprara et al. (2003) noted that teaching efficacy played a key role in discovering job satisfaction. Likewise, Brockmeier (2023) unveiled that language practitioners with SEL beliefs were observed to experience higher self-efficacy and better rapport with learners in a positive school climate but less burnout. Finally, Park (2022) uncovered that teaching efficacy was a requirement of SEL practices given that teachers implementing SEL reached higher efficacy rates and job satisfaction. Overall, despite the emergence of studies in a wide range similar to the afore-mentioned analyses designed to prove its bidirectional relationships, it seems that future research has been still necessitated to reach further conclusive results and to abound its positive or negative associations with the same or similar factors in virtual educational settings (Cali, 2022).

The Main Focus of the Study

The literature posits that the emerging body of research corroborates the links between some teacher outcomes and school-based factors. Despite the so-called century-old interest in investigating these determinants to reveal how they operate dually, we still need up-to-date research results to unveil their relations after Covid-19 (Miller, 2022; Will, 2020). In other words, to get a multipronged picture describing educators' experiences, and contribute to the studies in language education, it is necessary to investigate the potential correlation of these factors with one another (Collie et al., 2012). Furthermore, the potential concordance of SEL with all of these teacher variables has been underrepresented over the past decade, particularly in the language teaching arena (Cali, 2022). As far less is known about the liaison of these components in online learning contexts, and it cannot be left unattended in language education, the void this research addressed in the literature was twofold. Firstly, the researcher planned this study on English language teachers' sense of SEL and school climate and their dual relation to the three above-mentioned teacher outcomes to afford a window into the world of SEL practices. Put differently, we aimed to scrutinize the interrelationship between these factors. Moreover, the study set out to seek bilateral connections between the demographics of participant teachers and the factors. The questions were as follows:

1. Are there any significant differences between the teachers' demographic features and SEL beliefs, perceptions of school climate, job satisfaction, teaching efficacy, and stress?

2. What are the interrelationships between teacher outcomes and the teachers' perceptions of school climate, and SEL beliefs?

Methodology

Participants

111 volunteer EFL teachers (79.3% female and 20.7% male) from distinct provinces of Turkey working in different schools affiliated with the Ministry of Education partook in that quantitative study. Their age distribution revealed that the majority of them (52.3%) were at the age of 30-39, and the ones from 20 to 29 were ranked at the second highest level with 27.9%. Then, the attendees at 40 to 49 (14.4%) and 50-59 (5.4%) appeared on the list. When the education levels teachers gave lessons were examined, it was obvious that 11.7% of them were staffed in primary school, 32.4% tutored at secondary school, and 55.9% worked in high school. According to their seniority, 28.8% of the participants were beginning teachers, 34.2% had six to ten-year seniority, 18.9% were equipped with 11-15 years' length of service, 9% reached 16 to 20 years in the profession, and finally, 9% were seasoned teachers with 21 years or more. As for the school setting, 53.2% of the teachers worked in the city centre, 19.8% worked 50 km away from the city at most, 13.5% worked 51-100 km from the city, and 13.5% worked more than 100 km away from the city.

After getting approval from the Ankara University Ethics Committee (decision number: 83) on 28 December 2020, schools in district-advantaged and disadvantaged regions at different education levels were invited to that study. After being informed about the research by school principals, volunteer English teachers completed the online questionnaire prepared in the English language. They were each given one week to submit the survey, and the researcher sent a reminder mail to the school directors after two weeks. Accordingly, English teachers were recruited with respect to cluster sampling from twenty-one schools in distinct settings varying from remote, suburban, and rural districts. Data was gathered at the peak of the pandemic in four months, beginning in January 2021 and ending in April 2021 for the present research.

Instruments

To begin with the outcome variables, after obtaining the permission of each scholar to use their surveys in the study as was also a requirement for ethical approval, the teacher stress survey developed by Boyle et al. (1995) with nine items on a 4-point Likert scale was utilized to determine the perceived stress of the participants in online lessons. Similarly, teaching efficacy rates were measured with the adoption of a twelve-item perceived efficacy scale based on a 9-point range created by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001). As for job satisfaction, four items, which emphasize the nature of teaching in the work field, from Spector's (1997) 6-point Likert scale inventory were utilized to check the teachers' satisfaction with the profession.

Respecting the predictor variables, the attendees' perceptions of school climate were assessed via a 17-item questionnaire according to a 5-point Likert scale developed by Johnson et al. (2007). Finally, a similarly designed Likert scale with 11 items generated by Brackett et al. (2012) was adopted with a view to revealing their SEL beliefs. Taken together, all of these five instruments with 53 items in the English language were included

in the research after the researcher proved their high reliabilities, and by considering the evidence for their validities from the studies at different education levels (see Collie et al., 2012, for further discussion).

Table 1. Reliability Indices, Means and Standard Deviations

Variable	α	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Outcomes					
Stress	.78	0,00	30,00	16,36	6,09
Teaching efficacy	.91	53,00	108,00	87,69	11,25
Job satisfaction	.80	7,00	20,00	16,29	3,15
Predictors					
School climate	.07	45,00	96,00	69,30	10,55
SEL	.79	17,00	55,00	41,72	6,46

Data Analysis

The analysis of data was administered via a software program for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistical methods were utilized to evaluate the data. The conformity of the data to the normal distribution was also controlled and examined through the Q-Q Plot (Quantile-Quantile Plot) method (Chan, 2003). Moreover, Shao's (2002) caveat that the values of skewness and kurtosis should be between ±3 in the normal distribution of the data was also considered. After the data set's analysis, it was discovered that apart from the scores for SEL, all variables in the current research showed a normal distribution.

Table 2. Normality Analysis

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis	Normality
Stress	0,476	-0,608	Normal
Teaching efficacy	0,639	-0,448	Normal
Job satisfaction	0,915	-1,123	Normal
School climate	-0,221	-0,293	Normal
SEL	3,486	-1,239	Non-normal

In the comparison of quantitative data within normal distributions, an independent sample t-test was applied to the differences between the two independent groups. On the other hand, while comparing more than two independent groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was embraced, and Bonferroni was also used to find the group creating a difference (Tamhane, 1977). Moreover, as emphasized by Bortz (2005), the Mann-Whitney U test was embodied for the difference between two independent groups without a normal distribution, and the Kruskal Wallis H test was also utilized for the comparison of more than two independent groups. The Bonferroni correction was again involved in the analysis process (Table 3). Finally, Pearson and Spearman's correlations were applied to test bilateral associations between numerical variables (Table 4). Consequently, this analysis allowed the revealing of the bivariate relations of the two predictors and three outcomes with one another (Das, 2016).

Results

In this study, the researcher examined potential differences between the demographic characteristics of teachers and their perceptions of SEL, school climate, sense of stress, job satisfaction, and teaching efficacy. Furthermore, bilateral relations between the predictors and outcome variables were investigated individually. To begin with the first research question, a statistically significant difference was only detected between the job satisfaction scores of the participants and their teaching experience (Table 3). As a result of the post-hoc test, the job satisfaction of the teachers with 16-20 years of experience was found to be higher than the others with seniority of one to five and twenty-one or more years.

Table 3. Demographics of Participants and Study Variables

Variables		Stress		Teaching Efficacy		Job Satisfaction		SEL			School Climate	
		$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	Median	$\bar{X}$	SD
Gender	Female	16,6	5,9	87,0	11,6	16,3	3,0	42,0	6,1	42	69,1	11,1
	Male	15,3	6,65	90,0	9,3	16,0	3,4	40,3	7,6	40	69,9	8,0
	t value	0,893		-1,126		0,505		-1,233[Z]			-0,331	
	p	0,374		0,263		0,614		0,217			0,742	
Age	20-29[1]	16,77	6,02	84,8	14,2	15,7	4,0	43,1	7,8	43	67,8	11,9
	30-39[2]	16,4	6,1	87,5	10,1	16,4	2,6	40,8	6,3	41,5	69,8	9,5
	40-49[3]	15,3	4,9	92,4	7,6	17,0	3,3	42,0	4,2	41,5	71,3	10,5
	50-59[4]	15,6	9,8	91,3	9,6	16,3	2,7	42,6	2,9	43	66,1	13,4
	F-test	0,216		1,852		0,596		3,104[H]			0,629	
	p	0,885		0,142		0,619		0,376			0,598	
E.L.	Primary[1]	14,0	5,7	90,2	9,1	17,6	1,4	42,6	4,7	44	74,7	9,0
	Secondary[2]	15,8	6,2	87,4	11,5	16,4	3,1	41,6	5,5	42	68,1	10,0
	High[3]	17,1	6,0	87,3	11,6	15,9	3,3	41,5	7,2	42	68,8	10,9
	F-test	1,700		0,371		1,595		0,253[H]			2,062	
	p	0,187		0,691		0,208		0,881			0,132	
T.E.	1-5[1]	17,1	5,6	86,2	12,8	15,5	3,9	42,5	7,6	42,5	68,0	11,0
	6-10[2]	16,4	6,3	85,7	11,9	16,1	2,5	40,5	7,3	42	70,0	10,5
	11-15[3]	16,1	5,9	89,0	8,7	17,4	2,5	42,8	4,9	43	68,5	9,0
	16-20[4]	11,7	5,3	96,2	9,1	18,5	1,8	42,7	3,7	42,5	73,3	10,8
	21 or more[5]	18,7	6,1	88,5	5,6	14,7	3,2	40,	2,6	40,5	68,1	12,1
	F-test	2,032		2,012		3,267		3,166[H]			0,581	
	p	0,095		0,098		0,014*		0,530			0,677	
	Post-	-		-		4>1,5		-			-	

	hoc											
S.S.	a	17,1	5,0	87,8	10,3	16,3	2,9	41,6	5,3	42	67,1	9,5
	b	15,4	6,6	88,0	11,0	16,6	3,2	42,9	6,3	44	72,4	11,9
	c	16,5	5,3	87,2	11,0	17,0	1,6	39,9	9,2	41	70,8	7,7
	d	14,4	9,1	87,2	15,6	14,8	4,5	41,8	7,6	43	71,6	13,4
	F-test	0,996		0,021		1,401		2,618[H]			1,836	
	p	0,398		0,996		0,247		0,454			0,145	

Note: E.L.: Education Level, T.E.: Teaching Experience, S.S.: School Setting, a: city centre, b: 50 km away from the city at most, c: 51-100 km from the city, d: schools more than 100 km away from the city, T-test: Unpaired t-test, F-test: ANOVA, Z: Mann Whitney U test, H: Kruskal Wallis H test (*$p<0{,}05$).

As for the bivariate relations, a statistically significant negative correlation was found between perceived stress and efficacy in teaching (Table 4). In the same vein, another significant negative correlation was discovered between perceived stress and satisfaction with the job. That liaison was the same for occupational stress and perceptions of school climate considering the p and r values in the table below. In what follows, despite not being significant, a negative relationship between teachers' sense of stress and SEL was also discovered at the end of the analysis. With respect to teaching efficacy, its bilateral correlations with job satisfaction, school climate, and SEL scores were all determined to be statistically significant.

Table 4. Correlation Analysis

Variables		Stress	Teaching efficacy	Job satisfaction	School climate	SEL
Stress	r	1				
	p					
Teaching efficacy	r	-0,379**	1			
	p	0,000				
Job satisfaction	r	-0,222*	0,307**	1		
	p	0,019	0,001			
School climate	r	-0,412**	0,241*	0,214*	1	
	p	0,000	0,011	0,024		
SEL	r	-0,019	0,280**	0,253**	0,077	1
	p	0,846	0,003	0,007	0,422	

*$p<0{,}05$ **$p<0{,}01$

The researcher also confirmed a significant positive correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and convictions about school climate. Table 3 already foreshadows their potential affiliation with t-test results ($p=0{,}247$) despite not displaying a significant difference. Finally, another positive relationship was noted among job satisfaction and SEL. Still, we cannot observe a significant correlation between SEL and school climate scores of the teachers.

Taken together, a statistically strong negative liaison could not be noted between SEL beliefs and teachers' sense of occupational stress. Likewise, although school climate and SEL coordination were positive, they cannot be reported as statistically significant.

Moreover, of all the demographic characteristics, the only significant difference was detected between attendees' job satisfaction and experiences in this profession. Finally, both the beginning and highly experienced teachers in the field were not reported to have contentment with giving lectures compared to the group of tutors with a seniority of 16-20 years.

Discussion

As Table 3 illustrates, the analysis relevant to the first question revealed teachers with 16 to 20 years of service in the profession reached the highest job satisfaction than other age groups. This finding signals the close link between veteran teachers with nearly 20 years of educational experience and their professional growth (Kinman et al., 2011). Accordingly, the novice (with five years' experience at most) and very experienced teachers (with two decades or more) standing at the two extreme points seemed not to pull through some possible hurdles, such as stress, or burnout (Brockmeier, 2023; Miller, 2022). Considering the consequences of the pandemic (Fataar, 2020), and the counter correlation of perceived stress with the gratification of teachers from the job, which will be addressed in the following question in detail, their discontentedness with the teaching profession and the arousal of negative emotions towards teaching seem to be reasonable (Eva & Thayer, 2017).

As for the second research question, the negative correlation between perceived stress and efficacy in teaching requires being discussed (Table 4). Having regarded occupational stress with mental, psychological, physiological, and emotional dimensions along with some external factors (e.g., the fear of being evaluated), it was quite rational to deduce that the efficacy of teaching can be vulnerable to these versatile influences and thereby cannot be linear with the perceived stress. In other words, as Collie et al. (2012), Park (2022), Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2016), and Kyriacou (2011) already underscored, the result confirming their inverse correlation was not surprising. In parallel, a similar inverse correlation was between their perceived stress and satisfaction with the profession. This finding was compatible with the inferences by Darling-Hammond, (2001), Arslan (2015), and Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) in that the lack of gratification of the teaching staff from their job would result in their anxiety or tension toward giving e-lectures.

As Table 4 indicates the p and r values, occupational stress, and perceptions of school climate were also inversely related to one another. With the same reasoning as Brockmeier (2023), Erbil (2022), Gallup (2014), Özdemir and Babadoğan (2023), and Westling and Whitten (1996), their cross-connection must have originated from the fact that teachers felt isolated from the real school culture due to the pandemic and possible misperceptions or misunderstandings among shareholders within the school system stemming from the dearth of healthy communication. Besides, the negative liaison between SEL and perceived stress revealed that occupational stress may have impeded CASEL, or in more detail, the participants' self and social awareness, self-management, decision-making, and future self (Elias et al., 1997). Furthermore, strong ties between social-emotional awareness, positive senses, and SEL beliefs must have been ruined by stress (Bridgeland et al., 2013). Overall, the sense of stress of teachers mirrored their

insufficient SEL competence in the face of the appalling impacts of the worldwide crisis (Cooper et al., 2023; Motallebzadeh et al., 2014).

As to teaching efficacy, the researcher appointed its significant and negative relation with job satisfaction, school climate, and SEL. Initially, being in the same line with the findings by Arslan (2015), and McCarthy et al. (2006), the willingness of teachers to be engaged with the profession seemed to be consistent with their judgment, perceptions, or convictions, such as resilience in the face of challenges. This result was also in parallel with Caprara et al. (2003) who drew attention to the significance of the interrelation between job satisfaction and efficacy in reporting the learner outcomes and the increasing input of the students (Durlak, 2020; Friedlaender et al., 2014). Nonetheless, similar to Weissberg et al. (2015), this finding would prompt us to examine the strong bond between these two more deeply since students' learning was only the tip of the iceberg. Accordingly, the relationship between teaching efficacy and school climate perceptions corroborated its other associations with teachers' well-being, support for learning in safety, and respect for diversity (Schonert-Reichl, 2017). Additionally, it proved that school culture did not only represent educational context but teachers' commitment to teaching as well (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). As a final point, the positive relationship between their perceived efficacy and SEL beliefs led us to review the prosocial classroom model by Jennings and Greenberg (2009) (Figure 2). These scholars already signified the weight of teachers' competence or beliefs within the community context and effective SEL delivery via this model, as accentuated by Brackett et al. (2012) as well. This liaison also proved the rational reason why OECD (2015) created a framework to display the interrelatedness of the components of SEL and the emotional values of teachers (e.g., their own SEL and efficacy) in a holistic program.

Another positive and significant correlation was disclosed among teachers' satisfaction with the profession and convictions about school climate similar to Cooper et al. (2023). Similarly, the link was the same for their job satisfaction and SEL, which was in tune with Brackett et al. (2019), and Özdemir and Babadoğan (2023). On the other hand, the researcher could not determine this significant and positive relationship between SEL and school climate. Yet, the classroom climate appeared to be inextricably intertwined with the implementation of the SEL even when we only regard the standardized SEL programs by Mahoney et al. (2021) (Figure 3). By the same token, Mahoney and Weissberg (2018) reported the interdependence between social environment, school connectedness, and inter- and intrapersonal relationships. In that case, the participants must have experienced a lack of on-going professional development throughout Covid-19, within the academic year. This can also be grounded on the findings by Will (2020) who reported that less than one-third of the teachers received professional training in SEL during the pandemic, whereas one-fifth held no training opportunities to enhance their SEL competence.

Furthermore, as highlighted in the discussion of the link relevant to perceived stress and satisfaction with the profession above, the participants must have taken this stance due to problematic rapport with colleagues or other stakeholders or undefined roles assigned to them throughout the pandemic (Cali, 2022; Friedlaender et al., 2014; Domitrovich et al.,

2016; Jennings et al., 2019). Owing to the heavy workload of Covid-19, superintendents might have pushed the participant teachers to overwork, which would cause to eliminate or disrupt the school-wide culture and school communities, and their linkages (MacIntyre et al., 2020; Mahaye, 2020; Veena et al., 2020). Though maintaining lessons online, another motive might be the school setting where they could not feel secure or can be worried about their well-being when we followed an identical perspective to Hamilton and Doss (2020), and Vansteenkiste et al. (2007). In a corroborative way, Table 3 indicates an approximate value to mention a significant difference between convictions of school climate and the location of schools (p=0,145). This result was also congruent with Bettencourt et al. (2016) who clarified that the setting of schools would have a negative correlation with the SEL along with some external factors.

Conclusion

The study shows the interrelationships between the two school-based factors and the three teacher outcomes according to the online teaching experiences of the educators at the peak of the pandemic. The researcher discovered that the beliefs of teachers about SEL were directly correlated with their sense of efficacy, and job satisfaction. In other words, their social-emotional skills, competence, aptitude to be self-reflective, and contentment with the education procedure would matter to the effectiveness of the course. However, their perceptions of school climate and SEL beliefs were not detected to have a significant liaison with each other despite moving in a positive direction. Overall, it afforded a window into the world of SEL practices from EFL teachers' perspectives by presenting corroborating results to prior studies with similar scopes. Finally, this research contributes to the studies on teacher education by proving how EFL teachers' beliefs and perceptions regarding SEL and school climate would be associated with substantial teacher outcomes. More importantly, as their liaisons would also be reflected on learners' success or outcomes, its implications would not be restricted to EFL teachers but extend to the field of English language teaching (ELT).

Suggestions for Practice

In light of the findings, the researcher will draw a set of implications for language teaching practices. Initially, this research alarms us of the devastating impact of the pandemic on a safe, supportive school environment, and its strong afflict on teachers' personal and interpersonal values (e.g., self-esteem, commitment, empathy, motivation, or self-awareness). Although we assume that the pandemic is in the post-phase, in case of a new wave of the crisis, more emphasis should be placed on language practitioners' perceptions of school climate on the way to enhance SEL in the system and learner outcomes. Therefore, the current educational policy should be revisited to reveal whether it provides social-emotional support for educators in ELT to better their online and on-set language teaching practices.

To keep it further, given the significant difference between seniority and job satisfaction, the teachers who have reached the highest job satisfaction with 16-20 years of experience must be considered important figures to further the organizations of Continuing

Professional Development (CPD) activities in the field. This is because the teachers who lagged behind this group (i.e., the novice and very experienced teachers) should take professional support from teacher trainers in foreign language teaching at once (Cali, 2022). Furthermore, the upcoming research should also examine the CPD practices of teachers, especially from the foregoing ranges of seniority to reduce the interventions of Covid-19 on language education. Finally, future or on-going implementations should recruit teachers, principals, and other collaborators in the school setting as participants in their designs to compensate for the limitation of the current study.

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Research Article

Hands-on Practices on the Use of Corpora in English Language Teaching: Reflections from Teacher Training

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Along with recent advances in the development of corpus tools, there has been a growing interest in integrating corpora into language teaching. However, teachers' lack of awareness may be an obstacle to the effective implementation of corpora in language classroom routines. This study offers an in-service training program on corpus use in language pedagogy and aims to investigate teachers' views on corpus-based teaching and learning regarding their actual hands-on experiences. For this purpose, 10 EFL instructors at a state university in Turkey were enrolled in an intensive seven-week training program. This program involved a total of nine sessions aimed at presenting how to use corpus tools in language teaching and implementing corpus-based activities in vocabulary teaching, grammar teaching, and error correction. Data were collected via reflective logs and semi-structured interviews. Qualitative analyses revealed the importance of providing teachers with in-service training on corpus use since they perceived to gain awareness, knowledge, and skills required for implementing pedagogical applications of corpora in language teaching while also reporting drawbacks of corpus use in practice. The findings of the study shed light on future practices related to pedagogical uses of corpora in language classrooms and offer a number of implications for teacher education.

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Introduction

Recent advances in technology and the accessibility of various digital tools have directed a great deal of attention to the idea of corpus use in language pedagogy (Boulton & Cobb, 2017; Huang, 2017). For language teaching and learning purposes, corpora can be implemented indirectly or directly (Römer, 2011, p. 207). Indirect applications refer to the influence of findings stemming from corpus analysis on teaching syllabuses and instructional materials (e.g., textbooks and dictionaries) whereas direct applications involve teachers' and/or students' hands-on interaction with corpora. Teachers can engage students in corpus-induced activities including concordance lines (a line of text taken from a corpus) chosen in advance in the form of paper-based activities (Boulton, 2010), or students have access to corpus data via computers to search for target items and analyze concordance lines (Godwin-Jones, 2017). Such applications that encourage students to discover language patterns by analyzing corpus data are also known as data-driven learning (DDL henceforth) (Johns, 1991).

Research on DDL has mainly focused on studies investigating the effectiveness of this approach in learning vocabulary (e.g., Chen, 2017; Daskalovska, 2015; Karras, 2016; Li, 2017), grammar (e.g., Lin & Lee, 2019; Smart, 2014), and error correction and feedback process in writing (e.g., Crosthwaite, 2017; Luo & Liao, 2015; Luo, 2016; Mueller & Jacobsen, 2016; Quinn, 2015; Tono et al., 2014). These studies highlight that implementing corpora in the areas of vocabulary teaching, grammar teaching, and error correction would benefit learners in gaining awareness of the use of language in context and correction of language errors via authentic samples. In addition to experimental studies, there are several meta-analyses examining the impacts of DDL on learning language skills/areas (Boulton & Cobb, 2017; Lee et al., 2019; Mizumoto & Chujo, 2015). This bulk of research in general reported numerous gains in the learning of language skills and areas such as increased retention of vocabulary, gains in grammatical knowledge, successful error correction, and awareness in the development of language skills.

Apart from research that has focused on the effects of DDL on students' gains in language learning, teachers' attitudes toward using corpus in language learning and teaching environments, as well as training pre-service teachers on corpus use, have been the focus of recent literature (e.g., Abdel Latif, 2021; Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017; Farr, 2008; Leńko-Szymańska, 2017; Zareva, 2017). As for in-service teacher training, several studies explored teachers' perceptions of corpus use in language pedagogy based on workshops designed (e.g., Chen et al., 2019; Mukherjee, 2004) whereas few studies have aimed to investigate teachers' perspectives on the integration of corpora into language teaching contexts with their actual experiences in classrooms (Lin, 2019; Poole, 2022). The present study offers a comprehensive in-service training program that empowers EFL teachers with corpus knowledge and provides opportunities to produce corpus-based materials and activities to be used in real classrooms. In this way, this study may illuminate the suitability of corpora for actual classroom practices from in-service teachers' perspectives.

Literature Review

Use of Corpora and Language Teacher Education

Using corpora in the form of DDL activities is associated with the principles of discovery learning since learners are expected to explore patterns related to language use and infer rules themselves (Boulton & Cobb, 2017; Flowerdew, 2015). Such a discovery process might also be regarded as part of a constructivist approach (Flowerdew, 2015) as learners build knowledge by drawing conclusions about the uses of the language. In addition, corpus applications in language pedagogy align with the noticing hypothesis, proposed by Schmidt (1990) since corpus-based activities direct students' attention to recurring language patterns (Flowerdew, 2015), and a huge amount of authentic data makes language patterns noticeable (Boulton & Cobb, 2017). This approach enhances learners' awareness of the language (Breyer, 2009; Farr, 2008) and might also be motivating since learners are involved in the learning process (Gilquin & Granger, 2010; Lee, 2011). Besides, analyzing data accessed via corpora and identifying language patterns encourages students to take part in the learning process actively fostering learner autonomy (Boulton & Cobb, 2017; Braun, 2005; Godwin-Jones, 2017) as well.

Although there has been a growing enthusiasm for pedagogical uses of corpora in the research area, corpus applications in actual classroom practices are not prevalent (Leńko-Szymańska & Boulton, 2015). Researchers draw attention to teachers' lack of awareness and knowledge about corpora (Boulton, 2009; Gilquin & Granger, 2010; Frankenberg-Garcia, 2012; Römer, 2011). It is essential to empower teachers with basic skills such as making corpus queries and interpreting corpus data to enhance language teaching (Frankenberg-Garcia, 2012). Other than considering corpus-induced pedagogy merely as a remedy or one-shot practice, teachers need sufficient knowledge and necessary skills related to classroom uses of corpus applications to integrate them into actual teaching routines (Leńko-Szymańska, 2014).

It can be seen that integrating corpora into language teacher education is crucial (Farr & O'Keeffe, 2019). In a study, Farr (2008) found that student teachers' views about using corpus as a learning tool were generally positive as they could see the language in its natural context along with some challenges such as the amount of time required and technical difficulties. In the context of an initial language teacher education program in Germany, Breyer (2009) highlighted the positive impacts of the training on student teachers since the participants could see the potential of corpora for language education although several problems related to technology and classroom management were noted. Similarly, Heather and Helt (2012) stressed the significance of training on the basics of the corpus in language teacher education despite some concerns related to technological issues and students' language proficiency levels in actual classrooms. Leńko-Szymańska (2014) conducted a study with graduate students in a Polish context and investigated their perceptions of corpus use in language education. The results stressed the potential benefits of corpus use for vocabulary in general and phraseology in particular. Besides, the emphasis placed on training teachers to be able to gain sufficient knowledge and skills required for corpus use was notable. In a similar vein, Zareva (2017) carried out a study to explore TESOL trainee teachers' perceptions on the integration of corpus-based research in an English grammar course and concluded that taking such a course about

corpus-based research broadened participants' perspectives in many ways although technical challenges were echoed with an emphasis on the need for more hands-on experience. In another study, Ebrahimi and Faghih (2017) examined pre-service teachers' reflections on a seven-week online course at an M.A. program. Along with the need for training on pedagogical applications of corpora, several limitations in relation to corpus use were noted as it required technological equipment, time for designing corpus-based materials, and analysis of concordances. In a recent study, Abdel Latif (2021) concluded that student teachers held positive attitudes toward corpus use after receiving instruction on corpus literacy; however, such positive beliefs did not deeply influence their practices in the long term.

As for the perceptions of in-service teachers, Mukherjee (2004) surveyed 248 language teachers in a German EFL context on the principles of corpus and pedagogical applications of corpora in language classrooms. The results indicated that teachers held positive attitudes toward corpus consultation since it might be useful while preparing teaching materials and checking exam papers. In the Taiwanese EFL context, Lin and Lee (2015) investigated six teachers' perceptions regarding the use of corpus-based activities in teaching grammar and concluded that such activities promoted students' involvement in the lesson since they became active participants. However, concerns regarding workload and the material preparation process were observed. In another study, Lin (2019) explored one teacher's experiences with corpus-based activities in grammar instruction and emphasized the need for more practice to internalize such an approach to language teaching. In a more recent study, Poole (2022) concluded that corpus-based activities were beneficial; however, using ready-made materials was not favored since it did not foster sufficient autonomy to make corpus queries. Concerning this finding, the study showed that it was important to use corpus-based materials designed specifically for the context to maximize the potential benefit of the corpus in language teaching. Besides, it was pointed out that making corpus searches and interpreting findings might not be appropriate for some students because of their lack of proficiency.

In the Turkish EFL context, Özbay and Kayaoğlu (2015) unveiled language instructors' perceptions of using corpus tools in language teaching regarding the training they received. Analysis of qualitative data showed that the training raised teachers' awareness of the accessibility of corpora and the information that could be accessed via corpus tools. Based on the participants' reflections, corpora would help to reach various authentic samples of the language, and they might be useful in checking accurate uses of the language. Albeit potential benefits such as gaining awareness on the availability of corpora and classroom applications of corpora in language education, several challenges such as technical issues, difficulties in material preparation, and students' lack of language proficiency were also notable in the previous research (e.g., Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017; Heather & Helt, 2012). Thus, the current study adds to the relevant literature on providing training opportunities to teachers to raise their awareness by highlighting a need to guide teachers in material preparation tailored to the needs of their students and teaching contexts.

Significance and Aim of the Study

Despite the increasing popularity of corpus studies in recent years, pedagogical uses of corpora are still not prevalent in Turkish EFL classrooms as teachers lack awareness, knowledge, and skills (Aşık, 2015). Since courses related to corpora are not systematically integrated into language teacher education programs, the familiarity with corpus use is mainly limited to the individual efforts of language educators. Instructors might encounter the term "corpus" as part of their professional development activities while pursuing postgraduate degrees and attending workshops, conferences, and certificate programs; however, using corpora for pedagogical purposes requires training to acquire the essential knowledge and necessary technical skills (Lin, 2019; Römer, 2011). Such training programs need to create opportunities to observe the ways to bring corpora to language classrooms and experiment with classroom applications of the corpus. Very little research has provided systematic training on developing hands-on classroom applications and explored in-service teachers' perceptions regarding corpus use for pedagogical purposes (e.g., Lin, 2019; Poole, 2022). This study provided an extensive training program and investigated language teachers' views on the use of corpora in real-life classroom contexts based on their hands-on experiences throughout the training. Therefore, this study addressed the following research question:

R.Q. What do EFL university instructors think about using corpora in their actual teaching contexts upon receiving intensive training on corpus use in language pedagogy?

Methodology

Participants and Context

The ethical approval for the current study was obtained from the ethics board of the institution in which the research was carried out. Before the study, all participants were informed about the procedures of this research and their right to withdraw from this study at any time. To ensure the confidentiality of the data they provided and their voluntary participation, they signed consent forms. Participants were coded to maintain their anonymity (e.g., *T1, T2, T3*).

The study was conducted at the School of Foreign Languages at a state university in Turkey in the Fall Term of the 2019-2020 Academic Year. In the context of this study, intensive language courses are offered to students from various majors. Based on the results of the placement test administered at the beginning of the fall term, students are assigned to classrooms at four different proficiency levels ranging from beginner to intermediate that are determined according to the Global Scale of English (GSE). Instructional materials used in the preparatory program consist of a published textbook series and supplementary packs compiled by members of the material development unit at the school. These materials primarily used in classrooms do not include any samples of corpus-based activities.

10 EFL university instructors who were working in the study context participated in the study. Participants were selected using convenience sampling (Creswell, 2012) as they were available and willing to receive training on corpus use in language teaching. This study followed a convenience sampling strategy since voluntary participation of the instructors was necessary to spare time for the training and integration of corpus-based language pedagogy.

Among seven participants who were graduates of English Language Teaching (ELT), three of them held an M.A. degree in ELT as well. Three participants had an M.A. degree in non-ELT programs (i.e., English Linguistics). The instructors' years of teaching experience ranged from 5 to 22, and the language proficiency level they were teaching varied from *beginner* to *intermediate*. The background information about all participants can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Background Information About the Participants

	Gender	Education	Experience	Teaching Level
T1	F	B.A. in ELT	22	Beginner
T2	F	B.A. in ELT	20	Intermediate
T3	F	M.A. in ELT	20	Pre-intermediate
T4	F	M.A. in ELT	15	Pre-intermediate
T5	F	B.A. in non-ELT	13	Pre-intermediate
T6	F	M.A. in ELT	9	Pre-intermediate
T7	F	B.A. in non-ELT	7	Beginner
T8	M	B.A. in ELT	7	Beginner
T9	F	B.A. in non-ELT	7	Elementary
T10	F	B.A. in ELT	5	Beginner

To gain an insight into participants' background knowledge and prior experiences with corpora, one-on-one interviews were held with each participant before receiving training (see Appendix A). About the familiarity with corpora, four participants (*T1, T2, T7,* and *T8*) had almost no idea what a corpus referred to. Three participants (*T3, T5,* and *T10*) described the concept of the corpus as a collection of words; however, they were not familiar with any corpora. Three participants (*T4, T6,* and *T9*) had experiences with corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) to check the frequency of words and usage of collocations and registers. One of the participants (*T4*) introduced corpora to several students once to show how they could consult corpora to observe various usages of words and check collocations. The initial interviews aided in obtaining information about the participants' background regarding familiarity with corpora and pedagogical uses of the corpus. The findings showed that most of the participants' familiarity with corpora was quite low, and none of them had actual experiences with corpora as part of their regular teaching practices.

Training Procedures

An extensive training program on the use of corpora in language teaching was developed based on the teachers' need to get acquainted with corpus tools and their pedagogical uses. Specific attention was paid to the cyclical nature of training to create opportunities for participants to observe the information newly presented and experiment with it. That is, participants were first engaged in tasks in the position of learners to become familiar with the new information. Then, they applied the knowledge and skills newly acquired to their actual teaching context. Participants reflected on every single experience in this cyclical pattern and all steps were enhanced with observations, reflections, group discussions, and hands-on experiences. This training was designed in the form of two-hour weekly workshops. The program consisted of nine sessions with specific themes, and the training process was

implemented in seven weeks. All training sessions included interactive tasks, group discussions, and assignments that were guided with thought-provoking questions throughout the training (see Appendix B for sample materials). The themes covered in training sessions each week can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. The Weekly Schedule of Training Sessions

Week 1	Session 1	Overview on corpus
Week 2	Session 2	Introduction to basic functions of the corpus tool: COCA
Week 3	Session 3	How to use concordance lines in classrooms: Lexical items
Week 4	Session 4	Sharing participants' corpus-based activities on lexical items
Week 4	Session 5	How to use concordance lines in classrooms: Grammatical structures
Week 5	Session 6	Sharing corpus-based activities on grammatical structures
Week 5	Session 7	How to use concordance lines in classrooms: Error correction
Week 6	Session 8	Sharing corpus-based activities on error correction
Week 7	Session 9	Discussion on the experience of implementing corpus-based activities

Session 1: Introduction of basic notions of the corpus. Various engaging tasks were designed (e.g., fundamentals of DDL, listing words according to frequency, identifying chunks used in written and spoken genres) to attract instructors' attention to the characteristics of corpus and its applications in language teaching and learning. The session was elaborated with sample pages from a corpus-informed textbook to provide insights into how corpus data could be integrated into teaching resources.

Session 2: Introduction of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). This session was carried out in a computer laboratory to empower participants with practical skills. COCA was selected as the tool in the study since it provided a convenient interface, up-to-date information, and free access to the website (Timmis, 2015). Participants acquired hands-on experience in using the tool by accomplishing several exercises (e.g., searching a word/phrase, analyzing concordance lines, comparing and sorting words according to sections) and were familiarized with the interface through continuous support and guidance.

Session 3: Use of concordance lines in vocabulary instruction. Following group discussions on vocabulary teaching practices (i.e., strategies, problems, activity types, and the potential benefit of corpus use), participants were provided with various samples of corpus-based activities in vocabulary instruction (e.g., gap-filling, matching, and selecting) for different language proficiency levels. Sample activities were composed of both direct use of raw corpus data via computers and indirect use including printout corpus data that consisted of concordance lines from COCA. At the end of this session, participants were introduced to the task in which they were required to prepare a corpus-based material for the following week.

Session 4: Reflection on the process of material preparation for vocabulary instruction. Participants were free to choose any lexical item/s at any proficiency level and they uploaded their materials into a digital shared folder to compose a corpus-based material pool. Participants examined all materials designed by their colleagues and exchanged ideas on corpus-based activities produced for vocabulary instruction. Reflections were carried out on the material preparation process based on their hands-on experiences.

Session 5: Use of corpus-based materials for grammatical structures. Participants held a group discussion on their classroom routines while teaching grammatical structures (i.e.,

strategies, activity types, and problems encountered in teaching grammar items) and the potential use of corpus-based materials in grammar instruction. Upon the completion of group discussions, participants were engaged in sample corpus-based activities derived from concordance lines on COCA for grammar instruction. Grammar structures selected for tasks were specified based on teaching syllabuses in the study context (e.g., functions of the modal *can,* passive voice, *since/for* with present perfect tense, and indirect questions). Participants were also asked to design a corpus-based activity for grammar instruction as an assignment for the next session.

Session 6: Reflection on the process of material preparation for grammar instruction. Participants followed similar procedures to upload and share corpus-based activities prepared for grammar instruction. Participants reviewed all materials produced by their colleagues and reflected on the material preparation process including the reasons for activity type, target structure, and level they chose and used in their corpus-based activity.

Session 7: Use of concordance lines in error correction. Following group discussions on participants' actual practices regarding error correction in writing, this session focused on error correction via corpus tools with direct and indirect uses (e.g., accurate use of structures/prepositions, spelling, and linkers), and the errors selected for tasks were derived from students' writing papers in the context of the study. This practice was followed by the presentation of the following assignment that required the preparation of a corpus-based activity for error correction.

Session 8: Reflection on the process of material preparation for error correction. This session was reserved for discussions on the process of corpus-based material preparation to correct students' errors in writing. Adopting similar procedures conducted in sessions 4 and 6, participants examined corpus-based materials they shared and reflected on the use of corpus-based materials for error correction. Participants were also assigned a final task in which they were required to implement one corpus-based activity they prepared for their students. For this task, participants were expected to select one of the areas covered in the training (i.e., vocabulary instruction, grammar instruction, or error correction). In this way, participants had the opportunity to use corpus-based activities in their current classroom environment.

Session 9: Overall discussion and reflection on the use of corpus-based activities. Participants reflected on the practices of using corpus in actual teaching contexts. All participants evaluated the applicability of corpus-based activities to the level they were teaching in terms of practicality, effectiveness, gains, and challenges.

Data Collection

Reflective logs: Participants wrote logs following each training session and reflected on what they thought and felt about the session they attended. In this way, instructors' thoughts and feelings about corpus use in language teaching could be elicited based on hands-on experiences they acquired in training sessions. Each participant kept a total of nine digital logs and the researcher created a separate folder for all participants considering their confidentiality.

Semi-structured interviews: The interview protocol with each participant was carried out twice: before the training and after the training. Data collected through interviews before the training were descriptive and were used to obtain information about the participants' background and their familiarity with corpora. Thus, interviews before the training were not used to answer the research question regarding the participants' views on using corpora in their teaching contexts. To explore participants' views about the use of corpora in language teaching after receiving training, semi-structured interviews were conducted as they provided flexibility to obtain qualitative data (Nunan, 1992). Two experts in the field of ELT were consulted to ensure the appropriateness of interview questions for the current study (see Appendix C). Upon completion of the training program, interviews were scheduled with each participant for the following week. All interviews were carried out in Turkish since participants could express themselves comfortably in their native language. The interviews were audio-recorded to be transcribed verbatim.

Data Analysis

Qualitative data collected through reflective logs and semi-structured interviews were analyzed using the Constant Comparative Method (CCM) which is based on the ideals of grounded theory for data analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Using procedures of this method allowed for a theory emanating from data rather than following categories identified beforehand (Kolb, 2012). Data were analyzed in a three-step procedure. In the first step, data were segmented into small pieces to be labeled as a code; that is, words or phrases involving any sense or thought about the perceptions of participants were identified (Allan, 2003). In the second step, the codes were compared with another one constantly in many cycles to find out recurring themes. In the third step, using an ongoing analysis process, assembled themes constituted the final categories of main themes. Two independent raters were involved in the process to ensure the reliability of qualitative data analysis. To overcome any disagreements between the raters and finalize the codes, a negotiation session was carried out. The percentage of agreement between the raters was measured by using the percentage agreement formula (Huberman & Miles, 2002), and it was found .90 indicating a high level of reliability.

Results

EFL University Instructors' Views on Using Corpora in Language Teaching upon Receiving Training

Qualitative analyses of reflective logs and semi-structured interviews revealed a total of 713 codes related to the instructors' views about using corpora in language pedagogy and their overall perceptions of the training. These codes were assembled under three main categories and 16 sub-categories. The main categories were determined as *teachers' perceived gains* (290 codes), *benefits of using corpora in language teaching* (212 codes), and *drawbacks of using corpora in language teaching* (211 codes). In the following sections, tables related to each main category and sub-category are given along with sample explanatory statements. These explanatory statements are participants' expressions extracted from the actual data anonymously to exemplify what each sub-category involves.

Teachers' Perceived Gains

Findings revealed that instructors in the study perceived numerous positive gains related to their teaching. The main category of *teachers' perceived gains* from training on corpus use was composed of five sub-categories. The sub-categories regarding teachers' perceived gains during the process of training are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of Codes Related to Teachers' Perceived Gains

Sub-categories	Explanatory statements	N*
Awareness of corpora	*"Tasks encouraged learning different aspects of the corpus."*	73
Familiarity with classroom applications of corpora	*"I learned corpus is a useful tool to teach English in several other ways."*	72
Technical skills required for corpus use	*"I learned what to do with COCA and how to use its different functions."*	70
Collaboration with colleagues	*"It was valuable to learn about my colleagues' experiences and perspectives."*	39
Hands-on experience in material preparation	*"I had a chance to use COCA for the first time to prepare a task for my students."*	36
Total		**290**

N*= Number of codes

Background survey before training on corpus use put forward that the instructors were not very familiar with using corpora in language teaching. With the help of the comprehensive training process both on the theoretical and practical uses of corpora, the participants reported that they gained *awareness of corpora* (73 codes) in different aspects, such as the concept of the corpus, the availability and accessibility of corpus tools, and the influence of corpus on language pedagogy (e.g., corpus-informed textbooks, syllabus design, and DDL). Moreover, two participants, who were familiar with corpus, reported that this training broadened their perspectives regarding their knowledge of corpus as they were introduced to the background information and potential of corpus knowledge in language use. One of the prominent gains perceived in this study was gaining *familiarity with classroom applications of corpora* (72 codes). Incorporating corpora into grammar instruction and writing for error correction was a completely new idea for the majority even though several participants had insights into the use of corpora in vocabulary instruction. The participants also stressed that context-specific corpus-based activities were inspiring as they had an in-depth understanding of how to apply corpus use to their actual classroom practices in various ways. The participants acknowledged that training sessions aided them in gaining *technical skills required for corpus use* (70 codes); that is, they were empowered with essential skills required for using corpus comfortably and effectively (e.g., searching words/phrases on the corpus, and analyzing concordance lines, using various functions of COCA). The following excerpts illuminate the perceived gains participants acquired from training sessions:

> T9: *"Before this training, I had some doubts about the possibility of using corpus in classrooms. I thought that corpus could be used only in teaching collocations. I would have never imagined using corpus in error correction and grammar... I*

particularly liked this training as it involved classroom applications of the corpus."

T3: "Without your help, it would have been very difficult for me to discover the essential tips. I'd tried to use a corpus tool before, but I wasn't able to figure out how to do it and I never tried it again. So, the tips provided in the sessions were really useful for us."

The training sessions also contributed to the participants' *collaboration with colleagues* (39 codes). Participating in this training increased cooperation among the instructors throughout the study since they shared their thoughts, feelings, concerns, and suggestions about corpus use in language pedagogy through interactive discussions at every step of training. Furthermore, it was noted that having access to corpus-based materials prepared by all participants was a substantial gain as the instructors might use context-specific teaching activities in their future practices. The following excerpt shows how this training fostered collaboration among the participants in this study:

T8: "Thanks to my colleagues, I learned a lot of things that I wouldn't have discovered myself. In this sense, it was fun. In each session, I felt like I was back in my undergraduate years. It was nice to communicate with others and discuss our ideas in groups…"

As T8 reported, collaboration among peers promoted their learning and contributed to their professional lives. In addition to the aforementioned gains, the participants acquired *hands-on experience in material preparation* (36 codes). The instructors reported that it was a valuable experience to get involved with the material preparation process despite the challenges they encountered. Preparing corpus-based activities enabled them to practice the knowledge and skills acquired during the training.

Benefits of Using Corpora in Language Teaching

The second main category included six sub-categories related to the benefits of using corpora in language teaching from the instructors' perspectives. The sub-categories regarding the benefits of using corpora in language teaching are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Distribution of Codes Related to the Benefits of Using Corpora in Language Learning

Sub-categories	Explanatory statements	*N**
Effectiveness in error correction	*"Students can see and analyze both their own mistakes and good forms of problematic structures."*	69
Usefulness in vocabulary instruction	*"Corpus can be useful in teaching confusing words."*	53
Helpful in accessing authentic/reference source	*"Corpus can be a good reference to find original sentences while preparing materials."*	53
Usefulness in teaching particular structures	*"Corpus can be used to show slight differences between some structures (i.e., despite and although)."*	27
Active participation of students	*"Corpus-based activity was like a puzzle for my students. Everyone had an active part in the activity."*	5
Other (s)	*"Students in ELT programs can benefit from corpora."*	5
Total		**212**

N*= Number of codes

Corpus use in language classrooms was regarded as beneficial due to its *effectiveness in error correction* (69 codes). Participants reported that corpus-based activities might work well in error correction since observing corpus data and identifying accurate uses of the language by themselves could raise students' awareness of their mistakes. The following excerpt exemplifies the instructors' views about the effectiveness of corpus use in error correction:

> T10: *"We have used COCA for different purposes, but I believe that one of the most effective functions is error correction. It is possible to use it easily for each level and I believe that I will try to use it to raise my students' awareness."*

As T10 stated above, corpus use for error correction was promising for future practices, and it might also apply to lower levels. Based on their hands-on experiences, the instructors reported that corpus-based activities on error correction engaged students in tasks as they made efforts to find their mistakes and their accurate versions.

The instructors had positive views on corpus use in language classrooms due to its *usefulness in vocabulary instruction* (53 codes). The participants acknowledged that corpora might be useful for teaching particular lexical items where students had difficulties, such as collocations, prefix-suffixes, the knowledge of parts of speech, and confusing words. The following excerpt illustrates the instructors' views about the usefulness of corpus in vocabulary instruction:

> T5: *"Especially, to teach confusing words, corpus provides plenty of original sentences in which students can see different uses of those words. By giving tasks in which students analyze the related concordance lines, we can make them aware of the uses of these words and how to differentiate them."*

As T5 noted, corpora might be exploited to introduce word combinations (i.e., collocations), the knowledge of parts of speech, near-synonyms, and confusing words with plentiful samples in various contexts rather than presenting them in isolation. Instructors' views on corpus use were positive due to its *helpfulness for accessing authentic/reference sources* (53 codes); that is, they could utilize corpora as reference tools to check the uses of the language, and they might take advantage of corpora to reach a vast amount of authentic data to design instructional materials. The following excerpt illuminates how corpora can help access to the authentic source:

> T6: *"It is an incredibly useful resource for teachers because we are not native speakers and we may not be sure about some uses of the language. So, the corpus can be used to improve our knowledge of the language and to bring reliable materials to the classroom."*

T6 stressed the potential use of corpus tools to observe and/or check accurate uses of the language in actual contexts when they felt uncertain about the use of the English language as non-native speakers of English. It was also noted that corpus might be exploited in preparing classroom materials and creating test items due to its easy accessibility to authentic samples of the language in various contexts. Another benefit of corpus use in language pedagogy was its *usefulness in teaching particular structures* (27 codes). The participants acknowledged that using corpus-based activities might be promising for teaching particular structures (e.g., used

to, gerund/infinitive, and despite/although). Moreover, using corpora in language pedagogy was considered advantageous as it increased *students' active participation* (5 codes) and contributed to some other matters, such as promoting autonomy and appropriateness for ELT students (5 codes).

Drawbacks of Using Corpora in Language Teaching

The final category consisted of five sub-categories regarding the drawbacks of using corpora in language teaching from the instructors' perspectives. The sub-categories are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5. Distribution of Codes Related to Drawbacks of Using Corpora

Sub-categories	Explanatory statements	*N**
Difficulties in material preparation	*"It was difficult and time-consuming to find appropriate concordance lines."*	58
Difficulties in students' interaction with corpora	*"Students are supposed to have a good level of English to use corpus independently."*	48
Impracticality with a low proficiency level	*"At lower levels, it is not practical to use corpus due to the challenges."*	44
Technical issues	*"It was a bit frustrating to go back to the main page and write the same word over and over again."*	34
Concerns about grammar instruction	*"I am not sure yet if using corpus for teaching grammar is efficient or not."*	27
Total		**211**

N*= Number of codes

One of the most frequent challenges the participants faced was the *difficulties in material preparation* (58 codes). For instance, scanning concordance lines to find appropriate ones for students' proficiency level and the teaching context was highly demanding. Another concern was the potential *difficulties in students' interaction with corpora* (48 codes). Owing to the nature of corpus data, students would have difficulties in analyzing a great number of concordance lines and making accurate inferences on their own. Hence, *impracticality with a low proficiency level* (44 codes) appeared as another sub-category of challenges. The instructors underlined that implementing corpus-based activities at lower levels (i.e., beginner and elementary) was impractical considering the time and effort required for material design. The following excerpts illuminate the potential difficulties in students' direct interaction with corpora.

> T2: *"I think it's difficult for students to use corpus on their own. As we talked in the last session, students might see some wrong usage of the language. It's extremely difficult to use with all students."*

> T4: *"I can use COCA to find examples in various contexts at higher levels, but at lower levels, I won't prefer to use COCA, particularly for grammar and the meanings of words because of the challenges in using COCA…The time spent is not equal to the product in the end."*

The instructors also faced some challenges related to *technical issues* (34 codes). Despite having positive attitudes towards COCA in the session, it allowed making a limited

number of corpora queries a day and showed constant warnings to upgrade the user version. Another problem expressed was the difficulties with the layout of materials since it was not so easy to align concordance lines in the Word file. The final sub-category about the drawbacks of using corpora in language teaching indicated some *concerns about grammar instruction* (27 codes). Despite its effectiveness in vocabulary instruction and error correction, the participants were skeptical about the usefulness of corpus-based activities in grammar teaching. The following excerpt shows instructors' concerns about grammar instruction:

> T9: *"Although you provided us with different types of sample tasks and tried to inspire us in this way, I still cannot convince myself that it's a good idea to use corpus in grammar lessons. I see that there are some ways to integrate corpus into a grammar lesson, but is it worth the time and effort spent for? I am not sure about it to be honest."*

As T9 stated, the participants had some doubts about the idea of integrating corpus into grammar instruction considering the great efforts made for material preparation. All in all, integrating corpus into language learning through a systematic training program delivered fruitful results in general albeit with certain difficulties.

Discussion

The results showed that in-service training on corpus use contributed to the instructors' professional development. That is, the participants acknowledged gaining awareness of corpora, becoming familiar with the pedagogical applications of corpora, and acquiring hands-on experiences in corpus-based material design. The instructors reported being able to take advantage of corpora in language classrooms in particular ways together with salient challenges and concerns about corpus use in language pedagogy.

As suggested in the relevant literature, this study implies the potential benefit of creating opportunities to train in-service teachers on the pedagogical uses of corpus tools in the classroom (e.g., Abdel Latif, 2021; Breyer, 2009; Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017; Farr, 2017; Lin, 2019; Zareva, 2017). In this respect, the results concur with previous studies which pointed out the importance of introducing pedagogical uses of corpora as part of in-service training to influence teachers' classroom practices (Chen et al., 2019; Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017; Leńko-Szymańska, 2017; Lin, 2019). Constant guidance and support offered in training sessions and hands-on experience provided during the training were prominent aspects of this study. These key features of the training in the present study support the results of previous research regarding the potential benefit of acquiring technical skills to use corpus tools comfortably and effectively (Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017; Frankenberg-Garcia, 2012; Leńko-Szymańska, 2014, 2017). In a similar vein to Özbay and Kayaoğlu's (2015) study in a Turkish EFL context, this study further highlighted the role and importance of guided training on the use of corpora in actual teaching contexts. One of the striking facets of the current study is that this training program created opportunities for the instructors to actively participate in the process of corpus-based material preparation and implement one of these activities in their teaching context. Concerning teachers' perceived gains from the training, providing the participants with sample materials/tasks, which were prepared specifically based on students' needs in the context of this study, might help the instructors illustrate how to apply corpus-based materials to their

classrooms. Similarly, Poole (2022) pointed out the importance of using corpus-based activities that were designed particularly for the objectives of relevant teaching contexts as teachers and students were required to follow course syllabuses and assignments. Hence, this study builds on the findings of the previous research and adds further light on the relevant literature by taking the needs and requirements of the teachers in their contexts and assisting them in implementing corpus-based materials and activities that reflect the realities of their classrooms.

Apart from teachers' perceived gains, the instructors' perceptions of corpus use in language pedagogy were mainly positive since using corpora as part of language teaching pedagogy was perceived as useful in multiple ways. Corpus-based activities were considered effective in correcting students' errors in writing papers at all language proficiency levels, and the participants noted that corpus use might raise students' awareness of their mistakes since they were actively involved in the process of analyzing data presented through corpora. As suggested in various studies (e.g., Crosthwaite, 2017; Mueller & Jacobsen, 2016; Quinn, 2015), the idea of integrating corpora into language classrooms for error correction was perceived as useful by the teachers. As for vocabulary instruction, this study revealed that teachers might tend to use corpora to introduce particular lexical items such as word combinations (i.e., collocations), confusing words, near-synonyms, and prefixes/suffixes as the instructors in this study perceived corpus use to be more useful and practical for such lexical items. This perception might be closely related to the fact that students are exposed to a great deal of data in which such lexical items occur and they observe patterns related to the language through corpus-based activities rather than learning the English equivalents of words in their mother tongue. Corpus use might raise students' awareness of identifying parts of speech as well. This insight the participants gained in the present study is in line with the findings of the meta-analysis by Lee et al. (2019) as it also suggests that using corpus-based activities can facilitate acquiring in-depth knowledge about lexical items. As reported by the instructors in this study, corpora might be exploited as reference tools when teachers have queries about the language. Since teachers have access to a vast number of examples of authentic language, they can benefit from corpora while preparing instructional materials. This finding highlights the potential benefits of corpora for EFL contexts; therefore, it might help to solve common problems such as preparing materials with authentic sources, and creating test items (Römer, 2009). As cited by the participants in this study, it can also be asserted that corpus-based activities have the potential to foster students' participation in lessons. When compared to conventional ways of teaching and learning, which are mainly based on teachers' explicit instruction and feedback, corpus-based activities involve students in a process that requires analyzing language data and identifying information about language use. Therefore, such activities encourage students to take part in the learning process actively (Lin & Lee, 2015). All in all, along with the potential benefits of corpora for language learners, this study revealed that implementing corpus-based activities in L2 classrooms has the potential to promote the self-development of teachers to become aware of the problems and solutions related to language learning and use at different levels.

Despite all the benefits, problems/challenges related to difficulties in material design, students' direct interaction with corpora, impracticality with lower levels, technical issues, and concerns about grammar instruction were noted as well. As reported by the participants,

rigorous time and effort were needed to design corpus-based activities. This finding echoed similar concerns stated previously in other studies (e.g., Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017; Lin, 2019). Another drawback of corpus use in language pedagogy was the potential difficulties that might occur in the case of students' interaction with corpora directly. Independent endeavors of corpus use require making accurate inferences about language patterns and having more autonomous and proficient language learners with a certain level of grammar and vocabulary knowledge. Hence, the classroom teacher's guidance and well-preparedness are necessary to present corpus use to language learners who are not familiar with such a pedagogical approach. Ebrahimi and Faghih (2017) also pointed out the skepticism about the applicability of students' direct interaction with corpus tools from the perspective of pre-service teachers.

In this respect, level appropriateness is another issue to consider when using corpus-based activities with lower-level students. Guiding students at lower levels might be hard since they have difficulty interpreting concordance lines despite the presence of the teacher. Such concerns related to the appropriateness of corpus-based activities for lower levels concur with the findings of studies in the relevant literature (e.g., Breyer, 2009; Heather & Helt, 2012). In a more recent study by Poole (2022), two instructors also stated the difficulty of using corpus due to students' lower language proficiency. As noted by the instructors in this study, concerning practicality and suitability, basic vocabulary and grammar knowledge at lower levels may be introduced through textbook activities, teacher-made exercises, and online dictionaries before students are ready to deal with corpus-induced materials.

In line with previous research (e.g., Breyer, 2009; Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017; Farr, 2008; Zareva, 2017), problems related to the use of technology are stressed in the present study. The participants in this study reported difficulties in using corpus tools and technology in general while designing the layout of corpus-based activities. Considering efficiency and practicality, the idea of integrating corpus into grammar instruction was not welcomed by some of the participants. These instructors asserted that using corpus-based activities might not result in substantial differences related to students' gains in learning grammatical structures, particularly at lower levels when compared to textbook materials. In one experimental study, Lin and Lee (2019) found that there were no significant differences regarding students' gains in learning target structures when compared to the traditional way of teaching grammar in the Taiwanese EFL context. However, the perceptions towards this new treatment were positive over time. With respect to grammar instruction, target structures selected for corpus-based activities can influence teachers' perceptions. The instructors who are teaching at lower levels may face challenges while selecting a grammar structure to adapt to corpus-based activities, especially at lower levels. Lin (2019, p.78) implied that the grammar structures that seem to be more "formulaic" might be better suited for the use of corpus. One reason for some teachers' reported difficulties with corpus tools specifically in grammar instruction might stem from the gaps in their technological knowledge. Such a gap brings forward questions about the problems that may arise from the detachment of the established and familiar teaching methodologies with the use of novel technologies such as the corpora. However, this requires further research and discussion and is not within the scope of the current study. As a result, this study underscores that along with the aforementioned difficulties, practitioners may need more hands-on

classroom practice to gain deeper insights into the feasibility of corpus-based activities in language teaching.

Conclusion

The findings of the study reported here highlight that there is certainly room for integrating corpora into language teaching. That is, teachers might use corpora as one of the teaching aids for classroom activities in teaching particular language items and/or skills. Although numerous gains were perceived in this study, teachers' preferences on the use of corpus-based activities might need to be considered regarding student profiles, learning outcomes, target items and/or structures, and the nature of teaching contexts. It is clearly seen that in-service training plays a vital role in raising teachers' awareness of corpora and equips them with practical skills to use corpus in language pedagogy. Therefore, efforts of meticulously designed training programs can assist in bringing corpus-based activities to actual teaching and learning contexts.

One implication of this study is that corpus use needs to be incorporated into pre-service teacher education programs to empower teacher candidates with the necessary knowledge and skills for their future practices. Another suggestion is that context-specific workshops or training programs might be designed to raise in-service teachers' awareness of the accessibility of corpus tools and how to make use of corpora in their own school contexts. It is highly important to provide constant support and sufficient guidance throughout training to ease teachers' concerns about new applications. Accordingly, teachers can be encouraged to work with their colleagues collaboratively to prepare and implement corpus-based activities. In this regard, teacher educators play a pivotal role in guiding teachers both at pre-service and in-service levels to utilize corpus tools and build a community among teachers that would establish stronger bonds in dealing with the challenges. To this end, teacher educators must become more familiar with corpus tools available for teachers to use in language teaching and learning activities. Considering teacher educators' contribution to teachers' practices in classrooms, teacher educators need to be trained on corpus-based language pedagogy along with all sides including benefits and challenges. This will not only promote the quality of teacher training programs but also will contribute to the quality of the teacher education which will enhance the implementation of corpus-based pedagogy with effective practices. In this way, teacher educators may provide comprehensive training programs to pre-service and in-service teachers that apply to actual teaching contexts. As for textbook writers, corpus-informed textbooks might be popularized to make teachers familiar with the information corpora would offer. Considering teachers' workload, ready-made materials published as activity books might promote the use of corpus-based activities. Apart from these, it is necessary to develop practical tools to facilitate the integration of corpus-based activities into language classrooms.

This study is limited to the views of the participants on their own hands-on practices related to using corpora in English language teaching. Hence, the results cannot be generalized to all EFL instructors. The training lasted for seven weeks, and teachers' corpus-based practices were limited for this period. Long-term studies involving more participants and more practice opportunities could have different results. Therefore, further studies that provide teachers with

training opportunities may be carried out to gain in-depth insights into EFL teachers' perceptions of pedagogical applications of corpora. There is also a need for further research that investigates the long-term influences of in-service training programs on teachers' classroom practices to explore the potential outcomes of using corpora in instructional routines.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview questions (prior to the training)

1. Are you familiar with the term "corpus"? If yes, how do you define it?

2. Do you know any corpora? If yes, which ones?

3. Have you ever used corpora? If yes, why? And how?

4. Do you think corpora can be used for English language teaching and learning purposes? If yes, how?

Appendix B: Sample materials/tasks used in the training
A sample task used in Session 2

Exercise A. Read the questions below and search them in COCA to find the answers.

---

1. a. Find the frequency of the lexical bundles below and put them in order (1-3).
(The lexical bundles below are commonly used in students' writing papers in our context.)

➤ In my opinion   _____
➤ I believe that   _____
➤ As far as I'm concerned   _____

1. b. Search the frequency of each lexical bundle below by genre and put them in order (1-5).

In my opinion	*As far as I' m concerned*	*I believe that*
Academic _____	*Academic* _____	*Academic* _____
Fiction _____	*Fiction* _____	*Fiction* _____
Magazine _____	*Magazine* _____	*Magazine* _____
Newspaper _____	*Newspaper* _____	*Newspaper* _____
Spoken _____	*Spoken* _____	*Spoken* _____

2. Follow the instruction below and find the top three nouns collocate with the word "*record*".

- Insert "POS" (noun.all) and search for the results. Write them below.
  ➤ _____ record
  ➤ _____ record
  ➤ _____ record

3. Follow the steps below and compare the words "*say*" and "*tell*" to find what nouns collocate with them.

- Choose "COMPARE".
- Write the word "*say*" as word 1 and write the word "*tell*" as word 2.
- Insert "POS" (noun.all) in the blank "collocates".
- Limit your search to the first word on the right.
- Examine the nouns in the top 20 list and write five of them below.

➤ Say _____
➤ Tell _____

Sample tasks used in Session 3

Exercise A. Read the questions below and search them in COCA to find the answers.

1) question/ wonder
➤ Search for Question*
  ➤ Find two different concordance lines in which the word is used in a different part of speech (e.g., as a noun and as a verb).
  ➤ Identify the part of speech in each concordance line that you have found.
  • In the 1st concordance line, the word _____ is a/an _____.
  • In the 2nd concordance line the word _____ is a/an _____.
➤ Search for Wonder*
  ➤ Find two different concordance lines in which the word is used in a different part of speech (e.g., as a noun and as a verb).
  ➤ Write down the sentences in which the words appear.

  _____
  _____

  ➤ Generally, the word (as a verb) *wonder* takes the preposition: _____

Exercise A. Analyze the concordance lines below and answer the questions below.

➤ *Circle the correct word. __Job or work?__*

1. …there are also more fundamental issues related to incomes and **job/work** opportunities that split California into a two-speed economy.
2. …said he was troubled by the damage. " I would not **job/work** with them after that, " he said. " I would not refer…
3. …health insurance and rent. I saw two options. Get a **job/work** return my advance and abandon two years' worth of work…
4. …told an unnamed colleague she feared she would lose her **job/work** if she reported the incident. Another unnamed person reported Moulton…
5. …at his home to discuss why he was late to **job/work**, the station reported. The victim told the sheriff's office…
6. …grown-up, he said. He's been doing a lot of **job/work** around the house, finishing the kitchen project his dad started.

➤ Write the part of speech of the target words above.
  _____
  _____

➤ Look at the lines above. Which word can be used in plural? _____

Exercise A. Analyze the concordance lines below and answer the following questions. They will help you find patterns either in the left or right context (KWIC).

...less likely . We 'd heard a lot of rumor and gossip about Juliet, but we 'd heard nothing about Pauline , and...

...and their topics of conversation were limited to TV dramas and gossip about their children 's teachers , so she ...

...'s brother - married Hamlet 's mother . There is much gossip about these events , and Hamlet is very upset .

...did gossip about us , and I knew that I 'd gossip about us if I were someone else . For a brief moment...

...younger, but also now, dealing with a lot of gossip and rumors about your life, and how have you coped with...

...got down to work . Raymie is a geyser of gossip and hard news, a Wife of Bath ; she knows people...

Her extramarital antics were a source of gossip and shame that affected the entire George family...

What were they thinking? It is what make gossip and what makes afternoon and evening TV work, "he said...

...novels . She was never sneaky , for she openly gathered gossip and you could see her editing it in advance with a little

...if you have enough money. TAIBBI: (Voiceover)The Hamptons gossip columnist, who calls himself " Sudsy , " says he did...

...him for a handshake or an autograph. For a local gossip columnist he puts down his Diet Coke and poses for a...

...There they are, smiling and waving, posing with a gossip columnist from - I don't know -Paraguay. Occasionally ,...

...places to juggle, a few bruised were inevitable –setting gossip columns abuzz with rumors of supposed slights and rebuffs.

...a celebrity executive - one whose name frequently shows up in gossip columns. Gossip also is paying off handsomely for his ...

...to 36-year-old supermodel Christina Estrada. It is the stuff of gossip columns. #Lately, he 's been a busy sprite ,...

...his profession and the wife could be unafraid of whispered gossip in the market. # By the end of 157, an...

...I 'll save you a program and tell you all the gossip in the morning. " " Oh, I do wish I...

...to journalism. So closely was Winchell identified with gossip in the late twenties and thirties that many readers thought it...

...to admire their mistresses' long legs in short tutus. Gossip in the dressing room usually centered on ballerinas who had...

...faces to the warming sun." To an Italian, gossip is second only to religion in order of importance. The better...

...while trading voluminous amounts of news and gossip was one of the wonders of ' modern physiology. Yet it...

...hat she would bring a sizable dowry, which meant the gossip was as wrong as always . " Francis ! " Arising...

1. Look at the concordance lines above. Is gossip a verb or noun? Which one is more frequently used in this body of data?

_____

2. Look at the right context of the word. Which preposition is commonly used with "*gossip*"?

_____

3. Look at the right context of the word. When is it used with the preposition "*in*"?

_____

4. Which job collocates with the word "*gossip*"?

_____

5. Look at the data. Which nouns frequently collocate with the word "*gossip*"?

_____

6. In what kind of texts/sections do you think you are more likely to find the word "*gossip*"? Put them in order from the most frequent to the least one.

Academic	
Fiction	
Magazine	
Newspaper	
Spoken	

Session 4

A sample corpus-based activity on vocabulary by one of the participants (T5).

Task 1

1. -ous

. " But at the same time we have to be	cautious	about what companies we invest in . " # Analysts say more
'd stored . But it was n't himself that he was	curious	about [] it was her thoughts , her feelings . # And
4 sons and requested them to give a part of their	pious	acts for redeeming Yayati . I also offered half of my accumulated
Page 1 Times story by Judith Miller and Michael Gordon cites	anonymous	administration official saying Saddam has repeatedly tried to
this testing , 400,000 or so tests which cost us an	enormous	amount [] four hundred to four hundred and fifty actually HIV
7 RF : The show was wonderful in Washington , very	ambitious	and beautifully installed . They worked a long time on it ,

2. -ity

ho ! " There was some laughter and a stir of	curiosity	about our little craft as it drew closer . # I wondered
workers had become exhausted , cynical , and divided . Most	security	analysts have been slow to understand this reality and have
of attitude and sensibility , allowing for a focus on internal	identity	and a shifting , complex worldview . # John 's explication of his
criticism from its normative bounds and as an antidote to the	aridity	and affective repression represented by High Theory (Tompkins
, Thompson 's account seeks to preserve the validity of	subjectivity	and agency as features or products of ' I '-making .

3. -ion

has enabled the CPPD to portray itself as the force for	democratization	and the Right as the obstacle in its path -- thereby maintaining
narrative . The assessment worker needs the information for the	investigation	and to decide on placement . " Once a report has been
a hotel ; complete with spaceplane service from dirtside to the	station	and travel via private LTV and landing module to his own field
his father always told him the mining game was a risky	proposition	and urged him to go into teaching . It is a lesson
belt across the width of the continent and in a southeastern	region	around northern Tanzania . Using a computer simulation to

4. -ful

wrote in his memoirs that his young assistant * did a	masterful	job [] disclosing the whole anatomy of Wall Street chicanery and
# Henningsen turned towards the exit not noticing the look the	beautiful	lady in black sent him from the tomb opposite that of his
age . # What Sunny Jim 's creation needed was another	forceful	leader who could turn the 1989 earthquake to City Hall 's
Gulf Coast from Los Angeles two years ago seeking a more	peaceful	life and now finds his beachside cottage 200 yards from an
by being provided artificial opportunities to disclose their	stressful	life experiences [] as found previously in samples of male

Analyze the concordance lines above and find out which suffixes form words as **NOUN**s or **ADJECTIVE**s.

Suffix	Part of Speech (N or Adj)	Suffix	Part of Speech (N or Adj)
-ous		-ion	
-ity		-ful	

A sample task used in Session 5

Exercise A. Analyze the concordance lines below and circle the correct option.

...the eastern shores of the Adriatic Sea, the city has been an important seaport **since** the Middle Ages. 44 In 1992, when Yugoslavia...

...to Koistinen in recent times. Indeed, it has been more than a decade **since** it was last cited in a case. See Marine Solution Servs., Inc. v...

...of assisted passage by Australia Finnish immigration petered out in the early 1970's. **Since** then it has mostly been professionals of...

...has instituted major revisions to the process (Steinzor et al, 2009). **Since** 2004, revisions to the IRIS process have given peer reviewers...

Ecorse has experienced an enduring economic decline **since** World War II. As one of Detroit's industrial, inner-ring suburbs, Ecorse...

...she said. # Layney has been in Scouting **since** the first grade, and is the daughter of Rick and Nancy Duncan of Little...

...is doing well at school, mostly. She has known how to read ever **since** she was three. Frances loves to read but struggles to speak, or to...

...to battle the kind of special interest legislation that the Court has tolerated **for** more than forty years. In short, the Supreme Court...

...times. I think there's great respect. We've been friends **for** a long time. # " When he was here at Tulsa, we played them over...

...caught his arm. " My god, I haven't seen you **for** ages. " # Without pausing in his cleaning, keenly aware of the security camera...

...but you have not forgotten what you have done **for** many years and for many hours every week using an instrument...

...They're from Holland, Michigan. They've been married **for** three years. She's a teacher on school break. AL ROKER: And couple...

...husband was taking a professional risk. Now that you've been there **for** six months and people are well aware of your presence there...

1. Which tense is used with *since/for* in the given examples above?

_____

2. We use *since* ...

      a. to talk about a period of time (how long)

      b. to talk about a point in time (when something started)

3. We use *for* ...

      a. to talk about a period of time (how long)

      b. to talk about a point in time (when something started)

Session 6

A sample corpus-based activity on grammar by one of the participants (T9).

EXERCISE A: Analyze the concordance lines below and answer the following questions.

18465	How much	adventure can a ski boot handle ? We explored the possibilities
13117	How much	protection are you really getting? Not much . (Fully 42%
of the total party sales . RAZ : So ,	how much	money did you raise? Ms-NEEDHAM : We raised $450 that weekend
to get the money - economy moving quickly ? And	how much	money do you spend on the long-term aspects of rebuilding an
so much for being with us this morning . So	how much	truth do you think there is to some of the comments in

with a glittering eye . And I say , '	How many	hours a day do you work ? ' And he says ,
his eyes . This fellow was smooth . # "	How many	tickets does Blaine need to sell ? " he asked . The
lot more intense , I believe . ZAHN : And	how many	questions are you getting peppered with from -- from many of your
it ? He also asks her ... UNIDENTIFIED MALE :	How many	rounds can you last? UNIDENTIFIED FEMALE : I dont know.
a courier ? Woman 2 : Yes . GOLDBERG :	How many	trips did you make for the Nigerians ? Woman 2 : Just

1. Which one do we use with uncountable nouns; **how many** or **how much**?
2. Which one do we use with countable nouns; **how many** or **how much**?
3. With how many, do we use the **plural form** or **singular form** of countable nouns?
4. When we ask questions by using "how many/ how much", the word order is

      _____

A sample task used in Session 7

Exercise A. Look at the concordance lines retrieved from COCA. Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

1.

...looking for someone to oversee or keep an eye on her **because** we're all making the film.' That guy Bobby...

...he can't drink coffee for a quick jolt during the game **because** it might affect his stomach, so he has turned to...

...what makes this category fun and useful. **Because** it weighs less than half a pound, you don't have to...

...for gathering accurate polling information, in large part **because** anyone can read your tweet and reply to it.

...a credit, Philadelphia can minimize its loss of revenue **because** the credit will only be applicable when a...

It is necessary for some websites. Because some people can share illegal content on social media.

_____

2.

...when politicians -- presidential candidates **go abroad**, they have meetings with local leaders...

....to get out fast # If you simply can't wait to **go abroad**, look into jobs that will take you out of the country...

...mainly to learn English, since they planned to **go abroad** for professional school or graduate work.

... students stayed at their countries and did not **go abroad**, they would not be able to have...

...our growing economy, it is now easy for us to **go abroad** for studies or work, thereby making it possible for us...

You can improve your English when you go to abroad.

_____

3.

...social historian would choose to scale twice. **This connects** to a dilemma for any movie lover -- the choice about

...researcher for TACC and lead author on the paper. "**This gives** radiologists and other clinical staff the means to....

...real dog's life in danger while filming the movie. **This comes** from TMZ (via Consequence Of Sound), ...

...to rotate the rocket between 120 and 180 degrees. **This aims** the rocket toward the drone ship. The booster is....

... for about 15 minutes on low to medium heat. **This relaxes** the fabric and releases odors. # Prevent wrinkles....

This cause air pollution.

_____

4.

...through photographs and text children are shown how to **do experiments** that explore different kinds of energy.

...to remove negative ideas from the brain. We've **done experiments** on monkeys, but never on humans.

....using our oceans in the Gulf of Mexico for that. We're **doing experiments** there now, research. There's so much but all

...take all the safety precautions?... # " If you're going to **do experiments**, fine. But don't allow people to live in and

Scientists shouldn't make experiments on animals.

_____

Session 8
A sample corpus-based activity on error correction for intermediate level (T2).

Look at the concordance lines retrieved from COCA. Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

1. What is the part of speech of "affect"? _____

   What is the part of speech of "effect"? _____

   It is clear that it effects relations badly.

   _____

...........how the confirmation of Betsy DeVos as education secretary might **affect students** and teachers across the country..............
..................the generalization passage did not **affect students'** reading of high-frequency words. There.....
.... with regard to understanding when and how learning disabilities **affect students'** academic performance and overall social behavior. Moreover,.................
These time variables are proxies for the net **effect of** all the economic factors that create..........
.............it does have a clear negative **effect on** the management fee load. Hence, the ....
........of young adults, consistent with the negative **effect on** childhood mathematical achievement.....

A sample corpus-based activity on error correction for elementary level (T10).

Part A. Look at the concordance lines retrieve from COCa. Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

...those men have to go home and **do their homework** and talk about what attacks could happen...
... on the bus and I use the time to **do my homework** and read. Mostly boks about ...
... this would be the first time I didn't **do my homework**! # That night at dinner, I bring up...

   I make my homework every day at 7 pm.

   _____

... " I'll take care of Jane Doe. You **go home** and get some sleep. Save some up for after...
... the night. If the weather improves, you can **go home** in the morning. " # Priscilla...
... , do you? # " Come on, Dad, let's **go home**, " Leland said. # Sherm shook his head. " Not until...

   My lesson finishes at 4 in the evening and I go to home.

   _____

A sample task used in Session 8

➢ Design a corpus-based material for the level you're teaching in one of the areas covered in the sessions. Take notes based on the following elements.
- Language proficiency level

  _____

- Aim of the activity

  _____

- Target lexical items/ structures / error correction

  _____

- Genre *(If any, e.g. spoken, academic, newspapers, etc.)*

  _____

- Activity type *(e.g. gap filling, multiple choice, open-ended, etc.)*

  _____

- Activity format *(printout materials vs. computer based version)*

➢ Implement the material you've prepared in the classroom *(If applicable, you can use one of the materials you prepared in the previous sessions).*

Appendix C: Follow-up interview questions

Gamze ÇALIŞKAN & Safiye İpek KURU GÖNEN

1. What do you think about workshop sessions?

2. What do you think about COCA as the tool?

3. Do you think that teachers and/or learners may profit from corpus data for language teaching and learning? If yes, for which language areas and how?

4. In the future, would you consider consulting any corpora for language teaching? If yes, how would you use it?

Research Article

Content-Based Instruction in the Preparatory Program of an English-Medium University: Reflections & Practices

Elif Kemaloglu-Er *

	ABSTRACT In English preparatory programs of English medium instruction (EMI) universities, it is significant to give content-based instruction to students related to their majors. By doing so, students can both improve in English and increase their knowledge and experience in their field of study and become more prepared for their future studies. On the other hand, it is not so common in the tertiary-level English preparatory programs in Türkiye to arrange curricula related to students' majors. This study aims to integrate translation-related training and practices into the preparatory program of Translation and Interpreting major students studying at an English-medium university through a project-based framework and test the perceived effectiveness of these applications through students' reflection papers and translation outcomes. The data analyzed by qualitative content analysis show that integrating meaningful and purposeful content related to the students' majors into English preparatory programs may lead to a productive process serving students' needs.

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Introduction

Content-based instruction (CBI) presents an approach where students acquire the target language via content. In CBI, students are in a continuous learning and self-improvement process and they acquire the presented content by improving their academic language skills. As stated by Richards and Rodgers (2001), "Content-based instruction refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus" (p. 204). Content corresponds to the subject matter that addresses the needs and interests of learners (Brinton, 2003). According to Snow (2001), when CBI is concerned, content does not only refer to the subject matter but also the use of the subject matter for language teaching purposes. The forms of subject matter may involve different themes and topics about daily life or they may be very specific, such as the subjects in the curriculum of a specific class or major. Grabe and Stoller (1997) highlight the complementation of content and language in CBI and state that language acts as a medium for learning content and content as a source for learning language in this approach.

Several characteristics make CBI a distinctive approach to language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Stoller, 2002, 2004). In CBI, it is stressed that language learning is beyond the formation of sentences, and it is the knowledge to be conveyed that reveals the nature of language to be acquired. It is also pointed out that a second language is learned more successfully when it is used as a means of receiving information, rather than as an end in itself. CBI also has the potential to contribute to language improvement in the way that it emphasizes the use of integrated skills as in the real world. In CBI, language use is intended to be meaningful and purposeful since language is learned or taught for a particular purpose owing to the expectations or needs of learners as the content is selected in concordance with students' lives, interests, and/or academic goals. CBI also underlines authenticity since the texts and tasks utilized in CBI are often the products of the real world. Thus, CBI links the outer world with the classroom and introduces learners to the subtleties of the target language and culture and helps them not only develop linguistic abilities but also expand their world knowledge.

Snow (2001) argues that CBI is generally oriented to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and the fundamental instructional objective is to prepare students for the academic content and tasks they will face at school or university. Particularly theme-based model of CBI, in which the syllabus is arranged around themes or topics, is stated to be applied in academic contexts, and with this model, it is maintained that a useful amount of input is provided and language is practised with academic skills integration (Brinton, 2003; Stryker & Leaver, 1997).

It is also a fact that the context of the study is an English-medium instruction (EMI) university. EMI can be defined as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects other than English itself in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (Macaro, 2018, p. 19). There may not be a language focus in the definitions of EMI, but at the level of expectations, particularly on

the side of students, there may be demands to learn both content and English at the same time (Galloway & Ruegg, 2020). At EMI universities, English preparatory programs could serve a highly significant purpose in this sense as they are expected to well-equip learners with such a form of focus on both language and content.

Studies on the Integration of CBI into Preparatory Programs

There are few studies on CBI integration in the tertiary-level preparatory programs and they focus on the needs analysis for CBI or the stakeholders' views about the program. Canbay (2009) explored the Academic English requirements of English-medium departments at a Turkish state university based on the opinions of content area teachers and department heads. The results showed that "reading" was the most required skill among different disciplines and the ranking of other skills changed from department to department. Arslan and Saka (2010) also researched the language needs of a preparatory program where the theme-based model of CBI was applied in order to teach academic English language skills. The majority of students stated that they needed to learn English for academic reasons to follow future courses taught in English. The views of the students who studied science-related thematic units were also explored in the same study and they were found to be satisfied with their curriculum governed by CBI.

Er (2011) investigated foreign language instructors' perceptions of CBI applied in the preparatory school of a Turkish state university. The findings of the study showed that most of the language instructors regarded CBI as a feasible way of preparing students for their further academic studies. It was believed that the application of CBI in the preparatory program would make the program meaningful and purposeful, bridge the educational gap between the preparatory school and degree programs, develop students' critical thinking skills, and increase their learning motivation. The challenges included the difficulty of getting prepared for a content-based language class and the inaccessibility of appropriate published materials.

Filiz (2019) focused on the perceptions of students and instructors on elective theme-based courses embedded in an English preparatory program at a state university in Türkiye. According to the results, students said they have positive perceptions towards these courses as long as they are allowed to choose the content in which they are interested. They also stated that it is significant to have interesting content in their courses and that instructors' interest in the content of the course also influences the motivation of students to learn. Herein, it is necessary to note that CBI can be applied in the form of translation training and practices as performed in this study and the following section highlights the importance of incorporating translation into academic English programs.

Integrating Translation into Academic English Programs

Translation is an activity commonly performed in the real world to connect people and cultures all over the globe. Translation can also be used as a beneficial pedagogical implementation in L2 learning. Translation for pedagogical purposes or "pedagogical translation" assumes an instrumental role as a means to upgrade the language learner's foreign language proficiency (Klaudy, 2003). In this context, translation is an act of

awareness-raising as well as language-practicing. Translation helps learners broaden their vocabulary and grammar repertoire as well as increase their general knowledge. It makes them cognizant of sociocultural aspects and multiple meanings of words and phrases, raises awareness of the coherence and contextualization of texts, aids in testing whether a text has been completely comprehended and reinforces reading, listening, writing, and speaking as well as analytical and critical thinking skills (Auberbach, 1993; Calis & Dikilitas, 2012).

Translation can be an efficient tool for L2 learners to comparatively and profoundly analyze the source and the target languages and find out the in-depth meanings conveyed through texts and people and individually and collectively reflect on them (Cook, 2010; Pym, 2018; Widdowson, 2016). The translation is a communicative activity that necessitates speculation, discussion, expression, and negotiation of meaning and with the act of translation, the teacher can help learners analyse the links and usages in their L1 and deal with the hardships they have in L2 learning and communication via comparative analyses, and raise awareness of the themes and topics in the texts presented (Malmkjaer, 1998). Schäffner (1998) points out that translation could be a useful means in foreign language learning to develop verbal agility, i.e., being able to choose the correct words and phrases appropriate for the context via relatively quick and right decisions, consolidate students' vocabulary, strengthen the use of L2 structures, monitor and improve the comprehension of L2, and raise awareness of how languages work. As revealed by Canga-Alonso and Rubio-Goitia (2016), translation aids second language acquisition because it utilizes authentic materials, is interactive and learner-centered, and with its autonomy-based features, makes learners active participants responsible for their own learning.

Integration of CBI in the form of pedagogical translation addressing the needs of Translation and Interpreting major students in the English preparatory programs of universities is not an implemented act to the best of the researcher's knowledge and this study serves the first of its kind as an in-depth analysis of a translation-oriented CBI implementation in the English preparatory program of Translation and Interpreting students studying at an English-medium state university in Türkiye. In this descriptive case study, the reflection papers of the students about this CBI-based process in their preparatory class and their related products, i.e., translations, were analyzed to explore the perceived effectiveness of integrating CBI into the preparatory class program. The study addresses the following questions:

1. What are the benefits of integrating CBI into the preparatory program according to the students?

2. a) What are the challenges of integrating CBI into the preparatory program according to the students?

   b) What solutions do the students suggest to cope with the challenges?

3. What do the translation products of the students reveal about the overall effectiveness of the CBI program?

Methodology

Research Design

This is a descriptive case study conducted about a CBI-integrated learning process in an English preparatory class at an English-medium state university. A descriptive case study seeks to describe a case or an issue together with its contextualization through in-depth analysis (Yin, 2003). Stake (2005) indicates the case is a system with boundaries, and with certain features inside those boundaries, and the work of the researcher is to identify the coherence and sequence of the constructs of the case as patterns. In this descriptive case study, the case is the integration of CBI into an English preparatory program at an EMI university. Through intense thematic analyses and thick descriptions, the study aims to provide an in-depth and multifaceted understanding of this case based on the students' views regarding the benefits and challenges of CBI integration as well as their CBI-related implementations.

Setting

The setting is an English preparatory class at an English-medium state university in Adana, Türkiye. In this prep class, the major of all the students is Translation and Interpreting. It was told by the administrators that in the setting, a class specific to Translation and Interpreting students was designated because Translation and Interpreting was the only English major program of the university, and since the university attached importance to high-quality English education and since they are English major students, they were deemed to need a more intense form of education intended to address high proficiency learners. The curriculum of the class aims to improve the students' linguistic and academic skills in English before they start their majors. The students who cannot pass the English proficiency exam of the university are obliged to have an English language education in the pertinent English preparatory class. The English level of the class is accepted to be intermediate (B1) by the institution at the beginning of the academic year and the target level is upper-intermediate (C1). There are four courses in the program: Main Course, Grammar, Reading and Writing, and Listening and Speaking. CBI-integrated language learning was applied in the Main Course. In the Main Course, in addition to coursebook studies, the class was exposed to a CBI-based learning model specifically designed by the researcher in accordance with the students' needs as elaborated below.

Design of the CBI-Based Process

Since the major of all the students in the target setting was Translation and Interpreting, it was decided that it would be feasible to apply CBI in the form of translation training and practices. With this objective, translation was integrated into a project-based learning framework already applied in the context and the content of each translation was determined by the projects the students were expected to do in the setting. The project framework in this setting is also elaborated in Kemaloglu-Er (2022a, 2022b) and was overall perceived to be an effective pedagogical means in foreign language learning.

Within their project process, the students were expected to follow the following steps: Research, translation, creativity, and interaction. That is, first, they were asked to do research on the given project topic and then make translations on it together with reflection practices as will be elaborated below. After this step, they were asked to interact with their peers and people around them regarding the project topic and as a result of the research and in-depth analyses on the topic via reading and translations as well as personal interactions, they were asked to produce a creative project outcome of their own (like an informative poster) and display their project outcome and talk about their project process to the class via an oral presentation.

The translation-related CBI process took place in a tripartite flow. First, the students were given training about the concept of translation and the ways to make effective translations with main translation strategies including word-for-word and sense-for-sense translation with examples. Then they were asked to choose two 300-word informative texts (preferably from the research data of their projects). One translation was expected to be made from English into Turkish and the other from Turkish into English. It was demanded that the pieces summarize the subject well and be written professionally. After the texts were approved by their teacher, they made translations of the texts asking their teacher for guidance when needed. Third, they wrote a reflection paper about their translation process focusing on i) their opinions about the integration of major-related content into their preparatory program (benefits, challenges, suggestions to cope with the challenges and overall effectiveness of such integration) as well as ii) their strengths and challenges in the translations they performed and iii) the ways they found to cope with the challenges they mentioned. After this, they submitted their translations and reflection papers to their teacher and received both written and oral feedback about them. Each cycle of the translation-related CBI process took place in different projects so the students were all exposed to different texts related to different topics including psychology, sociology, philosophy, education, arts, media, tourism, history, and architecture, and did reading, speaking, and writing activities regarding their projects as well as translation. Thus, translation was practiced as an integrated skills activity within a theme-based model. The whole process was supervised by the Main Course teacher of the class, who is also the researcher of the current study. She received her BA in Translation and Interpreting, and MA and Ph.D. in English Language Teaching had twenty-one years of English teaching experience and was working as an instructor of English and taught preparatory classes and translation-related departmental courses within the research setting at the time of the study.

Participants

The sampling method used in this study is purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is employed when a researcher chooses particular people within the population or the entire population to use for a particular study that would yield the richest information as would be possible in a case study (Merriam, 2009). It is based "on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned" (Merriam, 2009, p. 77). To this end, the

entire population who experienced the pertinent CBI-based program as preparatory class students participated in the study.

The participants were 30 preparatory class students. The major of all the students was Translation and Interpreting. The students were between 18-22 years old. 21 of them were female and 9 of them were male. The students' level of English proficiency was determined to be intermediate (B1) at the beginning of the academic year. As the whole data were collected towards the end of the academic year, the students' assumed level of English proficiency at the time of the study could be stated to be upper-intermediate (C1).

Data Collection

The data were collected by the translations that the students made and reflection papers the students wrote about their translation process. The reflection papers were used as data for CBI-related reflections and translations were utilized as data for CBI-related practices. There were two sets of translation and reflection papers collected and each task was done in pairs or groups of three. In the end, 52 products were collected in total, 26 translations, and 26 reflection papers.

Data Analysis

The data were analysed through qualitative content analysis. In qualitative content analysis, data are presented in words and themes, which makes it possible to draw some interpretation of the results (Bengtsson, 2016). In this respect, the research has revealed both *a manifest analysis* and *a latent analysis.* In the manifest analysis, the researcher described *what* the informants said, stayed very close to the texts, used the words themselves, and described the visible in the text. In the latent analysis, the exploration was extended to an interpretive level in which the researcher sought to find the underlying meanings of the text (Berg, 2001). The content was also analyzed through thematic analyses (Patton, 2002). That is, all the components related to the investigated goals, namely benefits, challenges, and solutions, were iteratively analyzed, and through in-depth reading and detailed coding, the findings were meticulously classified under relevant themes and subthemes. Both qualitative content and thematic analysis were combined to pave the way for in-depth analyses and rich documentation and ensure the validity and trustworthiness of the study.

Ethical Procedures

Before the study was carried out, the authorization of the Committee of Scientific Research Ethics in the institution was sought and granted. The participants were informed about the study and their roles and rights. The consent of the participants was received via consent forms, followed by the administration of data collection tools.

Results

CBI-Based Learning Process: Reflections

Benefits

The reflection papers that the students wrote about their CBI process revealed their overall satisfaction with doing real-life activities related to their majors. A majority of students said they dealt with the concept and act of translation for the first time and thought that through translation training and actual translation and reflection practices, they felt they got prepared for education in their majors and this was said to give them a sense of importance, a sense of professionalism and a sense of belonging to their departments and their university. Below are sample excerpts for these findings and in all the excerpts in this section, pseudonyms are used to refer to the participants.

> Ali: Through translation practices, I felt like I was in my major doing very important things.
>
> Kaan: Translation gave me a feeling of professionalism. I would never think of activities related to my major in the preparatory program. But now I am like a translation major student receiving feedback from his professor.
>
> Arzu: I feel I belong to my department as I translate more and more.

Some students pointed out that through translation training, actual translation practices, and translation analyses with their teacher, they broke out the routine of English learning via coursebooks, and their education got more meaningful. Some added that they felt they were receiving a high level of English education at the tertiary level and experienced a sense of quality in their context.

> Hazal: We were always doing coursebook studies, I felt like I was in high school, but now we are intensely dealing with translations and it is something cool, something that raises the level.
>
> Deniz: Doing translation studies gave me a feeling of quality. I think it is worth having this preparatory education.

A majority of students also mentioned linguistic benefits. Firstly, there was a considerable improvement stated to be recorded in grammar and vocabulary knowledge. The students said doing mechanical exercises to improve one's vocabulary and grammar would not be effective in language improvement; the important thing is using the language. And since, in translation, both languages are used comparatively there is a lot of investigation about what to use and how this was said to give them an in-depth understanding of several structures and their use and meanings. As for vocabulary, the participants thought via translation, they had a broader understanding of the meanings of words and phrases since while trying to find the exact equivalence, they had to check many sources and items. Also, as the attempt to give a similar effect to the target audience through words, phrases, and structures required a great deal of meaning analysis, this deepened their knowledge about not only the main meanings but also connotations.

> Merve: There is a great deal of investigation and thinking in translation. It requires being knowledgeable about many things, and many meanings. I checked so many sources for just one meaning, it improves your English, and your vocabulary.
>
> Ceren: I feel like I am investigating and finding out the language used in the real world, especially in Turkish-English translations.

There was also a great change in the understanding of the concept of translation among students. They said until then they thought of translation as a straightforward process of replacing words and phrases with exact matches given in dictionaries. However, through translation practices, they understood how complex the process was with multiple equivalence-oriented implementations, particularly those regarding words and phrases with profound and subtle meanings and culture-specific expressions. They also became knowledgeable about several techniques specifically paraphrasing and/or explanations through footnotes while making translations and understood the importance of the elaboration of meaning for the comprehension of the target audience.

> Ekin: Culture, culture and culture. Translation is a whole culture. It opens up new paths and you must know several techniques to connect the cultures.

Translation was also said to increase content knowledge. The participants said translation enables you to understand the issue/s being conveyed more profoundly and this increases the general knowledge of the person dealing with the source text and the target text. They added that at vague points, the translator is expected to do more research and this even adds more to his/her general knowledge since more sources would be investigated.

> Anıl: I have felt that a translator should be a well-equipped person. There are millions of subjects and texts and you are expected to reveal them as they are in another language.

Adding major-related content into the preparatory program was also said to increase learning motivation. The students stated that doing General English practices with coursebooks and worksheets is often likely to decrease their motivation to learn and improve English. Instead of this, performing major-related work and activities made their learning meaningful and purposeful and gave them a goal to fulfill and a willingness to upgrade their English.

> Zeynep: When I make translations, I feel highly motivated. It gives me a sense of satisfaction like I am working in a company or a translation office and I am doing translations for them.

> Yeliz: The prep year should be a place to improve your English with challenging occupations. It shouldn't be just 'speak and pass'. Translation makes you feel this competence.

There were also non-linguistic gains of the students reported as a result of CBI-based instruction. According to the students, CBI-based instruction with translations required a lot of effort. They said they became more patient and more disciplined with CBI-related work. They also stated that they had to manage their time and stress effectively since there were multiple drafts and deadlines.

> Ufuk: Translations gave me a purpose and made me more disciplined.

> Sibel: You should learn to be patient in translation. It is like weaving a carpet step by step. It is like a lace.

Challenges and Suggested Solutions

Regarding challenges, the first challenge the students mentioned was a lack of experience in translation. As they said, the only translation practices they conducted belonged to the multiple-choice question practices they did in high school for the university entrance exam where they were expected to find the exact translation

equivalences for the given statements from among the presented alternatives. These translations were mechanically oriented at verbatim translations of every item in the statements and had no space for personal or cultural interpretations. But now in this study, the students were asked to make translations with not only a focus on accuracy but also a focus on meaning providing space for individual interpretations and fluent and natural ways of expression in the target language. This was something they found not only novel and exciting but also challenging since they had no similar experience so were not always sure whether the alternatives, they suggested were appropriate. However, through their intense investigations about the equivalences and their teacher's help, and via the comments of their peers and the people around them whose professions and/or interests are related to the given topic, they said they managed to make decisions that sounded right and acceptable.

> İnci: This was my first professional translation experience. I had almost no idea about what translation really meant before. And it is a fact that translation is a complex job. You don't only find the equivalences, you put your signature on them.
>
> Serkan: When I started the first text, I thought the process was so hard, but little by little, I got more comfortable with my teacher's motivation and help.
>
> Yeşim: We did the translation with my partner and we really encouraged and supported each other. When I found an equivalence, I read it to my partner and when my partner found an equivalence, she read it to me. We progressed like this. This was purely a collaborative work.

In specific terms, the students mentioned challenges inherent to the process of translation including searching for correct equivalences, dealing with culture-specific expressions, conveying the sense of the text through personal interpretations, and supplying the naturality in tone, and concluded that translation is a challenging task with various sub-tasks.

> Mehmet: I thought the translation was simply exchanging the words with the others, but I saw that it is not easy. There are a lot of searches, lots of meanings, and the reader factor. You are like a bridge opening cultures to each other. You are not a robot. You tactfully play with words. You are visible in this bridge.

Another challenge was a lack of proficiency in the use of English, particularly in some advanced structures. The students who mentioned this aspect said that they dealt with this hardship with their teacher's support and also with the aid of grammatical explanations they found in written and/or digital sources. Also, the students had difficulty choosing the right word from among the ones suggested by the dictionaries. They pointed out that they tried to solve this issue via further research about the searched item using the internet and consulting their teacher and people around them. Some students also found it hard to suggest equivalences for words and phrases that do not have exact equivalences in the target language and they said they used paraphrasing, footnotes, or personal creativity as solutions.

> Beril: Translation is a complex process. It consists of not only sentences, and structures but also words and meanings. It is a search for the exact equivalence that sounds right. You have got responsibilities for the reader to make him understand.

As a result, this CBI integration was reported to be an effective experience with linguistic and non-linguistic learning gains. The students said that they not only got ready

for their majors but also experienced several feelings including a sense of belonging to their majors and universities, a sense of professionalism, and sense of quality with in-depth analyses and showed signs of expertise which they reported to improve step-by-step. They also added that although there were challenges, these were natural and specific to the learning process and they were manageable with investigations through technology as well as the support of their teacher and peers, and the relevant people around them. Thus, overall, the students were found to be satisfied with CBI integration and thought it was an effective implementation. Table 1 shows a summary of the findings of the students' views about the benefits and challenges of the CBI-based learning process and the ways they suggested to address the challenges.

Table 1. Findings Regarding the Benefits and Challenges of CBI-Based Learning and The Suggested Ways to Address the Challenges

Benefits	**Preparation for one's major** - Sense of importance - Sense of professionalism - Sense of belonging to one's department and university **Breaking out the routine of English learning via coursebooks** - Feeling like a tertiary-level student - Sense of quality - Increase in learning motivation **Linguistic improvement** - Improvement in grammar - Improvement in vocabulary **Improvement in translation** - Understanding the concept of translation - Improvement in translation techniques and strategies **Non-linguistic improvement** - Improvement in content knowledge - Disciplined studying - Time management - Stress management

Challenges	**Translation-related challenges**
	- Lack of experience in translation
	- Challenges inherent to the process of translation
	  - Finding the correct equivalences
	  - Dealing with culture-specific expressions
	  - Conveying the sense of the text through personal interpretations
	  - Supplying the naturality in tone
	Lack of proficiency in the use of English
	- Advanced grammatical structures
	- Advanced use of vocabulary

Suggested ways to address the challenges	- Investigations through the support of written and digital sources - Peer support - Teacher support - Support of people whose professions and/or interests are related to the given topic

CBI-Based Learning Process: Practices

The CBI-based learning practices were implemented in the form of translations in this study. In addition to the reflections presented above, it was found that there was an improved use of English as well as translation techniques, thus, the translations of the students also revealed the overall effectiveness of CBI integration into the preparatory program. In this respect, the translations reflected the following characteristics:

i) The first translations reflected more loyalty to the text and choices of more word-for-word techniques in finding the equivalences. On the other hand, the second translations were more reflective of sense-for-sense translation strategies and personal touches of translators on the texts. Below is an example of such a case.

> Scientific understanding of the causes of global warming has been increasing (Source Sentence).
> Küresel ısınmanın nedenlerinin bilimsel olarak kavranışı artmaktadır (Target sentence – First draft).
>
> Küresel ısınmanın nedenleri artık bilimsel olarak daha iyi anlaşılmaktadır (Target sentence - Second draft).

ii) There was also progress in the use of accurate lexical and grammatical equivalences not only from one draft to another but also from the first translation to the second one. Thus, the translators can be said to improve both grammar and vocabulary as seen in the example below.

> 1960'lı yıllarda ülkelerin uzaya gitme yarışı modayı etkilemiştir (Source sentence).
>
> The competition for going to space of countries affected fashion in the 1960s (Target sentence – First draft).
>
> The competition among countries to go into space affected fashion in the 1960s (Target sentence – Second draft).

iii) There were often more sentences used in the second drafts of translated texts and the second cycle of the translation and feedback process. This was because the translation was made by dividing complex sentences with the likely intention of making texts more understandable. This can be interpreted as an improved understanding of translation techniques, particularly reader-friendly ones. One example is displayed below where the student is seen to translate one source sentence as two target sentences in the second draft most probably for clarity and understandability.

> İlk kez Dr. Eugen Bleuler tarafından ortaya çıkarılmış olan, şizofreni, bipolar bozukluk, obsesif-kompulsif bozukluk gibi hastalıkların belirtileri arasında yer alan ve son zamanlarda ayrı bir duygudurum bozukluğu olarak kabul edilen "ambivalans"tan bahsedeceğim (Source text).
>
> I'm going to talk about "ambivalence", which was discovered by Dr. Eugen Bleuler, is included among the symptoms of some the disorders such as schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and obsessive-compulsive disorder, and has recently been accepted as a different type of mood disorder (Target text – First draft).
>
> I'm going to talk about "ambivalence". Ambivalence, which was discovered by Dr. Eugen Bleuer, is included among the symptoms of some of the disorders such as schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and obsessive-compulsive disorder, and it has recently been accepted as a different type of mood disorder (Target text – Second draft).

iv) There were more paraphrasing and footnotes used both in the second drafts of translated texts and the second cycle of translation and feedback process. This made the texts longer in structural terms and seemingly clearer and more understandable in semantic

ways. This also shows the possible improvement of students in the use of translation strategies. As shown in the following example, the student made efforts to make meaning clearer and more understandable in the second draft of their translation by deleting hyphens and adding an explanatory sentence as a footnote in Turkish (which has been translated into English for the reader).

> A retirement home – sometimes called an old people's home or old age home – is a multi-residence housing facility intended for the elderly (Source sentence).
>
> Huzurevi – bazen yaşlı bakım merkezi ya da yaşlı bakım ve rehabilitasyon merkezi olarak da adlandırılır – ileri yaştaki insanlara yönelik bir çoklu konut olanağıdır. (Target text – First draft)
>
> Bazen yaşlı bakım merkezi ya da yaşlı bakım ve rehabilitasyon merkezi olarak da adlandırılan huzurevi ileri yaşta insanlara yönelik bir çoklu konut olanağıdır (Dipnot: İngilizce metinde emeklilik ve ileri yaşa vurgu yapan "retirement home", "old people's home" ve "old age home" ifadeleri kullanılmış olup Türkçe metinde Türkiye'de bu olgu için kullanılmakta olan "huzur" ve "bakım" vurgulu ifadelere yer verilmiştir. / Footnote: In the English text, expressions, which emphasize "retirement" and "old age", namely "retirement home", "old people's home" and "old age home" are used whereas the Turkish text includes the phrases used for this phenomenon in Türkiye which highlight "peace" and "care".) (Target text – Second draft).

So far, the students' opinions about the benefits and challenges of the integration of CBI into the preparatory program and their related suggestions have been presented. The findings have shown that the students have had linguistic and non-linguistic gains thanks to CBI and at the same time they found the process challenging since they did not have any translation experience and they lacked of adequate amount of knowledge regarding vocabulary and grammatical structures. They suggested teacher and peer support and effective use of written and technological sources and expert opinions for the challenges mentioned. This was followed by the results regarding the translation analyses of the students, which revealed that the CBI-integrated program was overall effective in developing the linguistic knowledge and translation skills of the students.

Discussion

In tertiary-level EFL preparatory classes, as the name 'preparatory' suggests, preparing students for their majors via content-based instruction may act as an efficient means to make instruction meaningful and purposeful in the way to serve students' academic needs and professional interests. For this intense purpose, it is necessary to integrate major-related elements into the preparatory English curriculum, particularly at English-medium universities. This study has shown that designing such instructional processes equipped with major-related themes and practices could contribute to students' academic and professional progress in both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects and make them feel like real university students.

As stated by the students in this study and as shown in several studies, in English preparatory classes, the instruction is governed by grammar instruction and General English-oriented coursebook-based practices (e.g. Akpur, 2017; Balcı et al., 2018; Kemaloglu-Er, 2021; Sağlam & Akdemir, 2018). However, it is a fact that tertiary-level English-intensive classes belong to a context characterized by academic learning and improvement, therefore it would be feasible to target academic and professional themes and actions while designing the content of the courses rather than applying textbooks published for the global arena with daily life topics. This can only be possible by CBI-

based instruction, particularly academic instruction given according to the majors of students and re-designs of the relevant curricula in this regard.

An important thing to note here regarding the issue is the lack of academic knowledge and experience in the high school background of students. The participants in this study also referred to this point and stated that their English classes were limited and they focused on preparation for the university exam in their English classes for instance they did not do any translation practice other than that required for the preparation for translation questions in the university entrance exam. The study complies with Altınmakas and Bayyurt (2019), Hatipoglu (2016), and Yildirim (2010) with the finding of failure in the Turkish secondary school education system to prepare students for academic education at the tertiary level specifically owing to preparations for the multiple-choice university entrance examination. Altınmakas and Bayyurt (2019) suggest academic English-oriented changes in the tertiary education system to fulfill such needs. This study by focusing on the students' academic and professional needs in concordance with their majors may set as an example for such types of recommended practices.

Moreover, CBI-based instruction has been given in the form of translation training practices since the target student group consists of Translation and Interpreting major students in their English preparatory year. Thus, this content has been deemed to contribute to the students' future success in their majors and the study has also displayed the overall effectiveness as shown by the reflections of the students displaying satisfaction with receiving major-related education and their practices showing progress. Also, as confirmed by students' responses, the choice of translation as content in English lessons has been reported to have further advantages like an increase in content knowledge, profound comprehension of the topic, and improvement in analytical and critical thinking. This means that the students made use of translation not only as the fundamental means to be used in their majors and their possible future professions but also as an aid for academic and in-depth learning of the content.

The findings of this study are in line with the studies where the participants favored the use of CBI in the preparatory classes and deemed that it is a beneficial way to integrate major-related academic-based content into the relevant English curricula with the use of different themes and integrated skills (Arslan & Saka, 2010; Canbay, 2009; Er, 2011; Filiz, 2019). On the other hand, the present study reveals a novelty in relevant literature by presenting the incorporation of a non-tested skill and field of expertise: translation. Integration of CBI in the form of translation training and practices is an originality of this study and translation as an aid for in-depth analysis and learning of the content may serve as an example for relevant CBI practices worldwide.

The context being an EMI university is also significant in this study in the sense that English preparatory programs assume a vital role in such contexts since they are liable for well-preparing students for their majors and equipping them with the knowledge and skills in English required within their academic, professional, and personal paths. Thus, the fact that CBI integration has been integrated into the preparatory program at an EMI university and proved to be effective is highly important in this regard and implies the

necessity of developing the preparatory programs of EMI universities with CBI-based approaches emphasizing foreign language learning and improvement via content learning.

The implications of this study highlight the vitality of incorporating CBI into English preparatory programs. Theory-wise, the study implies the need and importance of developing educational models for CBI integration, particularly for English-intensive programs. Practice-wise, such a form of integration would affect not only learners and teachers but also all the stakeholders involved including curriculum, material, and test designers as well as school administrators since synthesizing content related to students' majors and language skills would mean novel English language program designs specific to each context with substantial impacts on the whole curriculum. Through CBI, students may become more prepared for their future academic studies and professional lives and attain more successful outcomes in their further major-related practices. CBI-based programs can therefore be implemented in preparatory programs since with this application, it is likely to prepare students for their future studies in their departments, help them develop language processing skills via meaningful means, and enable them to gain knowledge, experience, and confidence in both language use and their professional fields.

Conclusion

This study has shown an example of CBI integration into a preparatory program related to the field of Translation and Interpreting and the effectiveness of the implementation has been confirmed with students' relevant reflections and practices. It has been concluded that CBI-based practices applied in English preparatory programs have the potential to improve students' foreign language knowledge and skills, increase their content knowledge raise their motivation and confidence, and bridge the educational gap between the preparatory school and degree programs.

This study has been conducted in one preparatory class with a small sample size and this constitutes a limitation of the research. Future research may focus on applications with larger samples. Moreover, depending on the students' majors, there can be several other forms of CBI integration into preparatory classes including those related to the majors of engineering, medicine, social sciences and humanities, educational sciences, and business and administrative sciences, in short to any majors relevant in the given tertiary context, and their effectiveness should be investigated with relevant methods.

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Analysis of Raters' Scoring Behaviours in the Assessment of Writing

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	This study aims to obtain descriptive data on the scoring behaviours of language teachers in the assessment of writing. In this study, the data related to the demographic information of 73 teachers, the scores they assigned to a particular written text, and the discourse describing their scoring process were obtained through semi-structured interviews. Data analysis revealed that the scoring behaviours of the teachers varied greatly and most of them did not use a scale during scoring. The ones who used scales, on the other hand, created their own scales that included different sections with either the same or different scoring attributes, which indicated that they were indecisive and not necessarily unified in their decisions. Another finding indicated that the teachers focused mostly on the formal dimension of the product, and only a limited number of them distinguished error types and considered the balance between the error type and the points. The results of the study also demonstrated that there was a significant relation between the scores of the raters and their gender, as well as between their scores and their institution.
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Introduction

Writing is the process of producing a written discourse for communication. Based on the communication scheme, writing is defined as the process in which an addresser sends a written/visual message formed by using a common code (English, French, Turkish, etc.) to an addressee through a contact (paper, screen, etc.) in a certain context. As one of the main four skills in foreign language teaching, writing merits an important place, particularly in terms of measurement and evaluation, along with other aspects.

There are two main approaches, namely direct and indirect, in the assessment of writing. The direct approach, which considers all aspects of the relevant skill (Coombe, False, and Hubley, 2007), evaluates the learner's ability to communicate in a written language. In such assessment, learners are expected to produce content, organize their ideas, use appropriate and accurate vocabulary, and apply grammatical and syntactic knowledge within a certain period in the classroom through traditional measurement tools. The fact that such assessment can be applied in any setting within a limited time makes it easy to apply, however, it also has some negative aspects such as putting time pressure on learners and not allowing for full implementation of the stages of the writing process as preparation, planning, drafting, a nd reviewing. In indirect assessment, on the other hand, the focus is on the grammatical accuracy of a language rather than its communication function (Coombe, Fals,e and Hubley, 2007). Accordingly, it is possible to evaluate the correct use of components such as punctuation, spelling, and grammar at the sentence level by using measurement tools such as multiple-choice tests. In recent years, process-oriented assessment, where the measurement and evaluation of writing are spread throughout the process, has been used in the evaluation of the process, and the development of learners during this process is monitored. Although this type of assessment bears more reliable results, it is time-consuming and extends over a long period (Brown, 1989).

O'Malley and Pierce (1996) argue that the measurement and evaluation process for writing requires giving students writing tasks on various topics and evaluating their product using its message, clarity, and mechanical aspects such as spelling and punctuation. In other words, rather than a one-dimensional approach, writing assessment requires a multidimensional approach that takes into account the complex structure of the writing process. However, one of the most important problems of teaching writing in both first language and foreign language in Türkiye is the inability to conduct a practical and consistent measurement and evaluation (Karatay, 2011). Since writing involves not only vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and punctuation of language but also more complex processes, the approaches to be used in its measurement should also include more comprehensive and complex processes of writing. In their study conducted with 97 English teachers through survey and interview techniques in Türkiye, Kalay, and Büyükkarcı (2020) found that apart from using the traditional assessment tools, including multiple choice questions, completion, true-false or question-answer, the teachers also utilized process-oriented tools, as composition writing, project assignment, peer evaluation, portfolio, and standard writing tests, all of which refer to more complex processes.

The effective assessment of writing, be it traditional or process-oriented, depends on the reliability, validity, and practicality of the measurement instrument (Weigle, 2007). Reliability in the assessment of writing is generally lower than in the other language areas and skills (Calp, 2013). Mousavi (2002) also emphasizes the importance of measurement and evaluation instruments in the assessment of writing. Determining the writing task and developing appropriate instructions are among the key factors affecting the validity of measurement and evaluation. Hence, it is paramount to provide a task that will clearly reveal the direction of the writing that is intended to be measured and to add an instruction that clearly explains the expected behaviours of learners throughout the process. Instructions have important functions not only for learners but also for raters. To enable a consistent and reliable measurement of the written product and its evaluation, task instructions need to be taken into consideration by raters to determine whether the learners have written in line with these instructions and to evaluate their writing with an objective perspective.

Considering various types of written products with differing requirements, it is necessary to determine to what extent those requirements are met during the assessment process. Thus, another important topic regarding the assessment of writing in the literature involves the scoring method performed. There are three fundamental scoring methods: analytical, holistic, and primary trait scoring (Cooper, 1984; Perkins, 1983; Stiggins and Bridgeford, 1983; Weigle, 2007; Wiseman, 2012; Zorbaz, 2013). The scale used in analytical scoring, namely the rubric, allows separate evaluations for each component of writing. It provides detailed information on learners' strengths and weaknesses; however time-consuming and challenging for raters since it requires a detailed examination of the written product and identification of deficiencies. In contrast, the holistic scale is more time and energy-efficient it enables raters to make general judgments about the written product. Primary trait scoring is task-specific and evaluates performance according to the specific features of the discourse type. Therefore, the scales used in this type of assessment include items related to the characteristics of discourse and text type. The advantage of primary trait scoring is that it provides the testing of learners' knowledge and skills related to the characteristics of the genre, and it facilitates the detection of learners' shortcomings specific to the discourse type. Yet, it is less frequently used than the other two scales as developing it is more demanding and requires more time and expertise.

The abundance of studies on scoring methods and the diversity of their results are noteworthy. Wiseman (2012) found in his study, in which 60 compositions written by EFL students were scored through analytical and holistic scales by five teachers who had special training in scoring, that analytical scoring revealed more detailed and accurate differences among learners. Sakyi (2000), on the other hand, argued that the raters who scored holistically focused more on language structures and content. While Polat (2003) and Turgut (1990) claim that analytical scoring is more reliable because it provides conformity between raters, Oruç (1999) argues that inconsistencies between raters decrease with the usage of holistic scoring. However, in their study with 10 raters, Han and Huang (2017) asserted that there were no significant differences in terms of scores or reliability between the two scoring methods, however, the raters preferred the holistic

scoring scale regardless of the advantages and disadvantages of both types. However, there are conflicting studies yielding opposite results. For example, in their study in the context of EFL teaching in Yemen, Ghalib and Hattami (2015) concluded that the differences between raters were greater in holistic scoring, and they claimed that analytical scoring provides a more reliable and consistent measurement. Similarly, Asassfeh (2021) proposed that the scores assigned by 48 teachers by using the holistic scales were higher compared to the scores they assigned by using analytical scales, and that the scores of the raters decreased in holistic scoring since they focused on the details.

Although the studies on scoring methods vary and reveal different results, it is obvious that the use of scales brings objectivity to the assessment of writing. A study conducted by Crusan, Plakans, and Gebril (2016) with 701 educators revealed that 80% of the participants used a scale and that nearly half of the participants believed that using a scale was effective in making sense of students' points. A scoring scale is an important tool not only for teachers but also for learners. While assigning a writing task as homework or as a measurement tool to learners, it is of great importance to determine the criteria that will be used in the evaluation of that task and to present them to learners on a scale. Seviour (2015) emphasizes that scales should be open and accessible to students, and they should be informed about what is expected of them, how the written product will be evaluated, and, what qualities an acceptable written product should have. On the other hand, Thomas (2020) argues that when developing or choosing a scale, there are some important factors to be considered such as, what will be measured by this scale, for what purpose this scale will be used, how long it will take to administer it, and whether training will be necessary for the users, all of which will contribute to the reliability and validity of that scale.

Behaviours of Raters

Another effective factor in the assessment of writing is raters. Smith (1993) stated that the knowledge and the measurement technique of raters affect the reliability of their measurement. This is not surprising because a written product is complex and the professional experience, education, and views of the person scoring it play an important role on their scoring. Therefore, raters should receive qualified training on measurement and evaluation. Köksal (2004) claims that the teachers in Türkiye do not receive adequate training on the assessment of writing and they have a tendency to assess their students by using general assessment ways presented in the curriculum. Indeed, when examining the curriculum of the institutions that train teachers in foreign language teaching, it was observed that general training on measurement and evaluation is provided, but there is a lack of training specifically focusing on the assessment of each skill while individual skills are separately taught. Similarly, in the international literature, there are studies claiming that teacher training is insufficient as far as measurement and evaluation are concerned (Brown and Bailey, 2008; Mertler, 2009; Popham, 2009; Weigle, 2007). Therefore, it can be suggested that the level of literacy in terms of assessment of writing is low among teachers. Likewise, in their study with 350 teachers, Mede and Atay (2017) concluded that

the teachers perceived themselves as inadequate in measuring and evaluating production and reception skills within integrated skills.

However, for reliable measurement and evaluation to be carried out, the people who carry out the process, namely the raters - teachers in the school environment - need to be highly competent in the field of measurement and evaluation. Crusan (2010) emphasizes that teachers should know the differences between formative and summative assessment, have the ability to write instructions that will provide the necessary guidelines for presenting data required for different purposes, know the priorities of the scales used, and comprehend the importance of assessment. Equally, Weigle (2007) underlines that teachers should have the skills in organizing, managing, and scoring writing activities in order to assess writing. In conclusion, raters are expected to develop a measurement and evaluation instrument and score the written product with the help of this instrument.

As stated by Baker (2016), the scoring behaviours of raters can be influenced by factors such as personality, education, and their desire to appreciate learners' effort and ability to understand what they are trying to convey. However, raters should evaluate written products with a valid, objective, fair, clear, systematic, criterion-based, and reliable measurement method and process. While many studies underline the need for raters to use a scale during the assessment of writing, Lumley (2002) points out that the way the raters used the prescribed scale in his research was quite inconsistent. Similarly, many studies using the 'Rasch Model' (Du & Wright, 1997; Du, Wright & Brown, 1996; Engelhard, 1994; Lunz, Wright & Linacre, 1990) proved that the raters' scores differed even if they had received the same training and used the same scale. The fact that there are differences in raters' priorities, expectations, and the dimensions they focus on the written product at hand during the measurement and evaluation processes is among the factors underlying this situation.

The errors of raters can affect the validity and reliability of measurement and evaluation (Erman Aslanoğlu and Şata, 2021). Raters assign lower/higher scores due to various characteristics of learners such as gender, race, experience, expertise or because of the handwriting, paper layout, and the argument of the written product indicates the rater effect in writing assessment. While Gyagenda and Engelhard (2009) detected that the raters did not exhibit different scoring behaviours based on the students' gender, Engelhard and Myford (2003) unearthed that the raters scored differently based on the students' gender, race, and language, in which they were most successful. Johnson and Lim (2009) established that there was a slight difference in the scores between the raters who were native speakers and those who were non-native speakers. Erman Aslanoğlu and Şata (2021) deduced that the raters took into account the overall academic achievement levels of students, but not their gender. They also found that the teachers working in state schools exhibited different scoring behaviours from the ones working in private schools.

The assessment of the written product which is composed at the end of complex processes is also a multifaceted and problematic process. The first of these problems is the excessive workload caused by the process. The workload of teachers at school, the excessive number of students in the classroom, and the long time and effort required for the evaluation of written products make it difficult to conduct a comprehensive

assessment. Secondly, it is quite difficult to use completely objective criteria in the assessment of writing due to the absence of having a correct, precise and complete answer for the expected written product. Thirdly, raters may focus not only on the dimensions included in the scale but also on their own internal evaluation criteria, despite being presented with a scale (Li & Huang, 2022). While written products should be evaluated in an objective way, it is claimed that teachers score written products based on their own expertise and impressions of the paper in question (Çetin, 2002). During the impression-based evaluation process, noticeable mechanical errors are usually marked and the layout of the text or paper is taken into consideration. In a case study conducted by interviewing 12 teachers in Kayseri, Göçer (2011) collected the teachers' views on writing assessment. This study reported that the teachers carried out a collective assessment, most of them used different measurement tools in addition to writing compositions, and they experienced difficulties concerning time and application during the assessment process. Besides, it was found that they did not use a common scale, and they centered their attention around formal qualities involving plan, tidiness, layout of the paper, spelling, and punctuation during the assessment of writing.

To sum up, the factors affecting objectivity in writing assessment can be listed as the measurement process that includes scoring, raters and scoring methods, the characteristics of learners such as gender, age, race, ethnicity, social class, learning environment, the elements related to writing task itself and its instructions, and also the dimensions in the scale (Gyagenda and Engelhard, 2009). There are also numerous studies (Calp, 2013; Cole, Haley & Muenz, 1997; Hamp-Lyons, 2002; White, 1994) showing that the assessment of writing poses problems. Among these problems are the measurement and evaluation methods (Beck, Llosa, Black and Anderson, 2018; Cooper, 1984; Han and Huang, 2017; Şeker, 2018; Tokur Üner and Aşılıoğlu, 2022; Wilson et all., 2016), validity and reliability of measurement instruments (Brown, Glasswell and Harland, 2004; O'Neill, 2011), and the consistency and reliability of the individuals who performed the measurement and evaluation (Erman Aslanoğlu and Şata, 2021; Gyagenda and Engelhard, 2009; Lumley, 2002; Smith, 1993; Wind and Engelhard, 2012; Zhang, 2016).

Most of the studies on writing assessments focus on the characteristics of the measurement instruments, measurement methods, and the types of scales used during the assessment process. Clearly, in these studies, the participants are provided with a scale to apply and they are guided in the process of assessment. It is also evident that the textbooks in Türkiye contain scales. Additionally, it is assumed in the studies that teachers use scales in light of the guidance in their ordinary writing assessment process. Although there are many studies investigating teachers' assessment techniques and methods, the number of studies describing teachers' scoring behaviours is limited. Furthermore, no research on how teachers will evaluate without guidance has been found in the literature. Therefore, this study aims to examine the scoring behaviours of foreign language teachers in writing assessments. In line with this aim, answers to the following questions and sub-questions are sought within the scope of the study:

1) What kind of scoring behaviours do foreign language teachers exhibit when scoring a written product in the assessment of writing?

a) Is there a statistically significant relation between the scores of the foreign language teachers and their demographic characteristics?

b) What kind of marking behaviours do foreign language teachers exhibit when scoring a written product in the assessment of writing?

c) How do foreign language teachers approach students' errors when scoring a written product in the assessment of writing?

d) What dimensions of the written product do foreign language teachers focus on when scoring a written product in the assessment of writing?

2) How do foreign language teachers describe their scoring process when scoring a written product in the assessment of writing?

Methodology

This study aimed to identify the scoring behaviours of foreign language teachers by examining and comparing the papers they scored. It is also aimed to identify their ways of scoring by analyzing their descriptions of the scoring process. For this purpose, the teachers were first asked to score a randomly selected composition which was written in English and French by B1-graded students studying at the Department of Translation and Interpreting, and then to describe their scoring process.

Participants

A total of 73 foreign language teachers voluntarily participated as raters in the study. The age of the participants, most of whom were female, varied between 31-40 years old. Most of the participants were teachers of English. In addition, most of them had training in pedagogical formation and had over 15 years of experience. Furthermore, most of them were working at the university level at state institutions. The detailed data regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants are collectively presented in Table 1.

Data Collection Instruments

The data of the study were obtained through a semi-structured interview technique. The interview form consisted of three sections. The first section included the items about demographic characteristics of the participants such as gender, age, graduated program, professional experience, current working level, and institution. In the second section, the participants were asked to score the given composition out of 100, and they were asked to briefly describe their scoring process in the third section.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variable	Category	Number	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	15	20,5
	Female	58	79,5
Age	Between 20-30	11	15,1

	Between 31-40	30	41,1
	Between 41-and 50	24	32,9
	51 and over	8	11,0
Graduation	ELT	48	65,8
	Other	25	34,2
Pedagogical Formation	Yes	71	97,3
	No	2	2,7
Experience	1-5 years	6	8,2
	6-10 years	15	20,5
	11-15 years	14	19,2
	16-20 years	17	23,3
	21 years and over	21	28,8
Level	Elementary	6	8,2
	Secondary	7	9,6
	High School	20	27,4
	University	35	47,9
	More than one	5	6,8
Institution	State	62	84,9
	Private	11	15,1

Publication Ethics

Ethics committee approval for the interview form was obtained from the Kırıkkale University Social and Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee with the decision no. 09 dated 18/10/2022.

Data Analysis

Document analysis and descriptive analysis were used in data analysis. In the first stage of the analysis, the focus was on the demographic characteristics of the raters, and the data obtained from the first section of the interview form were interpreted through document analysis. In the second stage, observations were made regarding the second section of the data collection instrument, and the way the participants scored the composition was identified through document analysis and descriptive analysis, and the scoring behaviours of the teachers were determined. These behaviours were first coded and placed into the appropriate category in the thematic framework based on the research questions. In the third stage, the third section of the interview form was utilized. For this purpose, the participants' descriptions of their own evaluation processes were read and the scoring behaviours they expressed were determined by the researchers. Likewise, these stated behaviours of the raters were coded and placed into the abovementioned framework. Shortly, three datasets including teachers' demographic characteristics, scoring behaviours and, discourses on their own scoring behaviours were obtained in the study. Comparative analysis of the second and third datasets are made based on the first dataset. Moreover, examining the second and third datasets enables us to determine whether there is consistency between teachers' discourses and actions as well as whether there is a

relationship between teachers' scoring behaviours and their age, gender, and experience. The findings are presented in numbers and percentages in tables.

The main limitation of the study is that only composition writing was used as a technique in the assessment of writing. Since composition writing requires not only students' grammatical knowledge but also their syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and textlinguistic knowledge, it was thought that all kinds of writing skills could be measured in this way most efficiently. As the aim of the study was to examine the scoring behaviours of the participants, one composition in English and one in French written by two students were used instead of the ones produced by different students. Thus, the factor of individual differences between students was eliminated from the study. Although different languages are taught as foreign languages in Türkiye, the study is limited to the teachers of English and French due to the principle of practicality as they are the most commonly taught foreign languages.

Findings

Findings Related to the Rater's Behaviours

When the scores of the participants were examined, it was seen that the lowest score was 40 and the highest score was 100 out of 100 points. The most important finding about the scores is that teachers appointed different scores for the same writing product. The detailed findings about the scores are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Findings About the Scores of the Participants

Scores	Number	Percentage (%)
Between 81-100	41	56,2
Between 61-80	20	27,4
Between 40-60	7	9,6
At least 90	1	1,4
Total Score	1	1,4
No Score	2	2,7
Total	73	100

Two out of 73 teachers were not included in the analysis because they did not specify any scores. Thus, the analysis was accomplished through the scores of 71 teachers. As seen in Table 3, the data did not exhibit a normal distribution since the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients were not between -1<p>1, and the Kolmogorov test result was p<0.05.

Table 3. The findings on the coefficient of Skewness, Kurtosis, and Kolmogorov Smirnov

Number of the Participants	Mean of the Scores	Skewness Coefficient	Kurtosis Coefficient	Kolmogorov Smirnov Coefficient
71	82,89	-1,336	1,767	.000

Since the data did not exhibit a normal distribution, the Mann-Whitney test was used to see if there was a difference between the scores given by the raters according to their gender. At the end of the analysis, a significant difference was observed between the scores in favor of female raters (see Table 4). It is understood that female raters gave higher scores than male raters because their mean and mean rank were higher.

Table 4. The Findings on the Analysis of the Scores According to Gender

Category	Number	Mean	Mean Rank	Total Rank	U	P
Female	57	84,67	38,89	2216,50	234,500	.017
Male	14	75,64	24,25	339,50		

As identified before, the participating teachers were working at state or private institutions. The Mann-Whitney test was used to identify whether there was a difference between the scores of the raters in terms of the institution they worked at, as the data did not show a normal distribution. As seen in Table 5, there was a significant difference between the scores given by the raters according to the variable of the institution they were working. It is concluded that teachers working at state schools gave higher scores than those working at private schools since their mean and mean rank were higher.

Table 5. The Findings on the Analysis of the Scores According to the Working Institutions

Category	Number	Mean	Mean Rank	Total Rank	U	P
State	61	85,23	38,87	2371,00	130,000	.004
Private	10	68,60	18,50	185,00		

To find out whether the scores of the teachers varied according to their professional experience, the data were analyzed using the Kruskall Walls test because of the five categories in the theme of experience. As a result of the analysis, it became clear that there were no significant differences between the scores given by the teachers and their years of professional experience (see Table 6).

Table 6. The Findings on the Analysis of the Scores According to the Professional Experience

Category	Number	Mean	Mean Rank	sd	Mean	P
1-5 years	6	73,17	29,25			
6-10 years	14	77,43	24,29			
11-15 years	13	84,77	39,00	4	7,688	.104
16-20 years	17	87,00	42,91			
21 years and over	21	84,81	38,29			

To examine whether the scores of the teachers varied according to the level they were working, the data were analyzed using the Kruskall Walls test since the working level contains five different categories. As seen in Table 7, there was a significant difference (p=0.036<0.05) between the scores of the teachers according to their working level. An

examination of their averages revealed that the teachers working at multiple levels and teachers working at university gave lower scores than the others.

Table 7. The Findings on the Analysis of the Scores According to the Working Level

Category	Number	Mean	Mean Rank	sd	Mean	P
Elementary	6	86,33	37,50			
Secondary	6	85,83	37,42			
High School	19	86,11	40,32	4	10,265	.036
University	35	83,97	37,14			
More than one	5	55,40	8,10			

When it came to the sub-questions b, c, and d of the study, another analysis was conducted on the participants' marking behaviours on the paper, their approach to the type of error, their preferences for interaction with the student and the errors they focused on. For this purpose, the answers to the following questions were sought: a) whether they did marking or not, b) if yes, how many markings they did, c) whether they identified the types of errors or not, d) whether they warned the students or not, e) whether they corrected the errors or not, f) whether they used a coding system during marking, g) whether they focused on linguistic mistakes (grammatical, spelling, punctuation, lexical, syntactic errors) or not, h) whether they took the types of discourse into consideration during scoring or not, i) whether they paid attention to the correctness of the content or not, j) whether they used a scale or not. The detailed findings of this analysis are shown in Table 7. This analysis mostly reveals that the raters usually corrected errors on the paper and they usually focused on grammatical and expression errors.

Table 8. The Findings on the Behaviours of the Participants

Category of the Behaviours	Number	Percentage (%)
Only marked	30	41,1
Identified error types	8	11,1
Warned the students	11	15,1
Corrected errors	47	64,4
Adopted a coding system	2	2,7
Focused on grammatical errors	64	87,7
Focused on spelling errors	35	47,9
Focused on punctuation errors	26	35,6
Focused on lexical errors	31	42,5
Focused on expression errors	32	43,8
Paid attention to the features of discourse type	12	16,4
Took the correctness of the content into consideration	5	6,8
Used a scale	10	13,7

Findings Related to the Rater's Discourse

When the participants' description of their scoring process is analyzed in order to find an answer to the second research question, two main dimensions emerge the usage of a scale and the direction of their focus. As shown in detail in Table 9, the former

dimension includes the findings about the number of raters who acknowledged using the scale, as well as who developed a scale on the paper, the points they allocated to each error or section in the scale, and the number of sections used in the scale. Prominently, most of the raters drew their own scale on paper themselves and evaluated the paper accordingly. However, there were significant differences in the implementation of the scale among the users (See Table 9). The most prominent behavioural difference in this regard is the fact that the numbers of the sections in the developed scale were not the same. Another striking point is that the participants anticipated the same or different points for each section in the scale they developed.

Table 9. The Findings on the Participants' Discourse About the Usage of a Scale

Scale Preference		Number	Percentage (%)
Expressed that they used a scale		4	5,5
Drew a scale		26	35,6
The number of sections in the scale	2	1	1,4
	3	3	4,1
	4	9	12,3
	5	7	9,6
	6	1	1,4
Allocated the same points to each section in the scale		16	21,9
Allocated different points to each section in the scale		10	13,7
Allocated no points in the scale		2	2,7
Stated how many points each error corresponded to		3	4,1

Analysis of the raters' focus on their own descriptions reveals various preferences. Accordingly, the raters indicated that they took various aspects such as unity, coherence, cohesion, relevance to the subject, content, language usage, consistency, comprehensibility, grammar, punctuation, spelling, vocabulary, number of words, time, target audience, purpose, features of the genre, sections of text, organization, evidence/examples, paper layout, handwriting, creativity, style, fluency, attention grabbing, way of thinking, participation in the class, age, planning, and level of the students into considerations during evaluation. Having analyzed the number and frequency of these aspects, it was displayed that only one participant took the variables related to target audience, participation in class, age, nationality, and creativity into consideration, which corresponded to a ratio of 1,4 for each. While the target audience refers to the addressee of the written pro and participation in class means the in-class performance of the students, age indicates whether the producer of the written product is a child or an adult and nationality indicates the producer's familiarity with the language used in the composing process. As can be seen in Table 10, the variables that the participants considered relatively of high importance were grammar, vocabulary, meaning and the organization of the text while they also attributed attention to paper layout, fluency, way of thinking, relevance to the subject, unity, evidence/examples, features of the genre, sections of text, level of the students, language usage, coherence, spelling, content and punctuation.

Table 10. The Findings on the Analysis of the Raters' Focus

Direction of the Focus	Number	Percentage (%)
Target audience	1	1,4
Participation in the classroom	1	1,4
Age	1	1,4
Nationality	1	1,4
Creativity	1	1,4
Style	2	2,7
Consistency	2	2,7
Time	2	2,7
Attention Grabbing	2	2,7
Planning	2	2,7
Handwriting	3	4,1
Cohesion	4	5,5
Number of the words	4	5,5
Purpose	4	5,5
Layout	8	11,0
Fluency	8	11,0
Way of thinking	8	11,0
Relevance to topic	9	12,3
Unity	10	13,7
Evidence/Examples	11	15,1
Features of text type	12	16,4
Sections of text	14	19,2
Level	14	19,2
Language usage	15	20,5
Cohesion	16	21,9
Spelling	16	21,9
Content	20	27,4
Punctuation	20	27,4
Organization	22	31,5
Meaning	24	32,9
Vocabulary	35	47,9
Grammar	68	93,2

To sum up, the data obtained revealed a number of findings related to the research questions. The first set of findings concerns the actions that teachers performed on the paper they scored. As a result, no common preferences were observed among the teachers regarding marking approaches. While some preferred marking approaches such as underlining or circling, some others preferred to mark by specifying the error type.

The second set of findings pertains to the scores given by the teachers. Accordingly, the participants were assigned significantly different scores for the same paper scores given to which same paper ranging from 40 to 100. The third set of findings, which is related to the usage of a scale in the scoring process, revealed that they were used as well as those who did not. The fourth set of findings is about whether there was a difference among the scores according to raters' gender, institution, experience and grade.

The final set of findings involves the focus of the participants in the measurement and evaluation process, which concluded that a significant number of the participants focused on the grammatical aspect of the written product, respectively followed by vocabulary, meaning, organisation, punctuation, and content of the output, all of which could be listed under the heading of grammatical aspect of writing. Non-grammatical aspects such as cohesion, language use, and arts of the text were considered by relatively fewer participants.

Discussion

The findings that were significantly different in the scoring preferences of the participants need to be addressed in several ways. First of all, differences in scoring can be regarded as natural findings since the participants were expected to score without any given standard scales. There are numerous studies (Bachman, 2004; Engelhard and Myford, 2003; Hunter and Docherty, 2011; Liu, 2022; Şeker, 2018) concluding that the scoring of the raters was different when they were asked to screen with the help of the same standard scale. However, the fact that differences among the scores were in a wide range of 40 to 100 makes the scores appointed by the raters questionable in terms of reliability. The low reliability of the raters' scores in this study is consistent with the results of a study conducted by Gyagenda and Engelhard (2009), in which 20 raters who were provided with training on scoring, scored 366 compositions using a scale and the reliability coefficient was found to be low. The findings obtained from the same study and our findings are noteworthy in that they proved that teachers had different preferences in scoring irrespective of whether they had any training on scoring or not, and whether they were asked to use a standard scale or not. The difference in scoring was evident in all sections of the scale in that study, whereas in our study it was observed that the teachers proposed the same or different points for each section of the scale only when they developed their own scale. Allocating different points to each section of the scale may stem from either the raters or the fact that the variable cannot be expressed as an absolute value. While the raters' behaviours such as giving little or much importance and showing necessary attention to the section during the evaluation process may lead to differences arising from the rater, the fact that the evaluated dimension does not have a single and ideal answer due to its nature may also lead to differences depending on the evaluated dimension. On the other hand, although some dimensions such as grammar can be relatively expressed as more absolute value, the fact that they were scored differently suggests that scoring differences cannot be eliminated in the evaluation process despite all efforts. Şeker (2018) endorsed similar findings regarding the behaviours of the raters/teachers in the assessment of writing in the study conducted with three English teachers working at a school in Türkiye. Writing was evaluated through a standard scale. 75 of the compositions, which were written by the students as a writing exam, were selected by equally dividing them as low, medium and high level, and three teachers were asked to score 25 of these compositions with the help of the same scale in three days. Then, the teachers were asked to score the other 25 of compositions by discussing them together and this process was recorded. Three weeks later, the teachers were again asked to individually score the last remaining, 25, of the composition with the help of the same

scale. The analysis of the first scoring verified that three teachers scored the same papers differently even if they used the same standard scale. It was understood that the teachers made different judgements on different aspects of the written product such as grammatical accuracy, lexical accuracy, syntactic accuracy, organization, and mechanical dimensions. The statistical analysis of the data unearthed that the points that those three teachers assigned to the items in the scale were not compatible with each other. When the recordings of the scoring were analyzed, it was seen that the teachers had hesitations about their decisions on scoring on the first day, and that they relaxed, exchanged their ideas and showed their expertise in different dimensions on the second day. For instance, while the argument of one teacher on grammatical accuracy was taken as a basis, the argument of another teacher on organization was taken as a basis during the discussion period. In addition, it was also found that while the scoring process lasted longer on the first day, it was getting shorter day by day. It became obvious that the teachers considered the scoring fairer at the end of this process and they shared the responsibility as they did not issue a score on their own. When the data of the scoring were analyzed three weeks later, it was found that the teachers scored the dimension of grammatical accuracy, lexical accuracy, organization and mechanical aspects similarly. Hence, this study suggests that the teachers scored the same written product in different ways despite using the same standard scale, and their focus differed during the evaluation process; for example, some of the teachers focused on accuracy while others focused on fluency or structure. One of the notable findings of Şeker's study is that the participants showed different reactions at different stages of the discussion process, which lasted for three days in total. To exemplify, while they were mostly silent and exhibited hesitant behaviours on the first day of the scoring discussion sessions, they engaged in discussions confidently and made more confident decisions without hesitation on the following days. In addition, the teachers also discussed the scale they used and identified its deficiencies. It was also deduced that the differences among the scores of the teachers decreased in the subsequent individual evaluation, and they used the experience and knowledge that they had gained through discussing in their own individual scoring sessions. Therefore, this study suggests that cooperation and discussion with other stakeholders during the scoring process provide benefits for the raters and bring consistency to the evaluation process. Compared with the findings of Şeker's study (2018), the findings obtained from the current study are similar in some aspects such as the teachers' attempts to prepare the scales, which show inconsistency, and the differences in the scales developed by themselves.

The finding that suggested significant differences between male and female raters in scoring in favor of female raters is inconsistent with some research data. For instance, in a study conducted by Peterson, Childs and Kennedy (2004), 108 teachers in the first language teaching in Canada were asked to score the narrative and argumentative compositions produced by two female and two male students. The results of the study unveiled that there were no consistent findings about the difference between the scores of raters in terms of their gender and that there was no significant difference among the scores depending on the gender of the composition writer. However, there are other studies (Gyagenda and Engelhard, 2009) supporting that there were differences in scoring based

on gender. For example, a study conducted by Gyagenda and Engelhard (2009) reports that the differences between the scores of male and female students were significant in favor of females. The researchers assert that the reason for this difference might be a prevailing belief that female students were more successful in writing or that the teachers focused more on the written product generated by male students in order to improve their writing skills. Yet, this study did not take the gender of the 20 trained raters into account in the analysis.

The finding that the number of sections and the points per section varied among some participants is important as it suggests that the teachers perceived and explicated the same written product in different ways. The differences in preferences of the participants, most of whom had pedagogical formation training, are in parallel with the findings of the study by Wang et al. (2017), which yields that there were different opinions on various points between the experts delivering training on scoring and the raters, and also among the participant raters. For instance, there were disagreements involving the selection of the most difficult composition to score, the sections leading to the errors of raters, the focus of the written product, the reception of the text, and the organisation of the ideas between the experts delivering training on scoring and the raters. These disagreements are important in understanding that if the scale is not clear and understandable enough for the raters, it can lead to different results even if the same scale is used. However, it is suggested that no matter how valid and reliable the scale is, the rater's knowledge, experience, and attention are more decisive in perceiving and using the scale.

The findings that the participants focused on extremely diverse dimensions of the written product during the evaluation process and that they issued different terms for the same dimensions assume that the raters had different experiences and education in this aspect. As an example, while the dimension titled 'grammar' in the scales needed to be a general heading to the other three as syntax, spelling and punctuation, it was treated as another dimension along with them. Similarly, some of the dimensions titled as language usage, coherence, cohesion, unity, consistency and fluency are unclear and this raises the question of whether the rater differentiates, for example, between consistency, unity and coherence or between coherence and cohesion. Furthermore, the concept of language usage should include the dimensions listed above, however, that raters' evaluation of it as a separate dimension shows that they had different perspectives and perceptions on this issue. In line with the findings of the research by Wang et all (2017), which suggests more experiential studies should be conducted, this finding highlights the fact that the distinctions regarding the different dimensions of the written product should be more clearly put forward and strongly emphasized in the training on scoring. This idea is reinforced by the findings of Rahayu's (2020) study conducted with 56 ESL teachers in Indonesia in the assessment of writing. In that study, the teachers were asked to answer questions about their assessment methods and techniques and to score two narrative compositions with the help of an analytical scale presented to them. The questions in the questionnaire consisted of four sections that were related to the teachers' knowledge about the assessment of writing, the effectiveness of scoring accuracy, the efficiency of their choices, and their perceptions of the assessment of writing. The analysis of the data

obtained through the questionnaire yielded that the teachers' knowledge about the assessment of writing, the effectiveness of scoring accuracy, the efficiency of their choices, and their perceptions in the assessment of writing did not guarantee their success in scoring. In other words, the teachers' responses in the questionnaire did not show consistency with their scoring behaviours. Even though teachers' knowledge about the assessment of writing, the efficiency of their choices, and the increase of their perceptions in the assessment of writing negatively affected their scoring, the increase in the effectiveness of scoring accuracy positively affected their scoring. The result of the study reinforced that the effectiveness of teachers in scoring has an impact on the quality of teachers during the assessment process.

Another finding that the raters focused more on grammar and the formal dimension of the written product is in line with the findings commonly found in the literature. In their study on the perceptions of the raters in the assessment of writing through an integrated approach, Weigle and Montee (2012) revealed that while the raters attached different importance to the formal dimension of the written product, they also exhibited different attitudes towards the reception technique used by the students in the writing process.

Conclusion and Implementation

This study which aims to identify the scoring behaviours of foreign language teachers in writing assessment reveals that the raters, who are foreign language teachers participating in this study as a study group, exhibited very different behaviours when scoring the written product. Despite the limitations, this study has postulated important results regarding the assessment of writing, which is accepted to be problematic in the literature. In this context, it is obvious that the question of whether foreign language teachers use a criterion while scoring a written product cannot be answered entirely in a positive way. It is seen that the number of those who use a criterion among the participants is limited. To generalize this result, it would be useful to conduct more studies with different study groups to determine the diversity of the behaviours exhibited by the raters while scoring and also whether they use criteria or not.

The research question about determining which dimensions of the product the teachers focused on during scoring was inquired and the finding that the teachers focused more on the formal dimension is deemed to be in accordance with the literature findings. However, many studies in the literature recommend that all dimensions of the written product should be considered in the assessment of writing. In response to the third research question, the study asserted that a limited number of raters discriminated error types and established equivalence between the severity of errors and the points appointed. At this point, it is supposed that teachers' knowledge about the assessment of writing is limited. Therefore, teacher training institutions must include courses related to the assessment of writing in their curriculum. Additionally, it is crucial for those who are currently working as teachers to upskill themselves and embrace every opportunity to improve their knowledge in this field through various courses or seminars.

Finally, the research question regarding whether there are differences in scoring behaviours of raters in terms of their age, gender, and experience yields results indicating

that female raters gave higher scores to the written product than their male counterparts, the raters working at state institutions gave higher scores in contrast to those working at private schools, the raters working at more than one level and at the university level gave higher scores than others, whereas there was no significant relationship between the experience and the scores of the raters. Inquiryinton the existence of these differences in various groups and determining the underlying reasons for these differences could add a new perspective to the studies on the rater effect in the assessment of writing. Doubtlessly, trying to identify and eliminate the factors that cause the rater effect makes the assessment process of writing more reliable.

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Yazma Becerisinin Değerlendirilmesinde Puanlayıcı Davranışlarının İncelenmesi

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ÖZET

Çalışmanın amacı yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesindeki puanlama davranışlarına ilişkin betimsel veriler elde etmektir. Nicel araştırma yönteminin kullanıldığı çalışmada yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniği ile 73 öğretmenden demografik bilgiler, İngilizce ve Fransızca dillerini öğrenen öğrencilere yazdırılan B1 düzeyindeki bir metne verilen puan ve bu metni değerlendirme sürecini betimledikleri paragraf elde edilmiştir. Verilerin SPSS programı, belge inceleme ve betimsel çözümleme teknikleriyle incelenmesi sonucunda öğretmenlerin puanlama davranışlarının farklılık sergilediği görülmüştür. Nitekim öğretmenlerin puanlama yaparken çoğunlukla ölçüt kullanmadıkları belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca ölçüt kullanan öğretmenlerin, farklı sayılarda bölümlerden oluşan ve farklı veya aynı puan değerine sahip ölçekler geliştirmesi öğretmenlerin kararsızlık yaşadığını göstermesi bakımından önemlidir. Öğretmenlerin çoğunlukla yazma ürününün biçimsel boyutuna odaklandığı, sınırlı bir bölümünün hata türleri arasında ayrım yaptığı veya hata ile puan denkliğini gözettiği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcıların cinsiyeti, çalıştığı kurumu ile verdiği puan arasında bir ilişki olduğu, ancak yaşı ve deneyim süresi ile verdiği puan arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığı sonucuna da ulaşılmıştır.

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Giriş

Yazma becerisi bireyin öncelikle iletişim amacıyla yazılı bir söylem üretme sürecidir. İletişim şemasından hareketle tanımlamak gerekirse vericinin belli bir bağlamda, bir alıcıya, ortak bir düzgü (İngilizce, Fransızca, Türkçe vb.) kullanarak oluşturduğu yazılı, diğer bir deyişle görsel iletiyi bir oluktan (kâğıt, ekran vb.) iletmesine dayanır. Yabancı dil öğretim programlarındaki dört temel beceriden biri olarak yazma becerisi diğer yanlarının dışında ölçme ve değerlendirme açısından önemli bir yer tutar.

Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde biri doğrudan diğeri dolaylı olmak üzere iki ana yaklaşım söz konusudur. İlgili becerinin tüm yönlerinin göz önünde bulundurulduğu bir değerlendirme süreci olan doğrudan yaklaşımda (Coombe, Folse ve Hubley, 2007) öğrenenin yazılı dilde iletişim kurma becerisi değerlendirilmektedir. Bu tür değerlendirmede; klasik ölçme araçları kullanılırken öğrenenin sınıf içerisinde belli bir zamanda bir içerik üretmesi, fikirlerini düzenlemesi, uygun ve doğru söz varlığını, dilbilgisel ve sözdizimsel bilgisini kullanması istenmektedir. Bu değerlendirme türünün sınırlı zamanda her ortamda uygulanabilir olması uygulanmasının kolay olmasını sağlar, fakat öğrenen üzerinde zaman baskısı yaratması, yazma sürecinin hazırlık yapma, plan oluşturma, taslak yazma ve gözden geçirme aşamalarının tam olarak uygulanmasına izin vermemesi gibi olumsuz yönleri de vardır. Dolaylı değerlendirmede, kullanılan dilin iletişim açısından yerine getirdiği işleve değil, dilbilgisel bakımdan doğru olup olmadığına odaklanılmaktadır (Coombe, Folse ve Hubley, 2007). Dolayısıyla, bu tür değerlendirmede çoktan seçmeli testler gibi ölçme araçları kullanılarak tümce düzeyinde noktalama, imla, dilbilgisi gibi bileşenlerin doğru kullanımına yönelik değerlendirme yapma olanağı sunulmaktadır. Değerlendirme sürecinde son yıllarda kullanılmaya başlanan süreç odaklı ölçme araçlarında ise yazma becerisinin ölçülmesi ve değerlendirmesi süreç içerisine yayılmakta ve öğrencinin bu süreçteki gelişimi izlenmektedir. Zaman açısından oldukça zahmetli ve uzun bir sürece yayılan bu ölçme yönteminde daha güvenilir sonuçlar alınmaktadır (Brown, 1989).

O'Malley ve Pierce (1996) gibi araştırmacılar, yazma becerisine yönelik ölçme ve değerlendirme işleminin öğrenenlere çeşitli konularda yazma ödevi verilmesi ve bu ürünün, taşıdığı ileti, açıklık ve yazım, noktalama gibi mekanik boyutları bakımından değerlendirilmesi gerektiğini savunmuşlardır. Diğer bir deyişle, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde yazma sürecinin karmaşık yapısı göz önüne alınarak tek boyutlu değil, çok boyutlu bir ölçme yapılması önerilmektedir. Ancak, Türkiye'de gerek anadili gerekse yabancı dil öğretimi alanında yazma eğitiminin en önemli sorunlarından biri kullanışlı ve tutarlı bir ölçme değerlendirme çalışmasının yapılamamasıdır (Karatay, 2011). Yazma, dilin sadece söz varlığı, dilbilgisi, yazım ve noktalama bilgisini içermediğinden ölçülmesinde kullanılacak olan yaklaşımların da daha kapsamlı olması ve yazma becerisinin karmaşık süreçlerini içermesi gerekmektedir. Kalay ve Büyükkarcı (2020), Türkiye'deki 97 İngilizce öğretmeniyle anket ve görüşme yoluyla gerçekleştirdikleri çalışmalarında öğretmenlerin çoktan seçmeli test, boşluk doldurma, eşleştirme, doğru yanlış, soru-cevap gibi klasik ölçme araçlarının yanı sıra daha karmaşık süreçleri işaret eden paragraf/kompozisyon yazma, dönem ödevi, öğrenci günlükleri, akran

değerlendirme, öğrenci dosyası değerlendirme, standart yazma testleri gibi süreç odaklı araçları da kullandıklarını belirlemişlerdir.

İster klasik ister süreç odaklı olsun yazma becerisinin etkili bir biçimde değerlendirilmesi ölçme aracının güvenirlik, geçerlilik ve uygulanabilirlik (Weigle, 2007) özelliklerine bağlıdır. Öte yandan, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde güvenirlik genellikle diğer dil alan ve becerilerine göre daha düşüktür (Calp, 2013). Nitekim Mousavi (2002) de yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde ölçme ve değerlendirme aracının önemi üzerinde durmaktadır. Yazma görevini belirleme ve ona uygun yönerge yazma ölçme ve değerlendirmenin geçerliliğini etkileyen temel unsurların başında gelmektedir. Ölçülmesi hedeflenen yazma becerisinin yönünü tam ve açık olarak ortaya çıkaracak bir görev verilmesi ve bu göreve süreç boyunca öğrenenden beklenen davranışları açık bir şekilde anlatan yönerge eklenmesi özel bir önem taşımaktadır. Yönergeler yalnızca öğrenciler için değil, puanlayıcılar açısından da önemli bir işleve sahiptir. Puanlayıcıların bu yönergeleri ne ölçüde dikkate aldığı, öğrenenin yönergeye uygun yazıp yazmadığına bakılması ve ortaya çıkan ürünün nesnel bir yaklaşımla değerlendirilmesi ölçme ve değerlendirmenin tutarlı ve güvenilir olması açısından önemlidir.

Yazılı anlatım ürünlerinin çok çeşitli oldukları göz önüne alındığında her türün kendine özgü gereklilikleri vardır. Dolayısıyla değerlendirme sürecinde bu gerekliliklerin sağlanıp sağlanmadığının saptanması gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle, puanlama davranışının gerçekleştirilme biçimi, alanyazında yazma becerisini değerlendirmeye yönelik tartışılan konulardan bir diğeridir. Yaygın olarak kullanılan belli başlı üç puanlama yöntemi bulunmaktadır: Çözümleyici, bütüncül ve temel özelliklere göre puanlama (Cooper, 1984; Perkins, 1983; Stiggins ve Bridgeford, 1983; Weigle, 2007; Wiseman, 2012; Zorbaz, 2013). Çözümleyici puanlamada kullanılan ölçek, diğer bir deyişle rübrik, yazma becerisini oluşturan her bir unsurla ilgili ayrı ayrı değerlendirme yapılmasına olanak tanır. Öğrenenin güçlü ve zayıf yönleri konusunda ayrıntılı bilgi sağlarken yazılı anlatım ürününün ayrıntılı bir şekilde incelenmesini ve eksikliklerin işaretlenmesini gerektirir. Bu nedenle puanlayıcılar için zaman alıcı ve uğraştırıcıdır. Buna karşılık bütüncül puanlamada kullanılan ölçek, puanlayıcıların yazılı ürüne dair genel yargılama yapmalarını sağladığı için zaman ve enerji bakımından daha tasarrufludur. Temel özelliklere göre puanlama, genellikle söylem türüne özgü bir değerlendirme sunar. Bu tür ölçekte, söylem ve metin türünün özelliklerine yönelik maddelere yer verilir. Temel özelliklere göre puanlama ölçeğinin avantajı, türe özgü yazılı üretimde bulunulduğunda öğrenenin türün özelliklerine dair bilgisinin ve becerisinin yoklanmasını sağlaması ve öğrenenlerin söylem türüne özgü eksikliklerinin tespitini kolaylaştırmasıdır. Temel özelliklere göre puanlama ölçeğinin hazırlanması daha uğraştırıcı, zaman ve uzmanlık gerektiren bir uğraştır. Bu nedenle diğer iki ölçeğe göre kullanımı daha azdır.

Alanyazında puanlama yöntemlerini konu alan çalışmaların çokluğu ve sonuçlarının farklılığı dikkat çekmektedir. Wiseman (2012) özel olarak puanlama eğitimi almış beş öğretmenin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler tarafından üretilen 60 yazılı anlatım ürününü çözümleyici ve bütüncül ölçeklerle puanlaması şeklinde gerçekleştirdiği çalışmasında çözümleyici puanlamanın öğrenenler arasındaki farklılıkları daha ayrıntılı ve iyi bir şekilde ortaya çıkardığını göstermiştir. Sakyi (2000) ise

çalışmasında bütüncül puanlama yapan puanlayıcıların kompozisyonun genelini değerlendirirken dil yapılarına ve içeriğe daha fazla odaklandıklarını savunmaktadır. Polat (2003) ve Turgut (1990), çözümleyici puanlamanın, puanlayıcılar arasında uyum sağladığı için daha güvenilir olduğunu iddia ederken Oruç (1999), bütüncül puanlama ile puanlayıcılar arasındaki tutarsızlıkların azaldığını savunmuştur. Öte yandan Han ve Huang (2017), 10 puanlayıcı ile gerçekleştirdikleri çalışmalarında hem puanlar hem de güvenirlik açısından iki puanlama türü arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını ve puanlayıcıların her iki türün de avantajları ve dezavantajları olmasına karşın bütüncül puanlama ölçeğini tercih ettiklerini göstermişlerdir. Buna karşılık, alanyazında tam tersi sonuçlar veren çalışmalar da vardır. Örneğin Ghalib ve Hattami (2015), Yemen'de İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretilmesi bağlamında gerçekleştirdikleri çalışmalarında bütüncül puanlamanın çözümleyici puanlamaya göre daha yüksek olduğunu, puanlayıcılar arasındaki farklılıkların bütüncül puanlamada daha fazla olduğunu göstermiş ve çözümleyici puanlamanın daha güvenilir ve tutarlı ölçme yaptığını iddia etmişlerdir. Aynı şekilde Asassfeh (2021) de yabancı dil öğretimi alanında 48 öğretmenin bütüncül ölçek kullanarak yaptıkları puanlamanın çözümleyici ölçek kullanarak yaptıkları puanlamaya göre daha yüksek olduğunu göstermiş ve puanlayıcıların çözümleyici ölçek kullandıklarında ayrıntılara odaklandıkları için puanlarının düştüğünü iddia etmiştir.

Alanyazında puanlama yöntemleri konusundaki çalışmalar çeşitlilik göstermesine ve farklı sonuçlar ortaya koymasına rağmen ölçek kullanılmasının yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi sürecine nesnellik kazandırdığı açıktır. Crusan, Plakans ve Gebril (2016) tarafından 41 ülkede ikinci dilde yazma dersi veren 701 eğitimciyle gerçekleştirilen çalışma; katılımcıların %80'inin yazma becerisini değerlendirirken ölçek kullandığını ve katılımcıların yarıya yakınının ölçek kullanmanın öğrencilerin aldıkları notu anlamlandırmada etkili olduğunu düşündüklerini ortaya koymaktadır. Puanlama ölçeği yalnızca öğretmenler için değil öğrenenler için de önemli bir bileşendir. Öğrenenlere ödev veya ölçme aracı olarak bir yazma görevi verilirken bu görevin değerlendirilmesinde kullanılacak ölçütlerin belirlenmesi ve bunların bir ölçek halinde öğrenene sunulması da büyük önem taşımaktadır. Seviour (2015) değerlendirme ölçeğinin öğrenciler için açık ve ulaşılabilir olması, bu ölçek aracılığıyla öğrencilerden beklenenlerin neler olduğu, üretilen yazılı ürünün nasıl değerlendirileceği ve kabul edilebilir bir yazılı ürünün hangi niteliklere sahip olacağı konusunda bilgilendirilmeleri gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır. Thomas (2020) ise değerlendirme amacıyla bir ölçek geliştirirken veya seçerken, ölçeğin güvenilir ve geçerli olması için bu ölçekle neyin ölçüleceğinin, hangi amaçla ölçme yapılacağının, ne kadar zamanda uygulanabileceğinin ve ölçeği kullanacak kişiler için bir eğitimin gerekli olup olmadığına dikkat edilmesi gerektiğini savunmaktadır.

Puanlayıcı Davranışları

Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde etkili olan diğer bir etmen ise puanlayıcılardır. Smith (1993) araştırmasında, puanlayıcıların bilgisinin ve kullandığı ölçme tekniğinin ölçmenin güvenirliğini etkilediğini belirtmiştir. Bu şaşırtıcı bir durum değildir, çünkü yazma becerisinde üretilen ürün karmaşık olup bu ürünü puanlayacak olan kişinin mesleki deneyimi, eğitimi, yazılı anlatım ürününün nasıl olması gerektiği

konusundaki görüşleri puanlama sistemi üzerinde etkilidir. Bu nedenle, puanlayıcıların ölçme ve değerlendirme konusunda nitelikli bir eğitim almış olmaları gerekmektedir. Köksal (2004) çalışmasında, Türkiye'de öğretmenlerin yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi konusunda yeterince eğitim almadıklarını ve öğretim programında sunulan yollarla yazma becerisini değerlendirme eğilimi sergilediklerini ileri sürmüştür. Nitekim dil öğretimi alanında öğretmen yetiştiren kurumların programlarına bakıldığında becerilerin ayrı ayrı öğretimi konusunda eğitim verilirken becerilere yönelik ölçme ve değerlendirme eğitiminin bulunmadığı, genel anlamda bir ölçme ve değerlendirme eğitiminin verildiği görülmektedir. Uluslararası alanyazında da değerlendirme konusunda bilgi eksikliği bulunduğunu ve öğretmen yetiştirmenin ölçme ve değerlendirme yönünün yetersiz olduğunu iddia eden araştırmalar (Brown ve Bailey, 2008; Mertler, 2009; Popham, 2009; Weigle, 2007) söz konusudur. Dolayısıyla dil öğretmenleri arasında yazma becerisi bakımından ölçme ve değerlendirme konusunda okuryazar olma oranının düşük olduğu belirtilebilir. Nitekim Mede ve Atay (2017) da 350 öğretmen ile gerçekleştirdikleri çalışmada öğretmenlerin bütünleşik beceriler içindeki üretim ve alımlama becerilerine yönelik ölçme ve değerlendirme konusunda kendilerini yetersiz gördüklerini bulgulamıştır.

Ancak güvenilir bir ölçme değerlendirme yapılabilmesi için süreci gerçekleştiren kişilerin, yani puanlayıcıların -okul ortamında öğretmenlerin- ölçme ve değerlendirme konusunda oldukça yetkin olmaları gerekmektedir. Crusan (2010) öğretmenlerin biçimleyici ve özetleyici değerlendirme türleri arasındaki farkları bilmesi, farklı amaçlar için gerekli olan verilerin sunumunu sağlayacak yönergeleri yazma becerisine sahip olması, kullanılan ölçütlerin önceliklerini bilmesi ve değerlendirmenin önemini kavraması gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır. Aynı şekilde Weigle (2007) de yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi için öğretmenlerin yazma etkinlikleri düzenleme, yönetme ve puanlama becerilerine sahip olmaları gerektiğinin altını çizmektedir. Sonuç olarak, puanlayıcılardan ölçme ve değerlendirme amacıyla bir araç geliştirebilmeleri, bu aracı uygulayabilmeleri ve puanlayabilmeleri beklenmektedir.

Puanlama sürecindeki davranışlar puanlayıcının kişiliğinin ve eğitiminin yanı sıra Baker (2016)'ın da belirttiği gibi puanlayıcının, öğrencinin çabasını takdir etme isteği ve öğrencinin anlatmak istediğini anlayabilmesi gibi etmenlerden de etkilenebilmektedir. Bununla birlikte, puanlayıcılar, yazılı anlatım ürünlerini geçerli, nesnel, adil, açık, sistematik, ölçüte dayalı ve güvenilir bir ölçme süreci ve yöntemi ile değerlendirmelidir. Puanlayıcıların özellikle yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde bir ölçek kullanması gerektiğinin altı birçok araştırmada çizilirken Lumley (2002) yaptığı araştırmasında puanlayıcıların değerlendirme ölçeğini kullanma şekillerinin oldukça tutarsız olduğunu göstermiştir. Benzer şekilde, istatistiksel olarak Rasch modeli kullanılarak yapılan pek çok çalışmada (Du ve Wright, 1997; Du, Wright ve Brown, 1996; Engelhard, 1994; Lunz, Wright ve Linacre, 1990) farklı puanlayıcıların aynı eğitimi alsalar ve aynı ölçeği kullansalar bile farklı puanlama yaptıkları ortaya çıkmıştır. Puanlayıcıların ölçme ve değerlendirme sürecinde önceliklerinin ve beklentilerinin ve yazılı anlatım ürünü üzerinde odaklandıkları boyutların farklı olması bu durumun altında yatan etmenler arasındadır.

Puanlayıcının karar verme sürecinde yaptığı hatalar ölçme ve değerlendirmenin geçerliliğini ve güvenirliğini etkiler (Erman Aslanoğlu ve Şata, 2021). Puanlayıcıların;

yazılı anlatım ürünün değerlendirmeleri sürecinde cinsiyet, ırk, deneyim, uzmanlık gibi öğrenen grubunun çeşitli özelliklerinden dolayı veya el yazısı, kâğıt düzeni, yazılı üründe savunulan görüş nedeniyle daha düşük/yüksek puan takdir etmeleri değerlendirme sürecindeki puanlayıcı etkisini göstermektedir. Gyagenda ve Engelhard (2009) yaptıkları çalışmada puanlayıcıların, öğrencilerin cinsiyetine göre farklı puanlama davranışı sergilemediğini gösterirken Engelhard ve Myford (2003) puanlayıcıların öğrencilerin cinsiyetine, ırkına ve en başarılı olduğu dile göre farklı puanlama yaptıklarını bulgulamıştır. Johnson ve Lim (2009) yaptıkları incelemede anadili konuşuru olan puanlayıcıların puanları ile anadili konuşuru olmayan puanlayıcıların puanları arasında az da olsa fark olduğunu belirlemiştir. Erman Aslanoğlu ve Şata (2021) anadilinde yazılı anlatım ürününün değerlendirilmesi sürecinde puanlayıcıların, öğrencilerin genel akademik başarı düzeylerini göz önüne aldıklarını, ancak cinsiyetlerini göz önüne almadıklarını ve devlet kurumlarında ya da özel okullarda çalışan öğretmenlerin farklı puanlama davranışları sergilediklerini göstermiştir.

Birçok farklı bileşenin göz önünde bulundurulmasını gerektiren karmaşık işlemler sonucunda ortaya çıkan yazılı anlatım ürününün değerlendirilmesi de karmaşık ve sorunlu bir süreçtir. Bu sorunlardan ilki, işlemin yol açtığı iş yükünün fazlalığıdır. Öğretmenlerin okuldaki iş yüklerinin, sınıftaki öğrenci sayılarının fazla olması ve yazılı anlatım ürünlerinin değerlendirilmesi sürecinin uzun zaman ve çaba gerektirmesi kapsamlı bir değerlendirme yapmayı güçleştirmektedir. İkincisi, üretilmesi beklenen ürün için kesin ve tam bir doğru cevabın bulunmamasına bağlı olarak yazılı anlatımların değerlendirilmesinde tamamen nesnel ölçütler kullanılmasının oldukça zor olmasıdır. Üçüncüsü, puanlayıcıların, kendilerine bir ölçek verilmesine rağmen, ölçekte yer verilen boyutlara olduğu kadar kendi içsel değerlendirme ölçütlerine de odaklanabiliyor olmalarıdır (Li ve Huang, 2022). Oysa yazılı anlatım ürünlerinin de mümkün olduğunca nesnel biçimde değerlendirilmesi gerekmektedir. Uygulama alanına bakıldığında öğretmenlerin yazılı anlatım ürünlerini kendi uzmanlıklarını temel alarak ve kâğıttan edindikleri izlenimlere göre puanladıkları (Çetin, 2002) ileri sürülmektedir. İzlenim ile değerlendirme sürecinde genellikle göze çarpan mekanik hatalar işaretlenmekte, yazının veya kâğıdın düzenine önem verilmektedir. Göçer (2011), Kayseri'de görev yapan 12 Türkçe öğretmeni ile görüşme yaparak gerçekleştirdiği durum araştırmasında, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesine ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerini derlemiştir. Çalışmada öğretmenlerin yazma becerisini değerlendirmede bütünleşik ve sürece yayılmış bir değerlendirme yerine toplu bir değerlendirme yaptıkları, çoğunun kompozisyon yazmanın yanı sıra farklı araçlarla değerlendirme yaptığı ve değerlendirme sürecinde zaman ve uygulama biçimi konusunda sıkıntı yaşadıkları belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde ortak bir değerlendirme ölçeği kullanmadıkları, değerlendirme sürecinde plan, yazının düzgünlüğü, kâğıdın düzeni, yazım ve noktalama gibi biçimsel niteliklere dikkat ettikleri bulgulanmıştır.

Özetlemek gerekirse yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde nesnelliği etkileyen etmenler; puanlama, puanlayıcı ve puanlama yöntemlerini de içeren değerlendirme süreci; öğrencinin cinsiyeti, yaşı, ırkı, etnik yapısı, ait olduğu sosyal sınıf, öğrenme ortamları gibi özellikleri; yazma göreviyle ilgili ödevin kendisi, yönergesi, ölçekteki boyutlar gibi

faktörler (Gyagenda ve Engelhard, 2009) olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Bundan başka, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinin sorun teşkil ettiğini gösteren çok sayıda araştırma (Calp, 2013; Cole, Haley ve Muenz, 1997; Hamp-Lyons, 2002; White, 1994) mevcut olup bu sorunlar arasında ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemi (Beck, Llosa, Black, ve Anderson, 2018; Cooper, 1984; Han ve Huang, 2017; Şeker, 2018; Tokur Üner ve Aşılıoğlu, 2022; Wilson vd., 2016), ölçme ve değerlendirme araçlarının geçerliği ve güvenirliği (Brown, Glasswell ve Harland, 2004; O'Neill, 2011) ve ölçme ve değerlendirmeyi gerçekleştiren kişilerin tutarlılığı ve güvenirliği (Erman Aslanoğlu ve Şata, 2021; Gyagenda ve Engelhard, 2009; Lumley, 2002; Smith, 1993; Wind ve Engelhard, 2012; Zhang, 2016) sayılmaktadır.

Alanyazında yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi konusunda yapılan araştırmaların büyük çoğunluğu değerlendirme aracının özellikleri, değerlendirme yöntemi ve değerlendirme sırasında kullanılan ölçek türleri üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır. Araştırmalarda katılımcılara değerlendirme veya puanlama esnasında kullanmaları için bir ölçek verilerek katılımcıların yönlendirildiği görülmektedir. Ayrıca, Türkiye'de okutulan ders kitaplarının da ölçekler barındırdığı bilinmektedir. Araştırmalarda ayrıca yönlendirmeler ışığında öğretmenlerin olağan değerlendirme süreçlerinde de ölçek kullandığı varsayılmaktadır. Alanyazında öğretmenlerin ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntem ve tekniklerini araştıran çok sayıda araştırma olmasına rağmen öğretmenlerin puanlama davranışlarını betimleyen çalışmaların sayısı sınırlıdır. Bunun yanı sıra, öğretmenlerin yönlendirilmediğinde nasıl bir yol izleyerek değerlendirme yapacakları konusunda bilgi içeren araştırmaya da rastlanmamıştır. Bu nedenle bu araştırmada yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde sergiledikleri puanlama davranışlarının incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda araştırma kapsamında aşağıda sunulan iki soru ve alt sorulara yanıt aranmaktadır:

1) Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi kapsamında yabancı dil öğretmenleri, üretilen bir metni puanlarken hangi puanlayıcı davranışlarını sergilemektedir?

a) Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi kapsamında yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin, üretilen bir metne verdikleri puanlar ile öğretmenlerin demografik özellikleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?

b) Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi kapsamında yabancı dil öğretmenleri, üretilen bir metni puanlarken hangi tür işaretleme davranışlarını sergilemektedir?

c) Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi kapsamında yabancı dil öğretmenleri, üretilen bir metni puanlarken öğrenci hataları konusunda nasıl bir yol izlemektedir?

d) Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi kapsamında yabancı dil öğretmenleri, üretilen bir metni puanlarken ürünün hangi boyutlarına odaklanmaktadır?

2) Yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi kapsamında yabancı dil öğretmenleri, üretilen bir metni puanlama süreçlerini nasıl betimlemektedir?

Yöntem

Yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde puanlama yaparken sergiledikleri davranışlarının betimlenmesinin amaçlandığı bu çalışmada öğretmenlerden, mütercim tercümanlık öğrenimi görmekte olan öğrencilere yazdırılan ve rastgele örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilen İngilizce ve Fransızca B1 düzeyindeki aynı paragrafı puanlamaları ve puanlama süreçlerini betimlemeleri istenmiştir. Öğretmenlerin puanlama yaptıkları kâğıtlar incelenerek ve çeşitli değişkenlere göre karşılaştırılarak puanlama davranışlarının belirlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin kendi değerlendirme süreçlerini betimledikleri paragrafların incelenmesi ile de yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde nasıl bir yol izlediklerinin anlaşılması hedeflenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Katılımcıları

Araştırmaya puanlayıcı olarak toplam 73 öğretmen gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. Çoğunluğunu kadın öğretmenlerin oluşturduğu katılımcılar genellikle 31-40 yaş aralığındadır. Yabancı dil öğretmeni olan katılımcıların çoğunluğu İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümü mezunudur. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin büyük bir çoğunluğu formasyon eğitimi almıştır ve 15 yıl üstü bir deneyime sahiptir. Ek olarak, çalıştıkları düzey genellikle üniversite olup devlet okullarında görev yapmaktadırlar. Katılımcıların demografik özelliklerine ilişkin ayrıntılı veriler Çizelge 1'de sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 1. Katılımcılara İlişkin Bilgiler

Değişken	Kategori	s	Yüzde (%)
Cinsiyet	Erkek	15	20.5
	Kadın	58	79.5
Yaş	20-30 arası	11	15.1
	31-40 arası	30	41.1
	41-50 arası	24	32.9
	51 ve üstü	8	11.0
Mezuniyet	İngilizce Öğretmenliği	48	65.8
	Diğer	25	34.2
Formasyon	Var	71	97.3
	Yok	2	2.7
Deneyim	1-5 yıl	6	8.2
	6-10 yıl	15	20.5
	11-15 yıl	14	19.2
	16-20 yıl	17	23.3
	21 yıl ve üstü	21	28.8
Kademe	İlkokul	6	8.2
	Ortaokul	7	9.6
	Lise	20	27.4
	Üniversite	35	47.9
	Birden çok	5	6.8
Kurum	Devlet	62	84.9
	Özel	11	15.1

Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırmanın verileri yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniği ile elde edilmiştir. Bu amaçla hazırlanan veri toplama formu üç bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde katılımcı öğretmenlerin cinsiyet, yaş, mezun oldukları program, mesleki deneyim, şu anda çalışılan öğretim düzeyi, branşı ve kurum bilgileri gibi demografik özelliklerine yönelik sorulara yer verilmiştir. İkinci bölümde öğretmenlerden verilen paragrafı 100 üzerinden puanlamaları, üçüncü bölümde ise puanlama yapma süreçlerini yazılı olarak kısaca anlatmaları istenmiştir.

Yayın Etiği

Görüşme formuna yönelik etik kurul izni Kırıkkale Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşerî Bilimler Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan 18/10/2022 tarih 09 no'lu karar ile alınmıştır.

Verilerin Çözümlenmesi

Elde edilen verilerin çözümlenmesinde belge inceleme ve betimsel çözümleme tekniği kullanılmıştır. Çözümlemenin ilk aşamasında çalışma grubunu oluşturan öğretmenlerin demografik özelliklerine odaklanılmış ve veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılan öğretmen formunun ilk bölümünden belge inceleme tekniği ile elde edilen veriler yorumlanmıştır. İkinci aşamada, veri toplama formunun ikinci bölümüyle ilgili gözlemler gerçekleştirilmiş ve belge inceleme ve betimsel çözümleme yoluyla katılımcı öğretmenlerin, paragrafı puanlama şekilleri araştırmacılar tarafından incelenmiş ve öğretmenlerin kâğıt üzerinde gösterdikleri davranışlar belirlenmiştir. Bu davranışlar öncelikle kodlanmış ve sonrasında araştırma sorularından yola çıkılarak oluşturulan tematik çerçeve içerisinde ilgili temaya yerleştirilmiştir. Veri inceleme sürecinin üçüncü aşamasında ise öğretmen formunun üçüncü bölümünden yararlanılmıştır. Bu amaçla öğretmenlerin kendi değerlendirme süreçlerini betimledikleri paragraflar araştırmacılar tarafından okunmuş ve ifade ettikleri puanlama davranışları belirlenmiştir. Aynı şekilde, ifade edilen bu davranışlar kodlanarak yukarıda bahsedilen tematik çerçeveye yerleştirilmiştir. Dolayısıyla, araştırma kapsamında öğretmenlerin demografik özellikleri, puanlama davranışları ve puanlama davranışlarına yönelik söylemleri olmak üzere üç veri kümesi elde edilmiştir. İkinci ve üçüncü veri kümelerinin karşılaştırmalı incelemeleri birinci veri kümesine dayanılarak yapılmaktadır. Ayrıca ikinci ve üçüncü veri kümesinin incelenmesi ile öğretmenlerin söylemleri ile eylemleri arasında tutarlılık olup olmadığının yanı sıra yaş, cinsiyet, deneyim ve puanlama davranışı arasında ilişki olup olmadığının saptanması amaçlanmıştır. Elde edilen bulgular sayı ve yüzde olarak ve çizelgeler yardımıyla sunulmuştur.

Söz konusu çalışmada yazma becerisinin ölçülmesi için sadece kompozisyon yazma tekniğinin kullanılması araştırmanın en önemli sınırlılığıdır. Kompozisyon yazmada öğrencinin dilbilgisel bilgisinin yanı sıra sözdizimsel, anlambilimsel, kullanımbilimsel ve metinbilimsel bilgisinin de kullanılması gerektiği için her türlü yazma becerisinin bu şekilde en kısa yoldan ölçülebileceği düşünülmüştür. Çalışma kapsamında katılımcı öğretmenlerin puanlama davranışlarının incelenmesi amaçlandığı için farklı öğrenciler tarafından üretilen paragraflardan ziyade İngilizce ve Fransızca olmak üzere birer öğrenci

kompozisyonu kullanılmıştır. Böylece öğrenci değişikliği faktörü çalışma dışında tutulmuştur. Türkiye'de yabancı dil olarak farklı dillerin öğretimi söz konusu olsa da en yaygın öğretilen yabancı dil İngilizce ve Fransızca olduğu için ve uygulanabilirlik ilkesi gereği çalışma bu iki dilin öğretmenleriyle sınırlandırılmıştır.

Bulgular

Puanlayıcıların Davranışlarına Yönelik Bulgular

Katılımcıların verdikleri puanlar incelendiğinde en düşük puanın 40, en yüksek puanın ise 100 tam puan olduğu görülmektedir. Verilen puana ilişkin temel bulgu katılımcı öğretmenlerin puan tercihlerinde önemli farklılık olduğu yönündedir. Puanlara ilişkin sayılar ve oranlar Çizelge 2'de sunulmaktadır.

Çizelge 2. Katılımcıların Verdikleri Puanlar

Puan	s	Yüzde (%)
81-100 arası	41	56.2
61-80 arası	20	27.4
40-60 arası	7	9.6
En az 90	1	1.4
Tam puan	1	1.4
Puan yok	2	2.7
Toplam	73	100.0

Puanlama üzerinde yapılan incelemeler sırasında, 73 öğretmenden ikisi herhangi bir puan vermediğinden çözümlemeye dâhil edilmemiştir. Dolayısıyla 71 öğretmenin vermiş olduğu puanlar üzerinde inceleme yapılmıştır. Buna göre ilk olarak puanların normal dağılım sergileyip sergilemediğine bakılmıştır. Çizelge 3'te görüldüğü üzere, çarpıklık ve basıklık katsayıları $-1<p>1$ arasında olmadığı için ve Kolmogorov testi sonucu $p<0.05$ olduğu için veriler normal dağılım sergilememiştir.

Çizelge 3. Puanlamalara İlişkin Verilerin Çarpıklık ve Basıklık Katsayıları

Katılımcı Sayısı	Ortalama	Çarpıklık Katsayısı	Basıklık Katsayısı	Kolmogorov Smirnov Katsayısı
71	82.89	-1.336	1.767	.000

Puanlama verileri normal dağılım sergilemediği için öğretmenlerin cinsiyetlerine göre verdikleri puanlar arasında fark olup olmadığını incelemek üzere veriler Mann-Whitney testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Yapılan inceleme sonucunda $p<0.05$ olduğu için kadın ve erkek öğretmenlerin verdiği puanlar arasında kadınlar lehine anlamlı bir fark olduğu görülmüştür (bkz. Çizelge 4). Sıra ortalamaları ve toplamları daha yüksek olduğu için kadın öğretmenlerin erkeklere göre daha yüksek puan verdikleri anlaşılmaktadır.

Çizelge 4. Puanlamalara İlişkin Verilerin Cinsiyet Değişkenine Göre İncelenmesi

Kategori	Sayı	Ortalama	Sıra Ortalaması	Sıra Toplamı	U	P
Kadın	57	84.67	38.89	2216.50	234.500	.017
Erkek	14	75.64	24.25	339.50		

Çalışma grubunu oluşturan öğretmenlerin devlet veya özel kurumlarda çalıştığı görülmüştür. Çalıştıkları kurum açısından verdikleri puanlar arasında fark olup olmadığını incelemek için yine veriler normal dağılım sergilemediği için Mann-Whitney testi kullanılmıştır. Çizelge 5'te görüldüğü üzere, p=0.004<0.05 olduğu için öğretmenlerin verdiği puanlar arasında çalıştıkları kurum değişkenine göre anlamlı bir fark vardır. Sıra ortalamaları ve toplamları daha yüksek olduğu için devlet kurumlarında çalışan öğretmenlerin özel kurumlarda çalışanlara göre puanlamalarının daha yüksek olduğu anlaşılmaktadır.

Çizelge 5. Puanlamalara İlişkin Verilerin Çalışılan Kurum Değişkenine Göre İncelenmesi

Kategori	Sayı	Ortalama	Sıra Ortalaması	Sıra Toplamı	U	P
Devlet	61	85.23	38.87	2371.00	130.000	.004
Özel	10	68.60	18.50	185.00		

Öğretmenlerin puanlamalarının mesleki deneyim sürelerine göre değişiklik gösterip göstermediğinin incelenmesi amacıyla veriler, deneyim süreleri beş kategoriye ayrıldığı için Kruskall Walls testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Yapılan inceleme sonucunda p=0.104>0.05 olduğu için öğretmenlerin mesleki deneyim sürelerine göre verdiği puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığı görülmüştür (bkz. Çizelge 6).

Çizelge 6. Puanlamalara İlişkin Verilerin Mesleki Deneyim Süresi Değişkenine Göre İncelenmesi

Kategori	Sayı	Ortalama	Sıra Ortalaması	sd	Ortalama	P
1-5 yıl	6	73.17	29.25			
6-10 yıl	14	77.43	24.29			
11-15 yıl	13	84.77	39.00	4	7.688	.104
16-20 yıl	17	87.00	42.91			
21 ve üstü	21	84.81	38.29			

Öğretmenlerin puanlamalarının çalıştıkları kademeye göre değişiklik gösterip göstermediğinin incelenmesi amacıyla veriler, kademeler beş kategoriye ayrıldığı için Kruskall Walls testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Çizelge 7'de görüldüğü üzere, öğretmenlerin kademelerine göre puanlamaları arasında anlamlı bir fark (p=0.036<0.05) vardır. Ortalamalarına bakıldığında birden çok kademede çalışan öğretmenlerin ve üniversite düzeyinde çalışan öğretmenlerin diğerlerinden daha düşük puan verdikleri anlaşılmaktadır.

Çizelge 7. Puanlamalara İlişkin Verilerin Çalışılan Kademe Değişkenine Göre İncelenmesi

Kategori	Sayı	Ortalama	Sıra Ortalaması	sd	Ortalama	P
İlkokul	6	86.33	37.50			
Ortaokul	6	85.83	37.42			
Lise	19	86.11	40.32	4	10.265	.036
Üniversite	35	83.97	37.14			
Birden çok	5	55.40	8.10			

Puanların dışında, bir numaralı araştırma sorusunun b, c, d alt sorularına yanıt vermek üzere katılımcıların değerlendirme yaptıkları kâğıt üzerinde işaretleme davranışları, hata türüne yaklaşımları, öğrenciyle etkileşim tercihleri ve odaklandıkları hatalar gözlemlenmiştir. Bu amaçla a) işaretleme yapılıp yapılmadığı b) yapıldı ise kaç işaret konduğu c) hata türünün belirtilip belirtilmediği d) öğrenciye uyarıda bulunulup bulunulmadığı e) hataların düzeltilip düzeltilmediği f) işaretlemede kodlama yapılıp yapılmadığı g) dilsel bileşen hatalarına dikkat edilip edilmediği (dilbilgisi, noktalama, yazım, sözvarlığı, sözdizim) h) söylem türünün göz önünde bulundurulup bulundurulmadığı ı) içeriğin doğruluğuna dikkat edilip edilmediği i) ölçek kullanılıp kullanılmadığı sorularının yanıtları aranmıştır. Bu yönlere ilişkin gözlem sonuçları Çizelge 8'de ayrıntılı bir şekilde sunulmaktadır. Yapılan inceleme sonucunda, öğretmenlerin genel olarak kâğıt üzerinde hataları düzelttikleri ve dilbilgisi ve ifade yanlışlarına odaklandıkları görülmüştür.

Çizelge 8. Puanlayıcıların Davranışlarına İlişkin Genel Gözlemler

Davranış Kategorisi	s	Yüzde (%)
İşaretleme ile yetinilmiş	30	41.1
Hata türü belirtilmiş	8	11.1
Öğrenciye uyarıda bulunulmuş	11	15.1
Hata düzeltilmiş	47	64.4
İşaretlemede kodlama yapılmış	2	2.7
Dilbilgisi hataları dikkate alınmış	64	87.7
Yazım yanlışları dikkate alınmış	35	47.9
Noktalama yanlışları dikkate alınmış	26	35.6
Sözcük yanlışları dikkate alınmış	31	42.5
İfade yanlışları dikkate alınmış	32	43.8
Söylem türü (mektup) özellikleri dikkate alınmış	12	16.4
İçeriğin doğruluğu göz önünde bulundurulmuş	5	6.8
Ölçek kullanılmış	10	13.7

Puanlayıcıların Söylemlerine Yönelik Bulgular

İki numaralı araştırma sorusunun yanıtlamak üzere katılımcıların puanlama sırasında izledikleri yolu açıkladıkları metinler çözümlendiğinde biri ölçek kullanımı, diğeri ise odaklanılan yön olmak üzere iki ana boyut ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ölçek kullanımına ilişkin boyutta katılımcının ölçek kullandığına ilişkin bilgi verip vermemesi, buna bağlı olarak herhangi bir ölçek çizip çizmemesi, ölçekte puanlama yaparken her bir hataya kaç puan

vereceği ve ölçekteki bölüm sayısına ilişkin veriler elde edilen veriler Çizelge 9'da ayrıntılı olarak sunulmuştur. İnceleme sonucunda öğretmenlerin çoğunluğunun, ölçek çizerek değerlendirmeyi bu ölçeğe göre gerçekleştirdiği görülmüştür. Bununla birlikte, katılımcılar ölçek kullanımına ilişkin farklı söylemlerde de bulunmuştur. Bu bağlamda en göze çarpan fark, Çizelge 9'da da görüldüğü gibi, geliştirilen ölçekteki bölüm sayılarının farklılık göstermesidir. Diğer bir fark ise puanlayıcıların çoğunluğunun ölçekteki bölümlere aynı veya farklı puanları öngörmesidir.

Çizelge 9. Puanlayıcıların Ölçek Kullanımına İlişkin Söylemleri

Ölçek Tercihleri		s	Yüzde (%)
Ölçek kullandığını belirtme		4	5.5
Ölçek çizme		26	35.6
Ölçekteki bölüm sayısı	2	1	1.4
	3	3	4.1
	4	9	12.3
	5	7	9.6
	6	1	1.4
Ölçekteki her bölüme aynı puanı verme		16	21.9
Ölçekteki her bölüme farklı puan verme		10	13.7
Ölçekte puan kullanmama		2	2.7
Ölçekte hata puan ilişkisini söyleme		3	4.1

Katılımcıların söylemlerinden hareketle odaklandıkları veya göz önünde bulundurdukları yönlere ilişkin çözümlemeler çok farklı tercihlerin var olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Nitekim puanlayıcılar inceledikleri kâğıtta bütünlük, bağdaşıklık, bağlaşıklık, konuya uygunluk, içerik, dil kullanımı, tutarlılık, anlaşılırlık, dilbilgisi, noktalama, yazım yanlışı, sözcük bilgisi, sözcük sayısı, zaman, hedef kitle, amaç, tür özellikleri, metin bölümleri, düzen, kanıtlar/örnekler, kâğıt düzeni, yazı şekli, yaratıcılık, biçem, akıcılık, dikkat çekicilik, düşünme biçimi, sınıf içi katılım, yaş, planlama ve düzey gibi noktaları göz önünde bulundurduklarını belirtmektedirler. Bunların katılımcı grubu içerisindeki sıklık düzeyleri ile oranlarına bakıldığında yalnızca 1'er katılımcının hedef kitle, sınıf içi katılım, yaş, uyruk ve yaratıcılık sözcükleriyle kodladığımız değişkenleri dikkate aldığı, bu sayının da her bir değişken için %1.4'lük bir orana karşılık geldiği görülmektedir. Hedef kitle üretilen metnin kime yazıldığını, sınıf içi katılım öğrencinin derste gösterdiği performansı belirtirken yaş, metni üretenin çocuk veya yetişkin olup olmadığının, uyruk ise metin üreticisinin öğrenilen dil ile yakınlık ve uzaklık ilişkisinin göz önünde bulundurulduğunu göstermektedir. Katılımcıların göz önünde bulundurdukları değişkenler arasında kâğıt düzeni, akıcılık, düşünme biçimi, konuya uygunluk, bütünlük, kanıtlar/örnekler, tür özellikleri, metin bölümleri, düzey, dil kullanımı, bağdaşıklık, yazım yanlışı, içerik ve noktalama dikkat çekerken metnin düzeni, anlaşılırlık, sözcük bilgisi ve dilbilgisi en fazla üzerinde durulan değişkenlerdir. Sözü edilen değişkenler konusunda katılımcı tercihlerini gösteren sayılar ile oranlar aşağıdaki çizelgede topluca sunulmaktadır.

Çizelge 10. Puanlayıcıların Puanlamada Dikkate Alınan Yön Konusundaki Söylemleri

Odaklanılan Yön	s	Yüzde (%)
Hedef kitle	1	1.4
Sınıf içi katılım	1	1.4
Yaş	1	1.4
Uyruk	1	1.4
Yaratıcılık	1	1.4
Biçem	2	2.7
Tutarlılık	2	2.7
Zaman	2	2.7
Dikkat çekicilik	2	2.7
Planlama	2	2.7
Yazı biçimi	3	4.1
Bağlaşıklık	4	5.5
Sözcük sayısı	4	5.5
Amaç	4	5.5
Kâğıt düzeni	8	11.0
Akıcılık	8	11.0
Düşünme biçimi	8	11.0
Konuya uygunluk	9	12.3
Bütünlük	10	13.7
Kanıtlar/Örnekler	11	15.1
Tür özellikleri	12	16.4
Metin bölümleri	14	19.2
Düzey	14	19.2
Dil kullanımı	15	20.5
Bağdaşıklık	16	21.9
Yazım yanlışı	16	21.9
İçerik	20	27.4
Noktalama	20	27.4
Düzen	22	31.5
Anlaşılırlık	24	32.9
Sözcük bilgisi	35	47.9
Dilbilgisi	68	93.2

Özetlemek gerekirse, elde edilen veriler, araştırma sorularına ilişkin çok sayıda bulguyu ortaya koymaktadır. Birinci bulgu kümesi, öğretmenlerin değerlendirdikleri kâğıt üzerinde yaptıkları işlemleri ilgilendirmektedir. Buna göre, öğretmenler arasında işaretleme yaklaşımları konusunda ortak bir tercih gözlenmemektedir. Kimileri altını çizmek veya daire içine almak gibi işaretleme yaklaşımlarını tercih ederken az sayıda da olsa kimileri hata türünü belirterek işaretlemeyi tercih etmiştir.

İkinci bulgu kümesi öğretmenlerin verdikleri puanları ilgilendirmektedir. Buna göre, katılımcı öğretmenler aynı kâğıda önemli ölçüde farklı puanlar vermektedir. Nitekim aynı kâğıda 40 ile 100 puan arasında değişen puanlar verilmiştir. Üçüncü bulgu kümesi ölçek kullanımına ilişkin uygulamaları ilgilendirmektedir. Buna göre, hiç ölçek kullanmayanlar

olduğu kadar, ölçek kullananlar da vardır. Dördüncü ve son bulgu kümesi cinsiyet, çalışılan kurumun niteliği, deneyim ve çalışılan kademeye göre, verilen puanda fark olup olmadığına ilişkindir.

Son bulgu kümesi katılımcıların ölçme değerlendirmede odaklandığı yöne ilişkin olup bu noktada katılımcıların önemli bir bölümü yazılı anlatım ürününün dilbilgisel boyutuna odaklandığı anlaşılmaktadır. Onu sırasıyla sözcük bilgisi, anlaşılırlık, düzen, noktalama ve içerik boyutları izlerken bunlar da dilbilgisel boyuta dâhildir. Bağdaşıklık, dil kullanımı, metnin bölümleri gibi dilbilgisi dışı boyutlar görece daha az sayıda katılımcı tarafından göz önünde bulundurulmaktadır.

Tartışma

Katılımcı öğretmenlerin puanlama tercihlerinde önemli farklılıklar olduğuna yönelik bulgu birkaç yönden üzerinden durulması gereken bir bulgudur. Öncelikle, katılımcı öğretmenlere herhangi bir ölçek verilmeksizin puanlama yapmalarının beklenmiş olması nedeniyle puanlamada farklılık olması doğal bir sonuç olarak görülebilir. Nitekim alanyazında ölçek verildiğinde bile puanlayıcıların puanlamalarının farklı olduğunu gösteren çok sayıda çalışma (Bachman, 2004; Engelhard ve Myford, 2003; Hunter ve Docherty, 2011; Liu, 2022; Şeker, 2018,) mevcuttur. Öte yandan, bu farklılıkların 40 ile 100 gibi geniş bir aralıkta gerçekleşmesi puanlayıcıların verdikleri puanları güvenirlik bakımından kuşkulu hale getirmektedir. Puanlayıcıların puanlamalarının düşük güvenirlik sergilemesi Gyagenda ve Engelhard (2009) tarafından gerçekleştirilen, 20 puanlayıcı öğrencinin 366 kompozisyonu ölçek kullanarak puanladıkları araştırmanın sonuçlarıyla uyumludur. Çünkü söz konusu araştırmada puanlayıcı eğitimi verilen 20 puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasında güvenirlik katsayısı düşük çıkmıştır. Aynı araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular ile bizim bulgularımız, ölçek verilsin verilmesin veya eğitim almış olsun olmasın öğretmenlerin puanlamada farklı tercihlerde bulunduklarını gösteriyor olmaları bakımından dikkate değerdir. Puanlamadaki bu farklılık oluşturulan ölçekteki boyutların tamamında gözlenirken bizim araştırmamızda da katılımcı öğretmenlerin ölçek oluşturduklarında ölçekteki her bir boyuta aynı veya farklı puan öngördükleri gözlemlenmiştir. Ölçekteki boyutların farklı puanlanması, bir yanıyla puanlayıcıdan diğer yanıyla değerlendirilen boyutun mutlak değer olarak ifade edilemiyor oluşundan kaynaklanabilmektedir. Puanlayıcının, ilgili boyutu önemli görüp görmemesi, değerlendirirken gerekli özeni ve dikkati gösterip göstermemesi puanlayıcıdan kaynaklı farklılıklara yol açabilirken değerlendirilen boyutun doğası gereğince tek ve ülküsel bir yanıtının olmaması da değerlendirilen boyuta bağlı farklılıklara yol açabilmektedir. Öte yandan dilbilgisi gibi kimi boyutlar görece daha mutlak değer olarak ifade edilebilmesine rağmen farklı puanlanıyor olması tüm çabalara rağmen değerlendirme sürecinde puanlama farklılıklarının ortadan kaldırılamayacağını düşündürmektedir. Şeker (2018)'in Türkiye'de bir okulda çalışan üç İngilizce öğretmeni ile gerçekleştirdiği çalışmasında yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde puanlayıcı/öğretmenin davranışları konusunda benzer sonuçlar ortaya koymaktadır. Söz konusu çalışmanın gerçekleştirildiği okulda yazma becerisi önceden hazırlanmış standart bir ölçek ile değerlendirilmiştir. Öğrenciler tarafından üretilen ve okul sistemi içinde sınav olarak kullanılmış olan paragraflardan düşük düzey, orta düzey ve iyi düzeydekiler eşit sayıda olacak biçimde toplamda 75

paragraf seçilmiş ve üç öğretmenden üç gün içinde bu paragrafların 25 tanesini aynı ölçeği kullanarak puanlamaları istenmiştir. Daha sonra diğer 25'ini üç öğretmen tartışarak beraber puanlamıştır ve bu tartışma kayıt altına alınmıştır. Üç hafta sonra ise kalan 25 paragrafı bireysel olarak aynı ölçekle puanlamaları istenmiştir. İlk puanlamadan elde edilen veriler incelendiğinde üç öğretmenin de aynı ölçeği kullanmasına rağmen farklı puanlar verdikleri görülmüştür. Öğretmenlerin ölçekte yer alan dilbilgisel doğruluk, sözlüksel doğruluk, sözdizimsel doğruluk, düzen, mekanik özellikler gibi boyutlarda farklı yargılarda bulundukları anlaşılmıştır. Yapılan istatistiki işlem sonucunda üç öğretmenin ölçekteki maddelere verdikleri puanların birbirleriyle uyumlu olmadığı görülmüştür. Öğretmenlerin beraber tartışarak puanlama yaptıkları oturum kayıtları izlendiğinde öğretmenlerin ilk gün puanlama kararlarının nedenleri konusunda çekince yaşadıkları görülmüştür. İkinci gün öğretmenlerin rahatladığı, birbirleriyle fikir alışverişinde oldukları ve belli boyutlarda ayrı ayrı uzmanlık sergiledikleri tespit edilmiştir. Örneğin dilbilgisel doğruluk konusundaki tartışmalarda bir öğretmenin iddiası dayanak olarak alınırken düzen konusunda başka bir öğretmenin görüşünün temel alındığı bulgulanmıştır. Ayrıca puanlama sürecinin ilk gün daha uzun sürdüğü ancak giderek kısaldığı da araştırma bulguları arasındadır. Süreç sonunda öğretmenlerin yaptıkları puanlamayı daha adil buldukları, tek başına karar vermedikleri için sorumluluğu paylaştıkları anlaşılmıştır. Üç hafta sonra bireysel olarak yapılan puanlama verileri incelendiğinde öğretmenlerin dilbilgisel doğruluk, sözlüksel doğruluk, düzen ve mekanik boyutta benzer puanlama yaptıkları görülmüştür. Çalışma; aynı standart ölçeği kullansalar bile öğretmenlerin aynı kâğıtları farklı şekillerde puanladıklarını; öğretmenlerin bir kısmı yapıya odaklanırken, bir kısmının doğruluğa, bir kısmının da akıcılığa odaklandığını göstermiştir. Şeker (2018)'in çalışmasının dikkat çeken bulgularından biri öğretmenlerin toplamda üç gün süren tartışma sürecinin farklı aşamalarında farklı tepkiler ortaya koymuş olmalarıdır. Nitekim katılımcılar tartışma yaparak gerçekleştirdikleri puanlamanın ilk gününde sessiz ve tereddüt içeren davranışlar sergilerlerken ilerleyen günlerde puanlama konusunda tereddüt hissetmeden fikir tartışmaları yapar ve daha özgüvenli kararlar alır hale gelmişlerdir. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin kullandıkları ölçeği de tartıştıkları ve ölçeğin yetersiz kaldığı yönleri belirledikleri görülmüştür. Daha sonra tekrar yapılan bireysel değerlendirmede öğretmenler arasındaki farklılık azalmış, tartışma yoluyla puanlama kısmında edindikleri deneyim ve bilgileri kendi puanlamalarında kullandıkları görülmüştür. Dolayısıyla çalışma puanlama sürecinde paydaşlarla iş birliği ve tartışma içinde olmanın puanlayıcılar açısından önemli katkıları olduğunu ve değerlendirme sürecine tutarlılık kattığını göstermektedir. Şeker (2018)'in bulgularıyla karşılaştırıldığında araştırmamızdan elde edilen bulgular, araştırmamıza veri sağlayan katılımcıların bireysel olarak önerdikleri ölçeklerdeki farklılıklar ile kimi yönleriyle tutarsız ölçek hazırlama girişimlerinin benzer olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Puanlama tercihlerinde kadın ve erkek puanlayıcılar arasında kadınlar lehine anlamlı bir farklılık bulunması alanyazındaki kimi araştırma verileriyle (Peterson, Childs ve Kennedy, 2004) uyuşmazken cinsiyete bağlı olarak puanlamada farklılıkların bulunduğunun gözlendiği araştırmalar (Gyagenda ve Engelhard, 2009) da mevcuttur. Nitekim Peterson, Childs ve Kennedy (2004) tarafından Kanada'da anadili öğretimi

alanında çalışan 108 öğretmenle gerçekleştirilen araştırmada iki kız ve iki erkek öğrenci tarafından üretilen öyküleyici ve tartışmacı kompozisyonları puanlamaları istenmiş, öğretmenlerin verdiği puanlar arasında puanlayıcının cinsiyetine göre sadece bir kompozisyon fark olduğu, cinsiyetler arası farklılığa dair tutarlı sonuçlar olmadığı ve puanlanan ürünün üreticisinin cinsiyetine bağlı olarak anlamlı bir fark olmadığı gözlenmemiştir. Buna karşılık, Gyagenda ve Engelhard (2009) tarafından yapılan çalışmada öğrencilerin cinsiyeti açısından bakıldığında erkek ve kız öğrenciler arasındaki farklılıkların kızlar lehine anlamlı olduğu görülmüştür. Araştırmada bu farklılığın gerekçesinin, kız öğrencilerin yazma becerisinde daha başarılı olduklarına dair hâkim olan bir inanış veya öğretmenlerin erkek öğrencilerin yazma becerisini geliştirmek için onlar tarafından üretilen ürüne daha çok odaklanması olabileceği belirtilmiştir. Ancak bu araştırmada 20 eğitimli puanlayıcının cinsiyeti incelemelerde dikkate alınmamış ve puanlayıcıların cinsiyet açısından dağılımları verilmemiştir.

Araştırma bulgularımız arasında ölçek oluşturulurken bölüm sayısının ve bölüm başına düşen puanların kimi katılımcılarda aynı kimilerinde farklı olarak belirlenmiş olması katılımcı öğretmenlerin aynı ürünü farklı şekillerde algıladıklarını göstermesi bakımından önemlidir. Büyük çoğunluğu öğretmenlik formasyonuna sahip katılımcıların bu yönde sergiledikleri tercih farklılıkları Wang vd. (2017) tarafından gerçekleştirilen araştırma verileriyle koşutluk göstermektedir. Uzmanlarca sağlanan puanlama eğitimini alan 20 puanlayıcı, yedinci sınıf öğrencilerince yazılmış 100 kompozisyonu kendilerine sağlanan çözümleyici ölçek aracılığıyla puanladıkları sırada yürütülen gözlemler ile Puanlayıcı Algısını belirlemeye yönelik formdan elde edilen veriler, puanlayıcı eğitimi veren uzmanlarla puanlayıcıların yanı sıra puanlayıcıların kendi aralarında birçok noktada farklı görüşlere sahip olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Örneğin puanlayıcılar ile eğitim veren uzmanlar puanlaması en zor kompozisyonun seçiminde, puanlayıcı hatasına yol açan bölümler, yazılı ürünün odak noktası, metnin alımlanması ve fikirlerin düzenlenmesi konularında uyuşmazlıklar olduğu görülmüştür. Bu uyuşmazlıklar aynı ölçek kullanılsa bile bunun puanlayıcılar için yeterince açık ve anlaşılır olmaması durumunda farklı sonuçlara yol açabileceğini göstermesi bakımından önemlidir. Öte yandan ölçek ne kadar geçerli ve güvenilir olursa olsun puanlayıcının bilgisinin, birikiminin ve dikkatinin ölçeği algılamada ve kullanmada daha belirleyici olduğunu akla getirmektedir.

Araştırma bulgularımız arasında, değerlendirilen yazılı ürünün odaklanılan boyutlarının hem aşırı çeşitlilik göstermesi hem de aslında aynı kavramların farklı terimlerle ifade edilmesi puanlamayı yapan katılımcıların bu noktadaki birikimlerinin farklı olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Örneğin ölçekte dilbilgisi başlığı altında yer verilen bölüm sözdizimi, yazım ve noktalamayı içeren bir üst başlık olması gerekirken bu üç bileşenin yanında diğer bir bileşen olarak değerlendirilmiştir. Benzer biçimde dil kullanımı, bağdaşıklık, bağlaşıklık, bütünlük, tutarlılık ve akıcılık başlıkları altında değerlendirilen boyutlardan bazıları anlam bakımından belirsiz olup puanlayıcının örneğin tutarlılık, bütünlük ile bağdaşıklık ve bağıntı arasında fark görüp görmediği sorusunu akla getirmektedir. Kaldı ki dil kullanımı kavramı ile kastedilenin de yukarıda sıralanan boyutları kapsaması gerekirken ayrı bir başlık olarak değerlendirilmesi bu konuda puanlayıcıların farklı bakış açılarına ve algılara sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu bulgu,

Wang vd. (2017)'nın araştırmasında varılan daha fazla örnek uygulama yapılması gerektiği yönündeki sonuca ek olarak, puanlayıcı eğitiminde yazılı anlatımın farklı boyutlarına ilişkin ayrımların daha kesin çizgilerle ortaya konması ve bunlar üzerinde özellikle durulması gerektiğini düşündürmektedir. Rahayu (2020)'nın yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi konusunda Endonezya'da ikinci dil olarak İngilizce öğreten 56 öğretmenle yaptığı çalışmada elde ettiği bulgular bu düşüncemizi güçlendirmektedir. Söz konusu araştırmada öğretmenlerden değerlendirme yöntem ve tekniklerine dair soruları içeren anketi cevaplamalarını ve ayrıca öyküleyici türde yazılmış olan iki kompozisyonu verilen çözümleyici ölçek ile puanlamalarını istemiştir. Dört bölümden oluşan anketteki sorular yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesine yönelik bilgiyi, puanlama doğruluğunun etkililiğini, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesindeki seçimlerin etkililiğini ve yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesindeki algılarını belirlemeye yönelik olarak hazırlanmıştır. Anketten elde edilen veriler öğretmenlerin, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesine ilişkin bilgilerinin, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesindeki seçimlerinin etkililiğinin, puanlama doğruluğunun etkililiğinin ve yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi uygulamasındaki algılarının; puanlamadaki başarılarını güvence altına almadığını göstermiştir. Diğer bir deyişle öğretmenlerin ankette verdikleri yanıtlar ile puanlama davranışları tutarlılık göstermemiştir. Öğretmenlerin yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesine ilişkin bilgilerinin, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesindeki seçimlerinin etkililiğinin ve yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi uygulamasındaki algılarının artması puanlamalarını olumsuz etkilerken puanlama doğruluğunun etkililiğinin artması puanlamalarını olumlu etkilemiştir. Çalışma sonucunda öğretmenlerin puanlamadaki etkililiğinin değerlendirmedeki öğretmen kalitesini etkilediğini anlaşılmıştır.

Puanlayıcıların dilbilgisine ve yazılı ürünün biçimsel boyutuna daha fazla odaklandıklarını gösteren araştırma bulgularımız, alanyazında yaygın olarak yer alan verilerle uyumludur. Weigle ve Montee (2012)'nin yazma becerisinin bütünleşik bir yaklaşımla değerlendirilmesi sürecinde puanlayıcıların algılarını konu alan çalışmaları, puanlayıcıların yazılı ürünün biçimsel bileşenlerine farklı şekilde önem verdiklerini gösterirken yazma sürecinde öğrencilerin kullandığı alımlama tekniğine karşı da farklı tavırlar sergilediklerini ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler

Yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin yazma becerisinin ölçülmesinde kullandıkları puanlama davranışlarının incelenmesinin amaçlandığı bu çalışma, araştırmaya veri sağlayan yabancı dil öğretmenleri olan puanlayıcıların yazılı anlatım ürününü puanlarken çok farklı davranışlar sergilediğini ortaya koymaktadır. Araştırma sınırlılıklarına rağmen alanyazında sorun olduğu belirtilen yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi sürecine yönelik önemli sonuçlar ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu çerçevede yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin yazma becerisini ölçme amaçlı olarak ürettirilen bir ürünü puanlarken değerlendirme ölçütü kullanıp kullanmadığına yönelik sorunun bütünüyle olumlu bir biçimde yanıtlanamayacağı görülmektedir. Nitekim örneklem grubunda değerlendirme ölçütü kullananların sınırlı sayıda olduğu görülmektedir. Puanlayıcıların puanlama yaparken sergilemiş oldukları davranışların ne kadar çeşitlilik gösterdiğinin belirlenmesine ve ölçüt kullanıp

kullanmadıklarına yönelik farklı örneklem gruplarıyla çalışma yapılmasının, bu araştırmada elde edilen bu sonucun genelleştirilebilmesi için yararlı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Öğretmenlerin yazma becerisini ölçme amaçlı olarak ürettirilen bir ürünü puanlarken ürünün hangi boyutlarına odaklandıklarını belirlemeye yönelik soru ise alanyazın verileriyle uyumlu olarak öğretmenlerin daha çok biçimsel boyuta odaklandıkları şeklinde karşılık bulmuştur. Oysaki yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesinde tüm boyutların göz önünde bulundurulması gerektiği alanyazında pek çok çalışma tarafından önerilmiştir. Ek olarak, araştırmanın üç numaralı sorusuna yanıt olarak sınırlı sayıda puanlayıcının hata türleri arasında ayrım yaptığını ve hatanın ağırlığı ile puan arasında denklik kurduğunu gösteren veriler elde edilmiştir. Bu noktada öğretmenlerin yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi konusundaki bilgilerinin sınırlı olduğu düşünülmüştür. Dolayısıyla, öğretmen yetiştiren kurumların öğretim programlarında yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi ile ilgili derslere yer vermesinin gerekli olduğu görülmektedir. Ayrıca, hâli hazırda öğretmen olarak çalışanlar için çeşitli kurslar veya seminerler aracılığıyla bu konudaki bilgi eksikliğinin giderilmesi alan için önem arz etmektedir.

Son olarak yaş, cinsiyet ve deneyim ile puanlama davranışları arasında fark olup olmadığına yönelik araştırma sorusu kadınların erkek puanlayıcılara göre; kamu kurumlarında çalışanların özel kurumlarda çalışanlara göre; birden çok kademede ve üniversitede görev yapanların diğerlerine göre daha yüksek puanlar verdiği; buna karşılık deneyim ile verilen puanların yüksekliği arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığı şeklinde karşılık bulmuştur. Bu farklılıkların daha farklı ve fazla örneklem grubunda da olup olmadığının anlaşılması ve bu farklılıkların altında yatan nedenlerin belirlenmeye çalışılması yazma becerisinde puanlayıcı etkisi konusundaki çalışmalara yeni boyut kazandırabilir. Puanlayıcı etkisine neden olan etmenlerin belirlenerek ortadan kaldırılmaya çalışılması yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi sürecinin daha güvenilir olmasını sağlar.

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Research Article

Intercultural Communicative Competence and Attitudes towards English Accents: Exploring the Nexus among EFL speakers

Burcu Gökgöz-Kurt[*]

ABSTRACT

The present study aims to explore the interplay between intercultural communicative competence and attitudes toward English accents among L2 English speakers at the tertiary level. Additionally, the study sought to examine the impact of self-rated proficiency and the year of enrollment in the degree program on the results. The participants were freshmen and sophomore students enrolled in a Turkish state university's English Translation and Interpreting Department. To gather data, the students were asked to complete a survey in which they self-assessed their intercultural communication competence and rated four English accent varieties on a 7-point Likert scale, considering status-related and solidarity-related characteristics as well as language-focused qualities. The findings indicated that there was no direct relationship between the self-rated intercultural communication competencies and perceptions of different English accents among EFL speakers. These findings held true for when excluding ratings of the American English variety from the analysis, but significant findings emerged, especially regarding individual speech samples. Furthermore, the self-reported proficiency level of EFL speakers and their status as second-year students in the degree program showed a positive correlation with intercultural communicative competence.

Conflict of Interest

The author declares no conflicts of interest.

Reference

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Introduction

It has long been recognized that culture plays a crucial role in the teaching and learning of languages (Alptekin, 1993; Brown, 1986). The concept that the connection between language and culture is unbreakable has faced challenges in the realm of sociology. However, when viewed from the perspective of psychology, language acquisition can be considered a journey profoundly entwined with culture. According to this view, teaching culture involves more than just teaching discrete facts as a pedagogical approach. On the other hand, from the sociological perspective of teaching culture, learners no longer solely rely on such inextricable relationships but rather accept the fact that when discourse comes into play, language and culture may be considered separable (Risager, 2006). This means that when one diverges from the notion that exclusively recognizes "native" culture and "native" speakers as the sole benchmarks for language learning, one also embraces the concept of English as a lingua franca (ELF). In this scenario, communication takes place among diverse individuals speaking English as their additional language while possessing distinct cultural assets.

Indeed, English, as the lingua franca of the globalized world, has already become the predominant medium of communication within the interconnected global realm. This brings about a great deal of variation in terms of language use given that the majority of this communication is performed by second-language (L2) speakers of English (Eberhard et al., 2020). In line with this, concepts such as World Englishes (WE) and ELF have gained popularity. One fundamental principle emphasized by these paradigms is the importance of including diverse pronunciation models in English as a second language (L2) classrooms rather than exclusively focusing on standard English accents (Jenkins, 2006). To facilitate effective communication amid such diversity, it is essential for interlocutors to possess intercultural communicative competence (ICC), which essentially means the ability to engage with individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds (Byram, 2021). ICC is considered to be an indispensable ability for all who strive for effective communication across cultures and nations for different reasons, such as business, education, or tourism to establish connections that successfully bridge cultural barriers (Van Houten & Shelton, 2018). Based on the assumption that intercultural competence fosters deeper understanding and respect, one can expect that individuals who are non-native English speakers (L2 speakers) and possess a strong level of intercultural competence (IC) will demonstrate a heightened propensity to engage in communication with individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds (Lee, 2020). Additionally, they are expected to demonstrate an awareness of and appreciation for cultural differences while simultaneously showing a reduced likelihood of harboring stereotypes and biases towards various accents and varieties of English (Derwing et al., 2002).

Research has shown how L2 English accent perception affects a variety of factors ranging from a speaker's comprehensibility (i.e., how difficult or easy it is to understand the speaker) (Saito et al., 2019) to their perceived competence in professional life (Baquiran & Nicoladis, 2020). Hence, understanding how L2 learners perceive different English accents and the impact of these perceptions on intercultural communication is essential for language educators and learners seeking to develop their intercultural competence. Existing research

provides valuable insights into the prominence of preparing L2 speakers to adopt strategies for cross-cultural communication by enhancing their perceptions of different varieties of English (Matsuda, 2017). Nevertheless, empirical studies are yet to determine the link between L2 learners/speakers' English accent perceptions and their competence in intercultural communication, which could ultimately inform language education practices for fostering more effective intercultural communication in diverse contexts. This study aims to address this gap by examining how tertiary-level EFL speakers' perceptions of English accents relate to their ICC level.

Literature Review

Perception of English Accents

Regardless of their native language, everybody has an accent which is defined as "the phonological characteristics of speech" (Derwing et al., 2014, p. 65). L2 speech with an accent is described as "nonpathological speech produced by second language (L2) learners that differs in partially systematic ways from the speech characteristic of native speakers of a given dialect" (Munro, 1998, p. 139). With the increased popularity of WE or ELF paradigms, which embrace and support the variety of accents of L2 speakers, it has been widely acknowledged that the "standard" pronunciation models should no longer be the only models for language learners (Jenkins, 2006). Although L2 speakers' perceptions of the degree of L2 accent have been found to affect the perceived degree of comprehensibility, these are known to stem from unsubstantiated claims that as a pronunciation model, the L1 accent is the only correct model of pronunciation (Kim, 2008; Lindemann, 2005).

However, despite the support behind the ELF paradigm which appreciates diversity in L2 accents, research has also shown that the listeners' perceptions are mainly shaped by factors such as social attitudes, stereotyping, L2 accents, and pronunciation (Kang & Rubin, 2009; Reid et al., 2019). Numerous studies exploring learners' preferences for L2 English accents have consistently shown that a significant majority of learners prefer native-like pronunciation standards or hold a more favorable opinion of native-like English accents (e.g., Li, 2009; Lindemann, 2003; Timmis, 2002). In a recent mixed-methods investigation conducted by Tsang (2020), L2 learners' perceptions of different L1 and L2 accents were assessed with respect to their appropriateness for an English teacher, their effectiveness as learning models, and their ability to capture learners' attention. The findings indicated that learners rated teachers with L1 English accents higher on suitability and for holding learners' attention. The qualitative findings not only reinforced the quantitative outcomes but also supplied additional validation. L2 English learners expressed that English instructors with L2 accents, who lacked proficient pronunciation skills, unintentionally proved to be inadequate language role models for their students. This, in turn, resulted in learners encountering embarrassing situations and communication breakdowns. However, it should be noted that the location of the learners might be an influential factor in learner perceptions. Kang (2015) investigated the L2 English learners' perceptions and beliefs regarding L2 pronunciation learning and L2 accents. The findings showed that as opposed to L2 learners residing in expanding circle countries (e.g., Türkiye, Spain), those located in inner and outer

circle countries expressed higher levels of discontentment with their present pronunciation curriculum, primarily due to factors such as the perplexity arising from multiple pronunciation models, instructors' exclusive focus on a single accent variety, and a lack of emphasis on incorporating English as a global language. Consequently, a more comprehensive integration of the WE concept within the language classrooms was emphasized.

Given that various paradigms approach the way L2 accent is/should be perceived from varying perspectives, one way to turn this conflict into mutual respect and understanding could be through increased tolerance and understanding of L2 varieties. Research has indicated that specialized training programs aimed at fostering awareness of ICC and the diversity of L2 accents have the potential to cultivate positive attitudes. At the same time, these programs may help alleviate apprehension and ambiguity in collaborative interactions with individuals from diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds (e.g., Kang et al., 2015). This includes training listeners, speakers, and raters of L2 English alike on the legitimacy of WE or ELF (Derwing & Munro, 2015; Kang & Yaw, 2021; Ramjattan, 2022) for fostering "social and cultural language awareness, promoting understanding and tolerance, and boosting communicative competence" (Fang & Yuan, 2011, p. 107).

However, it should be noted that while such training could positively affect attitudes, it is a relatively slow process (Fang & Yuan, 2011, p. 107), and the perceived degree of comprehensibility or intelligibility was not found to be influenced (Derwing et al., 2002). In addition, there are a variety of other factors affecting the attitudes toward L2 speech such as the proficiency of the L2 speakers (Ludwig & Mora, 2017; Nymeyer et al., 2022), social bias (e.g., Reid et al., 2019), or accent familiarity (Kahng, 2023; Winke et al., 2013; see also Hayes-Harb et al., 2008). Therefore, it may be unrealistic to expect everyone to become equally competent in intercultural communication even when they receive training on the awareness of ICC. Previous studies have shown that when evaluating second language (L2) speech, raters who were more tolerant, prioritized different linguistic factors over nativelikeness, and demonstrated a greater willingness to accept specific accent varieties of English for effective communication (Derwing et al., 2002; Saito et al., 2019). Therefore, there is a need to examine the role of various background variables in the assessments of L2 speakers.

Understanding Intercultural (Communicative) Competence

IC is defined as a multidimensional framework of knowledge, attitudes, skills, and beliefs that constantly evolves as new knowledge about target cultural concepts assimilates into the person's experience (Byram & Wagner, 2018; Deardorff, 2020). As a corollary to this way of looking at language and culture, Byram and Wagner (2018) maintained that terms such as "intercultural," "intercultural competence," and "intercultural speaker" were coined and used to challenge the idea of native speakers and their competence in language education. In the view of Fantini (2006), intercultural competence can be described as "a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself," which involves various fields such as "relationships, communication, and collaboration," or aspects such as

"knowledge, attitude, skills, and awareness," or characteristics such as host language proficiency (p. 12, emphasis in original). Alternative terms were also proposed in place of IC including "biculturalism," "cultural and intercultural sensitivity," "global-mindedness," "plurilingualism," "multiculturalism," (Fantini, 2018, p. 32) or "transcultural competence" (Biell & Doff, 2014). Fantini (2018, p. 32-33) maintains that all of these definitions represent "incomplete aspects of a more complex phenomenon" and proposes to use the term "intercultural communicative competence" since it endeavors to comprehensively represent the communicative aspect of intercultural competence with the inclusion of "speaking, behaving, and interacting." According to Fantini (2018), ICC comprises five components, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Components and Aspects of ICC (Adapted from Fantini, 2018, p. 35)
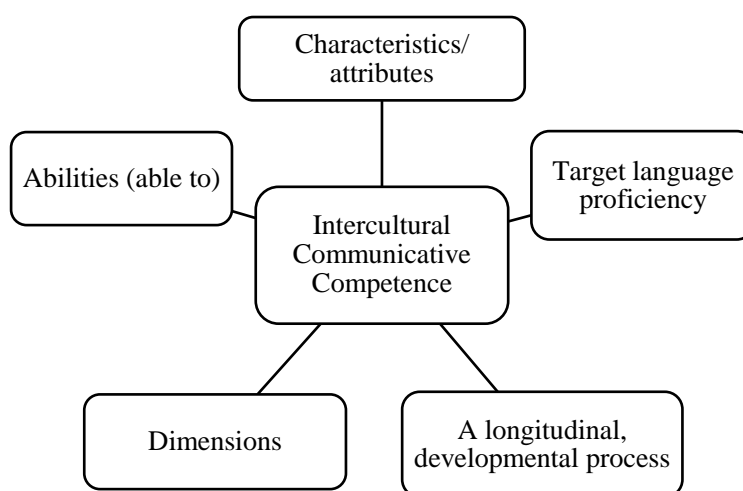
The first subcomponent of ICC involves "flexibility, humor, patience, openness, interest, curiosity, empathy, tolerance for ambiguity, and suspending judgments, among others," which could be both situational/contextual factors as well as in-born traits and may help educators in increasing their awareness of the characteristics that could be improved through their educational endeavors. The next big component is the abilities or domains which are summarized as "the ability" to "establish relationships, communicate well," and collaborate." Next, there are four dimensions, which are "(positive) attitudes/affect, skills, knowledge, and awareness," with awareness constituting a key role among the others. Finally, Fantini also mentions proficiency in the target language and "levels of attainment" as the other key components in ICC. According to his predefined levels, individuals could be categorized as "Level 1: Educational traveler," "Level II: Sojourner," "Level III: Professional," and "Level IV: Intercultural/multicultural specialist" (Fantini, 2018, p. 35-38). These components help explain the concept of ICC better by clarifying some of the more general terminology and approaches to IC in other academic domains making it more relevant to language education.

An alternative model proposed by Byram (1997, 2021) for explaining I(C)C involves the dimensions of knowledge, attitudes, skills, and education. According to the ICC model proposed by Byram (1997, 2021), attitudes refer to the perceptions related to the individuals' "cultural meanings, beliefs, values, behaviours they exhibit; such attitudes often remain

implicit in their interaction with interlocutors from their own social groups" (pp. 44-45). The knowledge dimension comprises (a) "knowledge of one's own social groups and their cultures and similar knowledge of the interlocutor's social groups and cultures," and (b) "knowledge of the processes of interaction at individual and societal levels" (p. 46). The dimension of skills involves individuals' (a) being able to interpret a document from a different country than their own by drawing on the knowledge of their own and other environments. It also comprises discovery, which may or may not be performed in interaction with society. An individual performs this when there is a gap or low familiarity with the countries and cultural information. Even though all of these dimensions may be acquired without formal education, teachers can incorporate them into their classroom instruction (Byram, 2021). As part of the discussion of his model, Byram (2021) also defines a sojourner, indicating that language learners seeking to be interculturally competent in communication should strive to become sojourners. According to him, as opposed to a tourist, a sojourner "has the opportunity to learn and be educated, acquiring the capacity to critique and improve their own and others' conditions, actions which are 'political'" (p. 2). However, Byram also indicates that although the wish is for them to reach the perspective of a sojourner by "experiencing and analyzing other ways of life…[and] change in themselves—whether they travel or not—in sum to be educated through language learning" (p. 3). Despite the primary role of foreign language learning, he adds that the teaching and assessment of ICC should not be confined to the teaching of languages, since subjects such as literature, history, and geography expose students to other cultures and experiences (Byram, 2021, pp. 5-6). In this vein, Byram and Wagner (2018) underscore that the purpose of culture learning should be to prepare language learners as intercultural communicators:

> What is especially important for educators and students to reflect on is the difference between being able to live in two cultures (or being bicultural, as if one were two native speakers in one person), often seen as the ill-conceived and impossible ideal toward which to strive in teaching and learning, and being able to act as a mediator between people of two or more different cultural and linguistic contexts, using one's intercultural skills and attitudes. (p. 145)

However, they also add that IC should not be considered a "by-product of language teaching," and thus second language (L2) teachers should make an effort to raise L2 learners' awareness as interculturally and communicatively competent speakers through language teaching (Byram & Wagner, 2018, p. 147).

Much attention has been devoted to ICC in English language learning and teaching in the context of Turkey (e.g., Alptekin, 1993; Atay et al., 2009; Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Çelik, 2013; Demircioğlu & Cakir, 2015; Gedik Bal & Savas, 2022; Kazykhankyzy & Alagözlü, 2019; Saricoban & Oz, 2014), and depending on the context and the participant profiles, the ICC level has varied. Research has also shown that individuals' ICC might be affected by a variety of factors such as overseas experience (Hismanoglu, 2011), interaction with English speakers in digital contexts (Lee, 2020), language proficiency (Nymeyer et al., 2022), or being trained/educated on cross-cultural communication (Hismanoglu, 2011). Furthermore, empirical research studying the relationship between the perceptions of English accents and ICC is limited. Lee (2020) conducted a study examining the interplay between informal digital learning of English, perceptions of varieties of English, and the use of strategic competence in cross-cultural communication. The study's findings revealed that the way

individuals perceive different accents acts as a mediating factor in the association between digital learning and the use of strategic competence for cross-cultural communication.

The Current Study

Previous studies have shown individuals with higher awareness of cultures other than their own will be more competent in cross-cultural communication. With the premise that intercultural competence brings about more tolerance and less stereotyping, the present study aims to examine tertiary-level EFL speakers' intercultural competence in relation to their perceptions of the speakers' traits with different accents of English by addressing the following research questions:

1. How do Turkish EFL speakers perceive various English accents spoken by Spanish, Hindi, Korean, and American English L1 speakers?

    1a. What impact does the year of enrollment in the degree program (1st year compared to 2nd year) have on the perceptions of speakers with different accents of English?

    1b. How is self-reported proficiency related to the perceptions of speakers with different accents of English?

2. What is the self-reported degree of intercultural communicative competence among Turkish EFL speakers?

    2a. What impact does the year of enrollment in the degree program (1st year compared to 2nd year) have on the self-reported intercultural communicative competence?

    2b. How is self-reported proficiency related to the self-reported degree of intercultural communicative competence?

3. How are the perceptions of English accents among Turkish EFL speakers related to their self-reported level of intercultural communicative competence?

Methodology

Research Design

This study utilizes a quantitative paradigm and a noninterventionist correlational approach that "focuses on gathering data on two (or more) measures from a single group of subjects" and examines variables "to determine if they are related and, if so, the direction and magnitude of that relationship" (Tavakoli, 2013, pp. 115-116). To investigate whether there may be a connection between EFL speakers' perceptions of various English accents and their self-reported scores on intercultural communicative competence, data were gathered through a web-based survey.

Publication Ethics

Ethical permission was granted by the Kütahya Dumlupınar University Ethics Committee, dated April 27, 2023, with decision number 55.

Participants and Context

The study consisted of 74 students recruited via convenience sampling. They were Turkish EFL speakers who were majoring in English Translation and Interpreting at a state university in Türkiye. The students who were about to complete their first academic year in the program took various courses such as Translation, English Literature, and American Literature, Culture, & Society while those who were completing their second academic year additionally took classes such as Translation and World Literature, Intercultural Communication and Translation, and Linguistics. The students were also required to take French or German as a foreign language for 4 hours per week. The survey was sent out to students who were primarily in their first ($n = 32$, 43%) or second year ($n = 36$, 49%) of the program and were enrolled in one of the two classes the researcher was teaching in Spring 2023. There were also 4 (5%) students who were in their junior year and 2 (3%) who were in their senior year. The classes were held through online/hybrid learning for the respective semester of the academic year due to the devastating earthquake in south-central Türkiye in early 2023. A total of 102 students were invited to take part in the web-based survey, but of 82 students who filled out the survey, 7 did not complete it, and thus, their responses were removed from the analysis. Also, in order not to complicate the findings, the responses from one international student were removed ($N = 74$). The mean age for the participants was 21 ($SD = 3.63$), and 42 (57%) of them were female. Only 18% ($n = 13$) of them reported having traveled abroad for various purposes. As for proficiency, the participants were asked to self-rate their overall proficiency in English on a scale out of 7 with 0 representing "very low." The mean for the participants' self-rated overall proficiency in English was 4.69 out of 7 ($SD = 0.8$).

Table 1. Description of Participant Profiles ($N = 74$)

		Gender		Travel abroad		Self-rated proficiency		
Enrollment Year	*N*	F	M	Yes	No	2-3	4	5-6
1	32	17	15	7	25	2	11	19
2	36	23	13	5	31	3	12	21
3	4	0	4	1	3	0	0	4
4	2	2	0	0	2	0	0	2
Total	**74**	**42**	**32**	**13**	**61**	**5**	**33**	**41**

Note. There were no students who rated their overall proficiency as "1" (= very low) or "7" (= very high).

Instruments and Materials

An online survey with four sections was used to collect data in a single session. Before the survey was initiated, the participants were first provided information about the study and were asked to give their consent for their responses to be collected. Following this page, in the second section of the survey, the participants were asked to rate four speech samples chosen from the Speech Accent Archive (Weinberger, 2015) for the quality of their speech samples in which speakers read the same text. Since the survey questions did not involve any comprehensibility judgments, using the same text was not considered to cause any undesirable familiarity effect on the raters. The speakers involved an American English speaker from Ohio, a native Hindi speaker from Maharashtra, India, a Korean speaker from Cheju-do, South Korea, and finally, a Spanish speaker from Santiago, Chile. The purpose of

the selection was to represent the diversity in English accents from around the world with which Turkish students were less likely to be exposed in their previous encounters while including at least one speech sample from countries located in Kachru's (1992) three concentric circles. For consistency, all speech samples were delivered by male speakers, and their durations were kept to a maximum difference of 2 seconds. Following Lindemann (2003), the participants were asked to rate each speaker/speech sample based on how "ambitious, intelligent, successful" (positive, status-related), "lazy, incompetent, uneducated" (negative, status-related), friendly, likable, helpful" (positive, solidarity-related), "unkind, insincere, aloof (distant)" (negative, solidarity-related) they were. The speakers were also rated based on the following language-focused qualities: "appropriate to perform a communicative task, nice to listen to, and speaks poorly." No randomization in the presentation of the speech samples was applied as there were only four speech samples, and the researcher did not want the speech sample spoken by the American speaker, which was presented last, to influence the preceding ratings. The reliability statistics indicate high values for the ratings for Track 1 (Indian speaker) $\alpha = .82$, Track 2 (Chilean speaker) $\alpha = .87$, Track 3 (Korean speaker) $\alpha = .88$, and Track 4 (American speaker) $\alpha = .81$. Unlike Lindemann (2003), the rating criterion in the present study did not ask participants to rate the nativelikeness of the speakers as it was beyond the scope and purpose of the present study.

The third part of the survey involved 25 questions from the Intercultural Competence Scale for EFL Learners developed by Chao (2014). The instrument originally comprised 30 questions with a five-factor structure: knowledge of intercultural interaction (9 items), affective orientation to intercultural interaction (6 items), self-efficacy in intercultural situations (3 items), behavioral performance in intercultural interaction (7 items), and display of intercultural consciousness (5 items). Except for the items from the final factor, all other questions under the four factors were included in the survey. Details regarding the validity and reliability of the original scale items can be found in Chao (2014). For the present study, the calculation of coefficient alpha indicated that the reliability was high ($\alpha = .85$). The values of Cohen's alpha for the sub-dimensions, i.e., Factors 1, 2, 3, & 4, were .67, .80, .80, .60, respectively. In the final section of the questionnaire, the participants were asked various language and sociodemographic background questions such as age, gender, experience traveling abroad, year of enrollment in their degree program, and their self-perceived proficiency in L2 English. The participants were invited to take part in the web-based survey through the learning management system.

Data Analysis

To answer the first research question descriptive mean scores were calculated to provide a full picture of the ratings by EFL speakers regarding four different English accents. Additionally, to see if there were any significant differences among the ratings for speech samples, Friedman's two-way analysis of variance was conducted since at least one speech sample did not meet the assumptions for running a parametric test as revealed by a statistically significant Shapiro-Wilk test ($p < .05$). However, when the mean scores for four and three speech samples (with and without the American English speech sample, respectively) were calculated and checked for normality, data in both cases were found to be normally distributed as revealed by non-significant Shapiro-Wilk test results ($p = .47$, p

= .52). Next, EFL speakers' self-reported ICC was demonstrated using descriptive statistics. Finally, to investigate whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the participants' ratings of English accents and their self-assessed degree of ICC, a Pearson's correlation analysis was performed. Since the analysis involves conducting a correlation analysis, assumptions for using parametric tests of correlation were checked. A statistically non-significant Shapiro-Wilk test ($p > .05$) as well as an examination of histograms and skewness and kurtosis values indicated a normal and linear distribution of data obtained from the scale measuring self-rated IIC. Furthermore, upon checking the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance, dependent sample two-sample t-tests were used to investigate whether the year of enrollment in the degree program and their self-perceived proficiency made any difference in EFL speakers' self-rated ICC.

Results

Perceptions of English Accents

The first research question aimed to investigate the perceptions of tertiary-level L2 English speakers regarding four different English accents. The raw mean scores for each of the traits participants rated are presented in Table 2 and Figure 2 below.

**Table 2.** Descriptive Statistics for Accent Perceptions

Origin/L1	India/Hindi	Chile/Spanish	S. Korea/Korean	U.S.A/ English
Traits	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Ambitious	2.32 (1.36)	3.09 (1.20)	2.74 (1.54)	4.82 (1.58)
Intelligent	2.93 (1.16)	3.45 (1.09)	2.42 (1.06)	5.35 (.84)
Successful	2.88 (1.23)	3.72 (1.30)	2.16 (1.16)	5.73 (.56)
Lazy	3.34 (1.70)	2.53 (1.31)	3.04 (1.63)	1.45 (.88)
Incompetent	3.76 (1.53)	2.96 (1.37)	3.86 (1.75)	1.68 (1.37)
Uneducated	3.55 (1.55)	2.76 (1.18)	3.74 (1.65)	1.32 (.97)
Friendly	3.51 (1.34)	3.68 (1.18)	3.03 (1.36)	4.53 (1.36)
Likable	2.82 (1.22)	3.28 (1.28)	2.42 (1.34)	5.23 (.97)
Helpful	2.86 (1.29)	3.59 (1.40)	2.42 (1.39)	5.47 (.88)
Unkind	2.47 (1.56)	2.14 (1.21)	2.43 (1.38)	1.43 (.74)
Insincere	3.22 (1.62)	2.55 (1.21)	3.01 (1.56)	1.99 (1.26)
Aloof	3.69 (1.66)	2.95 (1.40)	3.38 (1.77)	1.91 (1.09)
appropriate*	2.80 (1.51)	3.58 (1.57)	2.26 (1.51)	5.78 (.76)
nice to listen to	1.97 (1.10)	2.96 (1.41)	1.97 (1.29)	5.86 (.48)
speaks poorly	4.82 (1.39)	3.61 (1.56)	4.57 (1.62)	1.15 (.57)

Note. Mean scores represent raw scores without reverse coding. *appropriate to perform a communicative task

The participants' ratings of speech samples in terms of individual traits revealed interesting findings. While the American English speaker received higher ratings for positive traits such as "ambitious" or "friendly," the least favorable ratings overall belonged to the Korean speaker followed by the Hindi speaker in most traits. However, such a ranking was

not observed across all traits. For example, the participants ranked the Hindi speaker as the one who spoke the most "poorly," while they rated the Korean speaker as the most "incompetent." When the reverse coding for the tracks was applied to determine the speakers with the most favorable and least favorable ratings, the findings revealed that American English speaker was rated the highest (M = 5. 86, SD = .52, Sk = -1.5, SE = .28, *Kurt* = 3.5, *SE* = .55) followed by the Spanish speaker (M = 4.25, SD = .77, Sk =.01, SE = .28, *Kurt* = .10, *SE* = .55), the Hindi speaker (M = 3.55, SD = .76, Sk =.16, SE = .28, *Kurt* = .02, *SE* = .55), and the Korean speaker (M = 3.40, SD = .91, Sk = .30, SE = .28, *Kurt* = .31, *SE* = .55), respectively.

Figure 2. Means of English Accent Perceptions by Speaker Nationality/First Language
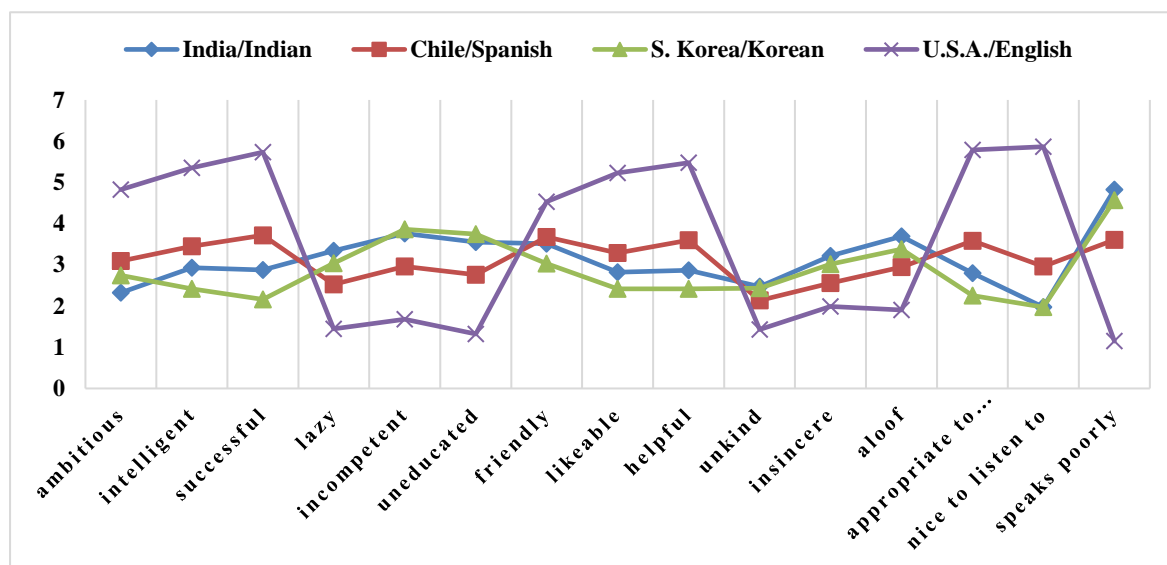
To find out if there was a statistically significant difference in EFL speakers' ratings depending on the speech samples, Friedman's two-way analysis of variance was conducted, and the results revealed statistically significant differences between the distributions of at least two speech samples ($p < .01$). Posthoc pairwise comparisons revealed that ratings of the American speaker/speech sample showed higher ratings than the Korean [$\chi^2(2)$ =-2.345, SD = .21, p = .000], Hindi [$\chi^2(2)$ = -2.155, SD = .21, p = .000], and Spanish [$\chi^2(2)$ =- 1.176, SD = .21, p = .000] speakers, all three of which were statistically significant. Furthermore, ratings for the Spanish speaker were significantly higher than the Korean speaker [$\chi^2(2)$ =1.169, SD = .21, p = .000] and the Hindi speaker [$\chi^2(2)$ = -.980, SD = .21, p = .000]. However, there were no statistically significant differences between the ratings for the Korean and Hindi speakers [$\chi^2(2)$ =.189, SD = .21, p = .373].

A t-test analysis was also conducted to examine whether being a first-year student as opposed to a second-year student in the degree program affected their perceptions of English accents, and no statistically significant differences were noted [$t(72)$ = -.813, $p > .05$)]. Findings of the correlation analysis between self-rated proficiency and the perceptions of English accents revealed no statistically significant relationships [$r(74)$ = -.157, $p > .05$)].

Self-reported Degree of Intercultural Communicative Competence

The second research question asked how competent EFL speakers reported themselves in intercultural communicative competence. The findings revealed that with an overall mean of 3.77 (*SD* = .044) out of 5, their self-reported ICC was high. There were differences among the factors, with Factor 2, i.e., affective orientation to intercultural interaction, having received the highest scores. Factors 1 & 4, which correspond to knowledge and behavioral performance in intercultural communication, received relatively lower self-ratings compared to the other two factors. This might indicate lower self-perceived skills in situations where knowledge and practice are expected in intercultural communication.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Self-reported ICC

Dimension	*M*	*SE*	*SD*	Ske.*	Kurt.**
Factor 1	3.58	.047	.41	.15	-.40
Factor 2	4.31	.06	.52	-.96	1.55
Factor 3	3.7	.093	.80	-.433	-.05
Factor 4	3.59	.051	.44	.092	.08
Total	3.77	.044	.38	-.204	.22

Note. Factor 1: knowledge of intercultural interaction; Factor 2: affective orientation to intercultural interaction; Factor 3: self-efficacy in intercultural situations; Factor 4: behavioral performance in intercultural interaction. *Skewness Standard Error (*SE*) = .28, ** Kurtosis *SE* = .55

Furthermore, a t-test was computed to examine whether being a first-year as opposed to a second-year student in the degree program affected participants' self-perceived ICC levels. The findings indicated that EFL speakers who were in their second year (*n* = 36, *M*= 3.88, *SD* = .37) compared to those who were enrolled in their first year of the degree program (*n* = 32, *M* = 3.63, *SD* = .34) demonstrated better self-rated ICC, which was statistically significant, *t*(66) = - 2.91, *p* = .005. Additionally, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to see if there was any association between participants' self-rated proficiency and their self-reports in ICC. The findings revealed a positive relationship indicating that as participants' self-rated proficiency increased their self-rated ICC also increased [*r*(74) = .552, *p* < .001].

The interplay Between the Perceptions of English Accents and Self-reported ICC

The last research question aimed to answer whether there was a relationship between how EFL speakers perceived various EFL accents and their degree of self-assessed ICC. Two different correlation analyses were conducted to address this question.

First, given that the data for the ratings of the American English speaker showed a non-normal distribution, both parametric and nonparametric correlation analyses were conducted to check for associations between the variables. Next, mean scores for the Korean, Hindi, and Spanish L1 speakers with and without American English L1 speaker ratings were calculated. Both scores were found to be normally distributed. Therefore, both ratings for individual speech samples as well as two additional averages (with and without the ratings

of the American English L1 speaker) were correlated with the EFL speakers' self-rated degree of ICC.

The findings of Pearson's correlation and Spearman's rank order correlation analyses indicated no statistically significant relationships between the participants' self-reported ICC and the total English accent ratings. This holds true for both when the American English accent rating is included [$r(72) = -.103$, $p = .38$] and excluded [$r(72) = -.146$, $p = .216$] from the total as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Pearson's Correlation Matrix for ICC and Accent Perceptions

	L2 learners' ratings of English accents (Chilean, Indian, Korean) (*p*)	L2 learners' ratings of English accents (American, Chilean, Indian, Korean) (*p*)
ICC	-.146 (.216)	-.103 (.38)

However, statistical significance ($p < .05$) was observed between the individual speakers and the dimensions of the scale. More specifically, there was a statistically significant association between the score of Factor 1 and the ratings of the Spanish speaker [$r(72) = -.239$, $p = .04$] as well as Factor 2 scores and the ratings of the Hindi speaker [$r(72) = -.299$, $p = .01$]. No other statistically significant correlations ($p < .05$) were noted.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate how university-level EFL speakers' degree of intercultural communicative competence was related to their perceptions of various English accents. The study also aimed to determine whether there was any difference in the degree of ICC and attitudes towards English accents among EFL speakers based on their self-reported proficiency in English and whether they were enrolled in their first or second year of the degree program.

The findings of the first research question revealed that EFL speakers rated the American speaker the highest in all traits, followed by Chilean, Indian, and Korean speakers of English, respectively. Although this ranking varied based on the specific trait that was rated, the least favorable scores for the traits were always received by the Indian speaker or the Korean speaker while the Chilean and American speakers were always perceived as more favorable. When it comes to linguistic traits like being "nice to listen to" and being the one who "speaks poorly," the results consistently showed that the American speaker was perceived as the most pleasant to listen to and the one who communicated with the least difficulty. Finally, the Indian speaker was the one who spoke the most poorly, with both the Indian and the Korean speakers being equally unpleasant to listen to.

The findings were in line with some of the previous studies which showed that learners preferred English speakers from the inner circle countries over those from the outer or expanding circle countries (Li, 2009; Timmis, 2002; Tsang, 2020). Although the present study does not involve a comparison of learners in terms of their learning context, the findings support Kang (2015) in that EFL speakers may have been less supportive of the ELF paradigm overall as they perceive the native-speaker model as their ideal. Besides, the low scores of the Indian and Korean speakers as opposed to the Chilean speakers might be

due to the higher familiarity with the Spanish-accented L2 English, thus leading them to be more tolerant and understanding. This could partially be attributed to what Hayes-Harb and her colleagues (2008) defined as "the interlanguage speech intelligibility benefit." When listeners are exposed to or familiar with a specific accent, they adapt their phonological inventory in a way to tolerate those speakers' accented speech more.

Finally, no statistically significant differences were noted with regard to EFL speakers' self-reported proficiency or the year of enrollment in the degree program and their perceptions of various English accents. Previous research (Saito et al., 2019) partially corroborated the absence of a connection between proficiency and L2 speech ratings, but it is essential to note that the present study relied on self-reported measures. Nevertheless, earlier research has also established a link between the two (Ludwig & Mora, 2017). There could be various reasons for the discrepancy, including the type of proficiency measures, the raters' familiarity with the accents of the speakers, the rating tasks, and the background of the listeners. To gain a better understanding of similar relationships, further research that takes into account some or all of these factors is needed.

Next, the results addressing the second research question, which aimed at examining the ICC among EFL speakers, indicated an overall high score although the ratings for the sub-dimensions varied. Among the four components of the scale, EFL speakers reported themselves the highest on the subdimension of affective orientation to intercultural interaction factor, which expresses willingness to communicate with outgroups. The second highest dimension was self-efficacy in intercultural situations, which sought to find out about EFL speakers' confidence levels in interactions. Although behavioral performance and knowledge of intercultural interaction were rated almost equally, the ratings indicated an agreement above neutral. Overall, these findings reveal that while Turkish EFL speakers who are studying English translation and interpreting as their major degrees are self-confident and willing to undertake intercultural interactions, they are less sure about their knowledge of and behavioral performance in intercultural communication. These findings are somewhat echoed by Bektaş-Çetinkaya and Çelik (2013) who found that EFL pre-service teachers held a small to medium amount of knowledge of and self-efficacy in English-speaking cultures while being highly willing for intercultural encounters. It is indeed not surprising to find that EFL speakers give a lower overall rating to the components that assess their performance and competence compared to those that just ask about their willingness and self-efficacy. The difference in self-efficacy levels may be due to the difference in the scales used, but it may also stem from the change in the sources of input and familiarity with the cultures. The prevalence of the internet and social media might be the primary actors increasing the amount of exposure to English-speaking cultures. Considering the role of digital contexts, Lee (2020) highlights the significance of digital environments in facilitating cross-cultural communication, especially for L2 speakers with no overseas exposure by enabling them to encounter diverse English accents and to develop a more favorable outlook towards them.

The study also sought to find out whether EFL speakers' self-reported proficiency and the year of enrollment in their degree program were related to their ICC levels. The results indicated that as participants' proficiency increased, their skills in ICC also increased,

which is consistent with some previous research (Hammer, 2017) although it is not in line with all (e.g., Hismanoglu, 2011). Earlier research also showed that L2 proficiency is related to an L2 learner's likelihood of interacting with native speakers (Baker-Smemoe et al., 2014) and helps learners understand "the surrounding sociocultural reality to a deeper level" (Hammer, 2017). Furthermore, compared to the EFL speakers completing their second semester, those who were about to complete their fourth semester in the program were found to be more competent in intercultural communication. While this may be due to being exposed to more content about non-Turkish cultures, including an intercultural communication & translation class, it may also be related to the profiles of the students alone. Although it is hard to confirm that the class(es) EFL speakers took were primary factors yielding such an outcome, previous research indicates that training listeners and learners on intercultural communication could be helpful (Genc & Bada, 2005; Godwin-Jones, 2013; Kavaklı, 2020). In a study by Hismanoglu (2011) pre-service L2 English teachers who had taken formal education (a specific course on cross-cultural communication) were found to be more successful in their ICC. However, it should be noted that, unlike the students in the present study, those in Hismanoglu's (2011) study were enrolled in the same year of their degree program allowing for a true comparison. Further studies, preferably with an experimental design, with comparable groups are needed to confirm the findings of the present study. Moreover, taking into account additional language and socio-demographic variables could provide a more comprehensive perspective on the issue, enabling a fuller understanding.

The last research question investigated whether there was a relationship between EFL speakers' ICC and their perceptions of English accents. The findings showed that they were not meaningfully related. While this could be due to the limitations of the measurement tools and the context, it is also striking because it shows how EFL speakers may self-report themselves as competent in intercultural communication and may still find L2 English accents less favorable compared to L1 accents. This finding fails to support previous research which reports that favorable perceptions of varieties of English accents are more likely to foster their strategic competence for cross-cultural communication (e.g., Lee, 2020). This may be due to the participants' context of learning English and their limited overseas experience. This finding is partially supported by Tsang (2020) who showed that despite the popularity of the ELF or WE paradigms, accent remains significant in the perception of English language learners. This does not align with the idea that language learners with high levels of intercultural competence are less likely to have stereotypes and biases toward different accents and varieties of English (Hammer, 2017). As we delve into the subtleties of this phenomenon, sociocultural elements subtly intertwine with learners' perceptual experiences. Aspects of sociocultural theory, which postulates that interactions among various linguistic communities may gradually alter perceptions, are consistent with this occurrence (Vygotsky, 1978). In addition, the significance of identity dynamics, as suggested by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) becomes increasingly relevant in understanding how learners identify and relate to various linguistic groups regardless of their level of ICC. Together, these subtly interwoven sociocultural and identity dynamics

shed light on the continued significance of accent evaluation by L2 English learners, even for those with higher intercultural competence.

From a pedagogical point of view, English language teaching and learning should be designed in a way to provide opportunities for critical cultural awareness (Byram, 2021) and an appreciation of diversity in L2 English accents. Depending on the context, intercultural communication skills should be underscored either as a part of a stand-alone course or by integrating them into language classrooms. The critical point here is that such training may include developing tolerance towards different L2 varieties and raising awareness of the fact that native speakers are not the only models for successful communication in L2 English. These classes should involve exposure to authentic materials with different accent varieties and cultures, awareness raising in the importance of intelligibility over native-speakerism, in-class or authentic interaction activities, including role-plays, debates, guest speaker presentations or interviews to encourage learners to understand cultures and accents by directly engaging in intercultural communication. Finally, individuals may be encouraged to use or integrate technology into their learning and teaching, which was shown to be a promising and effective way of increasing positive attitudes toward L2 accent perceptions, and consequently enhancing strategic competence in intercultural communication (Lee, 2020). The digital contexts may especially help learners in learning environments with limited exposure to outgroup members.

Conclusion

Various theoretical and empirical studies propose that enhanced ICC brings about more tolerance and more favorable perceptions of various English accents although various factors including proficiency, social bias, familiarity, and overseas experience have been shown to affect the connection between the two. The findings of the present study showed that EFL speakers rate their ICC above average with self-efficacy and willingness gaining higher mean scores than their knowledge and behavioral skills. This is an indication that although EFL speakers dare to perform effectively in intercultural contexts, they consider their performance and knowledge to fall behind. Second, the study further reveals that self-report proficiency in L2 English and the year of enrollment in the degree program made a difference in ICC self-ratings. Finally, although the present study did not reveal any meaningful relationships between accent perceptions and ICC, further studies should seek such a relationship using different measurement tools with a higher number of participants and speech samples. A closer look at the role of individual variables, including age, gender, experience traveling abroad, the use of English, exposure to varieties of English accents in daily life and digital settings, and asking learners to guess the nationality/L1 of the speakers or rate may also shed more light on the interpretation of the findings. Despite the constraints imposed by the limited sample size, this study adds valuable insights to the existing literature, bearing significant pedagogical implications. The findings underscore the pivotal role of fostering awareness in enhancing intercultural communication and influencing perceptions of English accents. For further research, a broader consideration of individual variables as primary factors influencing self-reported ratings of ICC and accent perceptions is recommended.

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EFL Students' Self-Regulated Online Learning in Post-Pandemic Hybrid Education

Didem ERDEL[*]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	This study measured self-regulated online learning skills of English language learners in post-pandemic hybrid education. A quantitative survey design was adopted and students majoring in English Language and Literature at a state university in Türkiye in 2021-2022 academic year constituted the population of the research. The Self-Regulated Online Learning Scale was administered to the students of three groups in the department (preparatory class, freshmen, and sophomores). As a result of the statistical analyses, the findings demonstrated that the students' self-regulated online learning skills were at a moderate level both in general and with respect to self-regulation dimensions. Additionally, no significant differences were observed in students' reported self-regulated learning across groups of gender, years of education and perceived foreign language levels, whereas significant differences were revealed for the variable of frequency of attendance to online classes. The results and implications are discussed, and some recommendations are provided.

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Introduction

With the advent of approaches highlighting the active role of the learner agency in learning processes and as the development of life-long learning skills has become of paramount importance, self-regulation has received substantial scholarly interest in relation to effective learning in educational psychology for particularly the past two decades. In an earlier and still acknowledged definition of self-regulated learning (hereafter SRL), the students with SRL skills were identified as "metacognitively, motivationally and behaviorally active participants in their own learning process" (Zimmerman, 1986, as cited in Zimmerman, 2008, p. 167). It is not a mental ability or a performance-based skill but rather a self-directed process of converting the mental ability to a task-based skill (Zimmerman, 2015). It enables learners to fulfil effective reflection regarding their cognitive and behavioral learning strategies (Bradley et al., 2017).

The regulatory processes are used by all learners to some extent, yet self-regulated learners outstand as those with strategic awareness and abilities to use strategies effectively to attain their learning goals (Zimmerman, 1990). Self-regulated learners are characterized with faster and more effective learning (Kizilcec et al., 2017) and critical thinking (Chien, 2019), and they are observed to be more self-confident, diligent, and resourceful (Zimmerman, 1990). The learners with higher SRL skills possess higher intrinsic goal orientation and higher self-efficacy when compared to their less skillful peers(Cho & Shen, 2013). They are described as 'proactive' learners who realize their strengths and acknowledge their limitations and accordingly set goals and apply task-specific strategies (Zimmerman, 2002).

Several SRL models drawn on different theoretical perspectives have been developed (Kulusaklı, 2022) and they commonly connote a variety of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Pintrich, 1999). In an extensively recognized model, self- regulation efforts have been conceptualized in three cyclically functioning phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection (Zimmerman, 2015). Forethought phase involves the anticipation of the effort necessary for learning, expectations regarding the outcomes of learning, self-efficacy beliefs, individual interests and skills required in task management, such as planning, setting the goals, or choosing the right strategies. Performance phase consists of the processes of optimizing the learning efforts by managing time and environment effectively and monitoring self-performance. The final phase, self-reflection, encompasses the evaluation of the outcomes of the learning process and includes self-judgment and self-reaction. The theoretical model proposed by Winne and Hadwin (1998) conceptualized SRL in four fundamental stages: defining tasks, setting goals and planning, adopting study tactics and making adaptations to metacognition. Very similarly, Barnard et al. (2009) determined six dimensions for self-regulated learning as structuring the environment, setting goals, managing time, seeking for help, developing task strategies and evaluating self-performance. The model of Pintrich (1999), on the otherhand, categorizes the SRL strategies as cognitive learning strategies, self-regulatory strategies to control cognition and resource management strategies. Cognitive learning strategies encompass rehearsal (for example, recitation or read-alouds), elaboration (for instance, paraphrasing or summarizing study materials) and organizational strategies (e.g., sketching or outlining). The self-regulatory strategies, also referred to as metacognitive control, comprise planning, monitoring, and regulating phases. The other component of the model, resource management strategies, appertains to the ability to manage theenvironmental conditions including management of the time, the study environment, andthe social environment, through seeking help from peers or teachers.

Literature Review

Online learning environments thrived in the past decade and expanded remarkably thanks to learning managements systems, video conferencing platforms and social learning networks during and after the worldwide disruptions in education due to Covid-19 pandemic outbreak. The abilities necessary for effective online learning appear to be quite alike to those skills acquainted with self-regulation (Yavuzalp & Özdemir, 2020), which has made self-regulation a vital criterion for better academic performance in online learning (Barnard et al., 2009; Viriya, 2022). It has further been found to statistically correlate with academic achievement in online settings as a result of some studies (Bradleyet al., 2017; Yukselturk & Bulut, 2007). SRL is especially essential for online courses, as the students are required to fulfill tasks in such learning environments with limited support and hence, need to be highly self-regulated (Cerezo et al., 2020; Jansen et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020). It has therefore been noted that learners use SRL strategies more often in online learning environments than the traditional classrooms (van Alten et al., 2020).

A growing surge of interest in the exploration of self-regulated online learning (hereafter SOL) dynamics is observed in the field of teaching and learning English as a foreign language (EFL) (Su et al., 2018). Relevant research has demonstrated the positive influence of SOL on the development of language skill areas and students' attitudestowards language learning, subsequently enhancing active engagement of the learners in language learning process (Xu et al., 2022). Indeed, the relation between language learningand self-regulation appears to be two-sided as technology-integrated language learning, which has become ubiquitous lately, has also been suggested to enhance learner self- regulation (Chien, 2019). Studying the effects of synchronous, asynchronous and bisynchronous online learning on self-regulated and perceived learning of tertiary-level EFL students, Viriya (2022) found that, for all three online learning modes, the SOL of theEFL students was promoted or impeded depending on the compatibility between thedistinctive characteristics and behaviors of the students and the mode of online learning.

Relevant literature provides research that focuses on the efficacy of interventions in the improvement of SOL skills. L. Zheng et al. (2018), for instance, developed a mobile SRL system for reading English passages to boost EFL learners' academic performance in general and the SRL skills in particular. The results of the experimental study indicated significant enhancements in both the students' progress and the SOL skills. In another intervention study, Meşe and Mede (2022) conducted research on the effects of differentiated instruction (DI), an approach in which the individual learner differences are taken into consideration in shaping teaching and learning practices (Hall, 2002), on EFL speaking proficiency and SOL. Their results indicated that DI did not significantly influence the overall SRL while progress was recorded in the students' help-seekingstrategy use, target setting and self-assessment skills.

SOL has also been studied within the framework of collaborative EFL learning in some recent research. Su et al. (2019) explored the role of SOL in collaborative learning practices in wiki-based learning environments and their results affirmed, albeit partly, the correlation between SRL strategies and learner attitudes towards learning practices in wiki-based collaborative learning. In another study with a rather specific focus, Li et al. (2020) shared the results of a similar study addressing the effects of SOL on the development of reading skills of Chinese EFL learners in a wiki-supported collaborative reading task. As a

result, two self-regulation profiles were identified: reflection-oriented competent and average. The reflection-oriented competent students were more actively engaged in starting and maintaining the collaborative regulation with more effective use of social and emotional regulation strategies.

There have been studies addressing the relation between self-regulated learning and digital literacy skills as well. As a result of their study which explored the effectiveness of an academic course design centering digital literacy competencies, Blau et al. (2020) suggested self-regulation as an integral part of the digital literacy framework. Likewise, Anthonysamy et al. (2020) examined the facilitative effects of self-regulated learning strategies (SRLS) on digital literacy skills of students as online learners and revealed a significantly positive change in the digital literacy of the students.

SOL of EFL learners has additionally been addressed in relation to motivational beliefs of the learners. C. Zheng et al. (2018), for instance, developed a structural equation model integrating EFL learners' motivation with their online self-regulation and revealed that students with more positive future perspectives and an intrinsic interest in the target language culture potentially had higher self-regulated online learning capacities. Furthermore, their results showed that the students with more positive learning experiences were likely to display higher flexibility and independence in as an aspect of their self-regulated learning processes. Self-efficacy beliefs were also specifically associated with SRL in EFL context. The correlation between SOL and self-efficacy beliefs of Chinese EFL learners was investigated by Su et al. (2018), the results revealing an intricate association between all dimensions of self-regulation and those of self-efficacy. Drawing on the notion that self-efficacy is an essential component of effective SOL, Xu et al. (2022) investigated the self-efficacy for self-regulated learning (SESRL) of EFL learners in online learning contexts and revealed a constantly high level of self-efficacy for SOL with the contribution of various factors including the task types, learner dynamics, course features and the students' technology level.

The development of EFL learners' SRL during Covid-19 pandemic-led educational disruptions through which the instructional practices were conducted via emergency remote teaching has also received scholar interest. Do (2022) investigated the SRL strategies of Vietnamese tertiary-level EFL students taking online education during the pandemic. The results of his study showed that the students displayed high levels of self-regulation and a correlation was detected between the students' cognitive knowledge and cognition regulation, whereas no significant relation was determined between academic achievement and the use of SRL strategies. In another study, focusing on learner autonomy in EFL classes in Vietnamese universities during Covid-19 pandemic, Lien (2022) revealed that the students showed limited awareness of their SRL profiles during their online learning experiences. Several studies addressing the SOL of EFL learners in ERT practices during the Covid-19 pandemic period have been conducted in Türkiye. Kulusaklı(2022) examined the SRL habits of Turkish university students in online distance education, and the results showed that environment management skills of the students wereat a good level, whereas the perceived metacognitive skills, persistence, help seeking, and time management were found to be at moderate level, and no statistical significance was identified in student responses across gender and age variables. Similarly, Doğan (2022) studied the perceived

SOL of Turkish EFL university students with A1 level proficiency and the relationship between the students' SOL and some learner characteristics. The studyresults indicated a moderate level of SOL for the students and significant relationship between the students' academic achievement and their overall SOL as well as the SOL aspects of metacognitive skills and environmental structuring. Furthermore, female students were better in time-management and the students with a positive attitude towards learning English had higher scores for the overall SOL and the dimensions of metacognitive skills, help-seeking and environmental structuring. In another Turkish EFL learning context, where hybrid education model was adopted, Öner (2022) researched the intermediate and upper-intermediate preparatory program students' SOL based on the students' and their instructors' perceptions. The study highlighted the results of higher goalsetting and task strategy for intermediate students and more frequent use of help-seeking strategies for female students. Finally, Karacan et al. (2022) investigated the SOL of English preparatory class students in a Turkish state university, focusing specifically on the relationship between the students SOL and academic achievements. The students' SOLwas found to range from medium to high levels, and their model for SOL could predict a very small amount (14 %) of the students' achievement while the SRL dimension predicting L2 achievement most strongly was help-seeking strategies.

In a nutshell, the ways and the extent to which the EFL learners self-regulate their learning has become of considerable value for educational practices, especially in online, either obligatory or arbitrary, learning conditions; and determining the individual learner characteristics such as self-regulation skills is considered to contribute to the effective use of online learning environments (Yavuzalp & Özdemir, 2020). After one and a half year of distance education due to Covid-19 pandemic, which was a totally unfamiliar experience for all involved parties, most of the universities in Turkey adopted a hybrid education model where a certain percent of department courses were taught online while others were delivered in a face-to-face tradition. The hybrid model was also an unfamiliar experience for the students, and how they regulated their language learning under these circumstances has urged scholar scrutiny, as learning regulation is now a vital skill for better academic performance in all learning environments. Furthermore, determining the SOL of different learner groups in different educational settings promises significant contributions to the field since SRL has been described as a fluctuating and changeable process specific to individual learning contexts (Barnard et al., 2009; Pintrich, 2004). It has therefore been the primary intention of the present study to provide an account of the SRL of Turkishstudents who had online courses within the framework of the hybrid education in the academic year following the pandemic-led distance education. The study sought to answerthe following specific research questions:

1. What are the SOL skills of EFL learners in post-pandemic hybrid education?

2. Does the EFL learners' SOL in the post-pandemic hybrid education differ according to gender, year of study, perceived proficiency or the frequency of attendance to online lessons?

Methodology

Research Design and Publication Ethics

This study was designed as a descriptive quantitative survey, which is commonly preferred in research attempting to reach generalizations from a sample group to a population with the aim of making inferences regarding determined characteristics, attitudes or behaviors of the given population (Creswell, 2014). The survey method was preferred as it was considered to be of good conformity with the scope of the present study besides its economic and temporal conveniences. A questionnaire survey was administered in hard copies in the second half of 2021-2022 academic year upon obtaining an approval from Igdir University Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee with the document no E-37077861-200-65161 on April, 12th, 2022.

Context

This study was conducted in the English Language and Literature Program at a state university in Türkiye. The program conventionally provided face-to-face education until the outbreak of Covid-19 pandemic, which precipitated a sudden and unavoidable disruption in education worldwide as of spring 2020. Distance education, which had been in use by preference for a few decades until then became to be adopted compulsorily, leading to the conceptualization of a novel mode of education: *emergency remote teaching* (ERT, Hodges et al., 2020). Universities provided both synchronous and asynchronous ERT delivery models using their own learning management systems (LMS) for instruction and assessment. When the severity and prevalence of the pandemic diminished in 2021, educational institutions inclined towards hybrid education. In the context of the present study, ERT was adopted in spring 2020 and the overall 2020-2021 academic year, and hybrid education was employed in the 2021-2022 academic year, when approximately sixty percent of department courses were taught face-to-face and the remaining courses were given online. The online course sessions were held on platforms such as Microsoft Teams or Zoom as preferred by the course instructors. The students could also find the asynchronous course records on the LMS of the university. The assignments and other course materials were also uploaded to the LMS by the instructors.

Participants

The population of this study consisted of the students studying in the English Language and Literature Program at a state university in Türkiye. As the department program included at least one online course for students of all years of study, including the preparatory program, total population sampling was applied and all students in the department took part in the study, excluding the juniors who were only 4 in total and three of them were Ghanaian who could barely comprehend Turkish statements. Furthermore, the population size was insufficiently small to select a certain sample group. No senior students were present in the department in the academic year the research was conducted. Demographic information of the students is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Information About the Students Responding to the Questionnaire

Variable		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	32	25,6

	Female	93	74,4
Year of Study	Prep.	54	43,2
	Freshmen	44	35,2
	Sophomores	27	21,6
Perceived Proficiency	Low	26	20,8
	Intermediate	83	66,4
	High	16	12,8
Attendance	Never	25	20,0
	Rarely	27	21,6
	Sometimes	56	44,8
	Often	14	11,2
	Always	3	2,4
Total		125	100

As displayed in Table 1, data had been collected from 125 students by the end of the survey period. The females constituted three fourths of the total number while one fourth was of male students. As regards the students' year of study, the preparatory year students were highest in number (N=54) followed by the freshmen (N=44) and sophomores (N=27), respectively. As another learner variable of the study, perceived English language proficiency was also interrogated, and the students' perceptions varied while two third (N=83) considered themselves as medium/intermediate level EFL learners,and those students with high (N=16) and low (N=26) levels of perceived L2 proficiency were relatively few in number. The students were also asked to state the frequency of their attendance to online classes. Interestingly, those stating to always attend the classes were quite few in number (N=3). Approximating to the half of the total sample, 56 students declared that they joined the classes on occasion. Evidently, the students' online course attendance displayed a tendency towards low frequencies.

Data Collection and Analysis

A questionnaire survey consisting of personal information section and the Turkish version of "Self-Regulated Online Learning Questionnaire (SOLQ)" of Jansen et al. (2017)adapted by Yavuzalp and Özdemir (2020) was administered to the participating students. The scale was an example of a 7-point Likert-type and composed of 36 items subsumed under five sub-dimensions: metacognitive skills, time management, environmental structuring, persistence and help-seeking. Metacognitive skills dimension in the scale encompass items (items 1-18) interrogating the students' regulation of planning, monitoring and evaluating their online learning processes. Time management items (items 19-21) entail responses related to the use of time in the arrangement of online learning activities. Environmental structuring items (items 22-26) indicate the regulation of environmental conditions; persistence items (items 27-31) are about how learning effort is regulated and motivational beliefs are controlled (Jansen et al., 2017); and lastly, help- seeking items (items 32-36) refer to the social strategies used when asking for help from teachers or peers. The full Turkish version of the scale is available in Yavuzalp and Özdemir (2020). Validity and reliability of the scale were confirmed for both the original and adapted versions. Jansen et al. (2017) found that the 5-factor structure explained 46,58

% of the variance in the data and the internal consistency of the subscales ranged between the values of α=.68 and α=.91. As for the Turkish version, the scale again had a five-factor structure

with a total explained variance of 62,06 % and the subscale internal consistency varying between α=.70 and α=.95 (Yavuzalp & Özdemir, 2020). As regards the reliability of the present study, the Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be .93 for the scale in general indicating that the scale was a reliable tool to measure SOL.

Procedure

The researcher carried out the data collection process personally in the department within one week owing to the cross-sectional nature of the survey. The students received explanations regarding the research purpose and scope, and the issues of confidentiality, anonymity and voluntariness. The questionnaire took approximately 10-15 minutes for the students to respond. Then the researcher proceeded to transfer data to the StatisticalPackage for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program for data analysis.

The negatively worded items were reverse coded before statistical analyses were conducted. The data set was tested for normality of distribution based on Skewness and Kurtosis values, which, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), are assumed to be between + 1,5 and - 1,5 when the data set is normally distributed. For the current study, theSkewness and Kurtosis values were found to be -,466 and ,889, respectively, indicating normally distributed data which enabled the use of parametric tests for the inferential statistics to be applied to measure the relationship between the independent and dependent variables of the study.

Results

Descriptive Results

With the aim of answering the first research question, descriptive tests were run to determine the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values for the scale and the subscales. Table 2 below provides the preliminary descriptive results for general SOLQ and the subscales.

Table 2. Descriptive Results for the Participant Students' SOL

	N	Minimum	Maximum	$\bar{X}$	SD
SOLQ	125	1,12	6,64	4,19	1,02
Metacognitive Skills	125	1,11	6,56	3,99	1,09
Time Management	125	1,00	7,00	4,30	1,12
Environmental Structuring	125	1,00	7,00	4,77	1,54
Persistence	125	1,00	7,00	4,25	1,35
Help-seeking	125	1,00	6,80	4,24	1,44

As illustrated in Table 2 above, the self-regulated online learning skills of the students in general was found to be at a moderate level. The responses to the subscales of the survey displayed variance although all SRL features may be evaluated to be at a moderate level based on the mean values. More specifically, the metacognitive skills were observed to have the lowest mean value ($\bar{X}$ =3,99) while environmental structuring was the self-regulatory skill the students reported to demonstrate with the highest frequency ($\bar{X}$ =4,77). The mean values for time management, persistence and help-seeking items were

found to be approximating to each other ($\bar{X}$ =4,30, $\bar{X}$ =4,25 and $\bar{X}$ =4,24, respectively), displaying a similarly moderate level in the students' self-perceptions regarding both of these self-regulatory characteristics.

The item scores for each subscale were also determined with descriptive analyses. The first eighteen items in the scale was subsumed under metacognitive skills. Table 3 below shows the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation values for these items. As obvious from the scores, the mean values ranged between 3,43 and 4,38, indicating close results among items, and a moderate level of SOL for items per se. Item 1, which highlights thinking about what needs to be learnt before beginning an online activity, received the highest score, whereas Item 2, which indicates asking oneself questions about what to study before beginning to learn the online course content, was scored the lowest.

Table 3. Descriptive Results for Metacognitive Skill Items

Items	N	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	SD
1. I think about what I really need to learn before I begin a task in this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,39	1,75
2. I ask myself questions about what I am to study before I begin to learn for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	3,43	1,67
3. I set short-term (daily or weekly) goals as well as long-term goals (monthly or for the whole online course).	125	1,00	7,00	3,58	1,80
4. I set goals to help me manage my studying time for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,01	1,69
5. I set specific goals before I begin a task in this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	3,99	1,69
6. I think of alternative ways to solve a problem and choose the best one for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,08	1,71
7. I try to use strategies in this online course that have worked in the past.	125	1,00	7,00	4,36	1,71
8. I have a specific purpose for each strategy I use in this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	3,59	1,63
9. I am aware of what strategies I use when I study for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,33	1,65
10. Although we don't have to attend daily classes, I stilltry to distribute my studying time for this online course evenly across days.	125	1,00	7,00	3,45	1,70
11. I periodically review to help me understand important relationships in this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	3,79	1,58
12. I find myself pausing regularly to check my comprehension of this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,04	1,79
13. I ask myself questions about how well I am doing while learning something in this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,32	1,80
14. I think about what I have learned after I finish working on this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,37	1,77
15. I ask myself how well I accomplished my goals once I'm finished working on this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	3,90	1,75
16. I change strategies when I do not make progress while learning for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,23	1,71
17. I find myself analyzing the usefulness of strategies while I study for this online course	125	1,00	7,00	3,94	1,61
18. I ask myself if there were other ways to do things after I finish learning for this online.	125	1,00	7,00	4,38	1,81

The next three items, namely items 19-21, were involved in the time management dimension. The descriptive scores for these items are presented in Table 4. The item scoresin this subscale appear to be quite approximate to each other. Item 19, which interrogated the difficulty of following schedules to study for an online course, received the lowestscore among these three items while Item 20, stating one's attempts to keep pace with the weekly reading tasks and assignments, was scored the highest.

Table 4. Descriptive Results for Time Management Items

Items	N	Min	Max	X̄	SD
19. I find it hard to stick to a study schedule for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	3,97	1,94
20. I make sure I keep up with the weekly readings and assignments for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,49	1,64
21. I often find that I don't spend very much time on this online course because of other activities.	125	1,00	7,00	4,47	1,80

The third subscale, environmental structuring, was represented with the next five items in the SOLQ. The descriptive values for these items are provided in Table 5. These five items with mean scores ranging between 4,58 and 4,94 were those with the highest scores in the scale overall. Within the subscale, Item 23, which is a statement about selecting a comfortable place for studying, was rated highest by the respondents. On the other hand, Item 25, which expressed the behaviour of using a place regularly to study for an online course, had the lowest rating in this subscale; yet, it has to be noted that the score for this item was still above the scale mean overall.

Table 5. Descriptive Results for Environmental Structuring Items

Items	N	Min	Max	X̄	SD
22. I choose the location where I study for this online course to avoid too much distraction.	125	1,00	7,00	4,86	1,83
23. I find a comfortable place to study for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,94	1,96
24. I know where I can study most efficiently for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,90	1,98
25. I have a regular place set aside for studying for this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,58	2,08
26. I know what the instructor expects me to learn in this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,61	1,72

The following five items, namely items numbered from 27 to 31, were grouped in the subscale of persistence. The statistical results for these items are given in Table 6 below. Among these items, the one with the highest mean value was Item 27, indicating that the students tried to maintain their attention when bored while studying, whereas Item 31 was the lowest-scored item, demonstrating the students' effort to complete course requirements when the content was not interesting.

Table 6. Descriptive Results for Persistence Items

Items	N	Min	Max	X̄	SD
27. When I am feeling bored studying for this online course, I force myself to pay attention.	125	1,00	7,00	4,52	1,68
28. When my mind begins to wander during a learning session for this online course, I make a special effort to keep concentrating	125	1,00	7,00	4,47	1,70
29. When I begin to lose interest for this online course, I push myself even further.	125	1,00	7,00	4,18	1,73
30. I work hard to do well in this online course even if I don't like what I have to do.	125	1,00	7,00	4,26	1,75
31. Even when materials in this online course are dulland uninteresting, I manage to keep working until I finish.	125	1,00	7,00	3,85	1,78

The final subscale, help-seeking was represented with the last five items in the scale. The descriptive values of these items are displayed in Table 7. Of the five items, which had close mean scores, Item 32, asking peers' ideas when the course content is not fully understood, was the highest in mean value score ranking. Item 34, asking for instructors' help in online courses, was ranked the lowest according to the findings.

Table 7. Descriptive Results for Help-Seeking Items

Items	N	Min	Max	X̄	SD
32. When I do not fully understand something, I ask other course members in this online course for ideas.	125	1,00	7,00	4,48	1,88
33. I share my problems with my classmates in thiscourse online so we know what we are struggling with and how to solve our problems.	125	1,00	7,00	4,06	1,91
34. I am persistent in getting help from the instructor of this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,01	1,65
35. When I am not sure about some material in this online course, I check with other people.	125	1,00	7,00	4,38	1,89
36. I communicate with my classmates to find out how I am doing in this online course.	125	1,00	7,00	4,33	1,97

Inferential Results

The second research question was addressed by testing the difference between student responses across genders and independent samples t-test was conducted with this purpose. The test results, as displayed in Table 8, showed that student responses were unaffected by gender ($p > .01$) for both the scale in general and each subscale in specific.

Table 8. T-Test Results for Gender Variable

	Gender	N	x̄	SD	t	p
SOLQ	Female	93	4,22	1,03	,579	,56
	Male	32	4,09	1,00		
Metacognitive Skills	Female	93	4,01	1,07	,321	,32
	Male	32	3,93	1,15		
Time management	Female	93	4,38	1,14	1,29	,19
	Male	32	4,08	1,04		
Environmental	Female	93	4,84	1,55		

Structuring	Male	32	4,58	1,51	,839	,40
Persistence	Female	93	4,26	1,37	,143	,88
	Male	32	4,22	1,31		
Help-seeking	Female	93	4,31	1,51	,817	,41
	Male	32	4,06	1,23		

As the third research question interrogated, the academic year of study was tested in terms of its influence on student responses through One-Way ANOVA. Before running the test, the homogeneity of variance was verified via Levene's statistics ($p > .01$ for the scale and all subscales), which indicated that the data set was convenient to undergo the One-Way ANOVA test. The results are provided in Table 9 below.

Table 9. One-Way ANOVA Results for Year of Study Variable

	Students	N	x̄	SD	F	p
SOLQ	Prep.	54	4,22	1,07		
	Freshmen	44	4,16	1,06	,062	,94
	Sophomores	27	4,16	,90		
Metacognitive Skills	Prep.	54	4,12	1,13		
	Freshmen	44	3,89	1,13	,711	,49
	Sophomores	27	3,87	,92		
Time management	Prep.	54	4,07	1,02		
	Freshmen	44	4,55	1,15	2,289	,10
	Sophomores	27	4,37	1,18		
Environmental Structuring	Prep.	54	4,61	1,43		
	Freshmen	44	4,90	1,67	,530	,59
	Sophomores	27	4,88	1,54		
Persistence	Prep.	54	4,26	1,34		
	Freshmen	44	4,17	1,32	,146	,86
	Sophomores	27	4,35	1,48		
Help-seeking	Prep.	54	4,16	1,41		
	Freshmen	44	4,34	1,55	,185	,83
	Sophomores	27	4,26	1,35		

The analysis results shown in Table 9 above provide evidence of no statistically significant difference found between the mean scores of students from different grades of study ($p > .01$ for SOLQ and all subscales).

The students' perceived proficiency level was another learner variable tested with respect to its effect on SOLQ responses with an attempt to answer the fourth research question. The One-Way ANOVA results are shown in Table 10 below.

Table 10. One-Way ANOVA Results for Perceived L2 Proficiency

	Level	N	x̄	SD	F	p
SOLQ	Low	26	4,36	,80		
	Intermediate	83	4,15	1,03	,488	,61
	High	16	4,09	1,33		
Metacognitive	Low	26	4,19	,96		

Skills	Intermediate	83	3,92	1,06	,585	,55
	High	16	4,00	1,43		
Time management	Low	26	4,38	1,14		
	Intermediate	83	4,27	1,06	,115	,89
	High	16	4,36	1,39		
Environmental Structuring	Low	26	5,16	1,27		
	Intermediate	83	4,66	1,54	1,057	,35
	High	16	4,70	1,88		
Persistence	Low	26	4,39	,98	,995	,37
	Intermediate	83	4,29	1,38		
	High	16	3,81	1,69		
Help-seeking	Low	26	4,14	1,45		
	Intermediate	83	4,31	1,40	,278	,75
	High	16	4,06	1,70		

The results displayed in Table 10 indicated that the students' responses to the SOLQ and the subscales did not significantly differ according to their perceptions regarding their L2 proficiency (p>.01 for SOLQ and all subscales).

Finally, the last research question, interrogating the differences in students' SOL according to course attendance frequency, was answered through One-Way ANOVA test and Table 11 below illustrates the results.

Table 11. One-Way ANOVA Results for Course Attendance Frequency

	Frequency	N	x̄	SD	F	p
SOLQ	Never	25	4,94	,74		
	Rarely	27	4,53	1,13		
	Sometimes	56	3,91	,82	10,144	,000***
	Often	14	3,57	,89		
	Always	3	2,76	1,26		
Metacognitive Skills	Never	25	4,85	,89		
	Rarely	27	4,30	1,14		
	Sometimes	56	3,67	,92	9,385	,000***
	Often	14	3,36	,90		
	Always	3	3,00	1,10		
Time management	Never	25	4,67	1,07		
	Rarely	27	4,79	1,22		
	Sometimes	56	3,95	1,01	3,949	,005**
	Often	14	4,03	1,01		
	Always	3	4,72	,63		
Environmental Structuring	Never	25	5,66	1,09		
	Rarely	27	5,20	1,49		
	Sometimes	56	4,49	1,54	6,499	,000***
	Often	14	3,97	1,25		
	Always	3	2,60	1,40		
Persistence	Never	25	4,85	1,18		
	Rarely	27	4,52	1,39		
	Sometimes	56	4,06	1,31	3,922	,005**
	Often	14	3,83	1,15		

	Always	3	2,33	1,66		
Help-seeking	Never	25	4,66	1,44		
	Rarely	27	4,73	1,45	3,312	,013*
	Sometimes	56	4,06	1,41		
	Often	14	3,69	1,04		
	Always	3	2,53	1,50		

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

As demonstrated in Table 11 above, statistically significant differences were revealed in student responses based on the frequency of attendance to online coursesessions for both the SOLQ in general and its specific dimensions. The responses to the general SOLQ (F=10,144) and metacognitive skills (F=9,385) and environmental structuring (F=6,499) differed highly according to attendance frequency (p<.001). Time management (F=3,94) and persistence (F=3,922) dimensions were also affected by attendance frequency (p<.01) very significantly. Lastly, help seeking scores (F=3,312) displayed significant differences (p<.05) in accordance with frequency of course attendance. When mean values are examined, it was observed that the mean scores increased for SOL in general and for almost all subscales as the frequency of attendance decreased, indicating that the students who attended the online classes less frequently reported higher self-regulation.

Discussion

This descriptive study explored the self-regulated online learning skills of a group of students majoring English language and literature, focusing particularly on their online learning experiences during post-pandemic hybrid education in a state university in Türkiye. The findings grounded on the students' self-reports indicated moderate-level self-regulatory skills. Prior studies have noted the critical role of SRL in attaining learning outcomes in online education (Kara et al., 2021; Yukselturk & Bulut, 2007). As thestudents become more self-regulated, they manage to retain the control of cognitive,environmental, strategic, temporal and social factors involved in the learning process(Wijaya, 2022). It is inferred from the present results that the students' SOL may hardly beevaluated as satisfactory and needs to be enhanced so that the aforesaid facilitative effects of it may possibly be observed. The factors influencing self-regulation have been outside the scope of the study; yet, there are several likely causes that the results might beattributed to and that could be taken into consideration in any attempts to suggest approaches to reinforce student SRL. The possible explanations on the side of the students might include the students' approach to technology or technology-integrated teaching and learning; their knowledge or competence including their academic and digital literacies; and their attitudes towards and motivational beliefs (self-efficacy, for instance) aboutonline learning and practice in general and the courses they took online in specific. Relevant research confirms the association of all these factors with the development of SOL (Anthonysamy et al., 2020; Blau et al., 2020; C. Zheng et al., 2018; Su et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2022).

As regards the components of self-regulated online learning, the students reported to exhibit environmental structuring behaviors with the highest frequency, almost at a "good" level. The results strongly corroborate the findings of previous work (Doğan, 2022;Karacan et al., 2022; Kulusaklı, 2022; Yavuzalp & Özdemir, 2020). Apparently, thestudents had an awareness regarding the arrangement of their physical conditions to maximize the effectiveness of online learning. On the other hand, employing metacognitive skills received the lowest score among other dimensions

of SRL. This resultalso matches those obtained from previous work (Doğan, 2022). The result may be interpreted with a possible insufficiency in the students' awareness of the metacognitive aspects of learning since it is possible to regrettably note that some students might lack the basic academic study skills. It therefore appears appropriate to recommend helping students acquire the necessary skills of effective academic studying including the introduction of the metacognitive aspects of learning.

The students' persistence, which is the component of SOL representing effortregulation and motivation control (Jansen et al., 2017), was found to be displayed moderately. Students with self-regulatory skills possess higher motivation and adaptive learning approaches, which enables them to be academically more successful and optimistic about their future (Zimmerman, 2002). Furthermore, learner motivation has longbeen acknowledged as one of the most critical factors in the context of L2 learning (Dornyei, 2001; Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Hence, it is wise to suggest that the students' persistence needs to be improved as it not only contributes to SOL development but may also accomplish multiple outcomes.

Another SOL dimension that was again found to be moderately displayed by the students was help-seeking. The students evidently were not adequately informed or insightful about how or from whom to seek help when needed. Previous research provide similar results (Kulusaklı, 2022; Yavuzalp & Özdemir, 2020). Related to the social facet oflearning (Pintrich, 2004), help-seeking is a strategy very commonly used by effective self- regulated learners on their encounter with challenges to learning (Su et al., 2019). Furthermore, approached with a sociocultural theory perspective (Vygotsky, 1978), which contends the scaffolding effect of social interaction in cognitive development, help-seekingseems to be an important element of not only self-regulation but also language learning in general. Consequently, it is suggested that the students' use of help-seeking strategies should be enhanced to reach a satisfactory level in respect to both SOL skill development and effective language learning.

Regarding the student characteristics measured in relation to responses to SOLQ, the study revealed no statistically significant differences across the groups of gender, year of study and perceived L2 proficiency. The responses only differed significantly accordingto the frequency of attendance to online course sessions. The surprising point about this result was that the students who attended courses less frequently reported higher self- regulation. This result may be explained with the possibility that the students with higher self-regulation perceptions did not feel an urge to attend the sessions as they considered their self-study skills adequate to achieve in the particular courses since SOL has already been associated with self-efficacy beliefs (Su et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2022). Additionally, considering the multifarious challenges of distance education due to technical, technological, physical or various personal factors (Erdel, 2022), it is also possible that the students did not have other choice than regulating their own learning to compensate for what they miss in the course sessions that they could not attend.

Conclusion

This study was conducted with the purpose of determining tertiary-level EFLstudents' self-regulated online learning skills during the post-pandemic hybrid education inTürkiye and the effects of some learner variables on these skills. The results of the study demonstrated that the students displayed moderate levels of self-regulation in their online courses. Besides, their self-regulation skills were not influenced by their gender, year of study or perceived level of English language proficiency. The only variable tested within the scope of the study in a significant

relationship with student responses was the frequency of attendance to online classes. Students with higher self-regulatory skills attended the online classes less frequently.

The pandemic-led educational disruptions had indisputable effects on learning and study habits of the students, and the hybrid education model adopted by many educational institutions in the post-pandemic period was another novel experience for them as they were neither taking distance education at home, nor receiving all department courses at school. The students had to find out how to compensate for the challenges of the new circumstances and adapt their learning skills and habits accordingly.

Self-regulation was one of the most essential skills the students needed to maintain their learning effectively. It has therefore been substantially important to help students learn how to master their own learning (L. Zheng et al., 2018), particularly in the contextof learning a foreign language, which is not usually a temporary experience that learning ends at some point, but indeed, an everlasting learning experience. In this respect, teachers' mediating role in the development of SOL or other self-directed learning skills should not be neglected. Zimmerman (2002) contends that all aspects of self-regulation can be taught and modelled. Hence, it is highly important that the teachers acquire necessary knowledge and awareness regarding the merits of self-regulation in learning so that they could provide the guidance their students would need. It is therefore suggested that SOL be considered within the framework of effective study skills and integrated into the curricula inside the schedules of related courses such as digital literacy or technology- integrated teaching and learning courses in teacher education programs. As the teachers become more knowledgeable about self-regulation and its components, they may be capable of designing tasks that involve practices requiring students to study more autonomously and develop self-regulation skills. For instance, asking students to keep reflective journals may improve the students' metacognitive skills, or integrating peer or group work activities into the curriculum may encourage the students to use help-seeking strategies more often. In the same vein, setting examples or modelling for students about temporal and emotional management as well as spatial arrangement strategies for effective studying may enhance the relevant aspects of students' self-regulation. For primary and secondary levels of education or the preparatory language teaching programs of universities, the curriculum developers are also suggested to arrange syllabi by integrating theoretical and practical aspects of SRL skills as contents of reading articles or the requirements of classroom tasks in the course books. That would enable teachers use classroom time more effectively as they would not need to digress from curriculum when they intended to spare time for fostering their students' self-regulation.

This study had some methodological limitations. First, the research data werecollected from the English language and literature department in a state university in Türkiye and generalizing the results to larger populations does not seem applicable. Secondly, post-pandemic hybrid education was the specific condition under which the datawere collected, and therefore, student perceptions might differ under different circumstances. Lastly, the results of this study were limited to the data obtained from cross-sectional student self-reports and therefore, it is advisable for further research to triangulate such research grounded on self-reports, which might potentially involve bias, with other, preferably qualitative, data resources such as retrospective interviews or reflective journals. Further studies on SOL may also be conducted with specific reference to its relation with other cognitive, affective and behavioral learner characteristics potentially influenced by different modes and mediums of instruction.

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Research Article

The Impact of Online Reflective Practice-oriented Assessment on the Self-efficacy of Turkish EFL Pre-service Teachers: A Case Study

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	The purpose of this mixed-methods case study is to explore the impact of online reflective practice-based assessment, virtual mentoring and video-mediated self-assessment on the self-efficacy of Turkish pre-service teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in a practicum course in the 2021/2022 academic year. The Turkish version of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy scale by Çapa et al. (2005) was used to collect the quantitative data. The Paired Samples t-test was employed in the quantitative data analysis. Semi-structured interviews, reflection journals, and video-mediated post-teaching self-assessment forms were utilized in the qualitative data collection. Thematic content analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data. Findings indicated while verbal persuasion and enactive mastery experiences were considered the main self-efficacy sources for pre-service EFL teachers, affective states were also found influential in their self-efficacy perceptions. The study revealed the favorable impact of virtual mentoring and video-mediated self-assessment on pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy development.

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Introduction

There has been a surge of interest in the role of reflection in teacher education for the last two decades (Kourieus, 2016). In a linguistically and culturally diverse English Language Teaching (ELT) landscape of this post-method era, teachers are expected to be reflective practitioners with a strong sense of agency and context-sensitive pedagogy who can construct their "own theory of practice" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 537). The new post-method teacher profile requires the skillful undertaking of multiple roles ranging from a knower, well-versed in context-specific linguistic, cultural, and social variables, to an enabler, equipped with procedural knowledge for effective classroom practices, and a facilitator, promoting student engagement.

In the 21st century education, a considerable emphasis has been placed on teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, 2000). It is the teacher self-efficacy (TSE) that mostly affects teacher quality and the quality of instruction in a particular learning environment (Bandura, 1997; Choi & Lee, 2018). TSE can be defined as "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 1998, p.233). It is thought to impact not only teachers' practices but also students' performance (Poulou, 2007). In fact, TSE beliefs are considered to predict teachers' pedagogic competence and dedication to teaching (Silverman & Davis, 2009).

TSE beliefs tend to be established among experienced teachers, and deeply ingrained in time, immune to change or any type of close scrutiny (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Pre-service teacher education programs enable prospective teachers to develop their self-efficacy beliefs. Previous studies investigating prospective teachers' self-efficacy (STSE) development indicated that STSE levels are expected to increase during the practicum (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Conversely, some studies revealed either negative changes or no significant changes in the STSE beliefs (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). Thus, it is of great importance to support student teachers in pre-service teacher education programs so that they can develop powerful and positive self-efficacy beliefs (Pendergast, et al., 2011). In this respect, the exploration of how to promote pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is crucial.

Literature Review

Previous Studies Related to the Teacher Self-Efficacy

As a construct stemming from the social cognitive theory by Bandura (1997), TSE has been the focus of interest in ELT for over three decades (see Gencer & Çakiroglu, 2007). It is considered to be changeable during teacher preparation and the first years of teaching (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). As student teachers gain more teaching experience, they fine-tune their perceptions of self-efficacy, shifting from a global understanding of TSE with an emphasis on the general idea of teaching and teaching competencies to a differentiated sense of self-efficacy (Polou, 2007; Van Dinther, et al, 2011). TSE influences their teaching effort, their professional goals and aspirations as well as students' learning outcomes (Rupp & Becker, 2021). Previous research with in-service

teachers indicated that it is closely connected to teacher involvement, pedagogical stance, and receptivity toward innovative, diverse, and active teaching practices. (Schwarzer & Warner, 2014).

Teachers with high levels of self-efficacy were shown to display a great deal of commitment as well as persistence when encountered challenges (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). High levels of TSE were found to facilitate competent self- and action regulation (Pajares, 2002). Highly efficacious teachers tend to attach more importance to student interaction and autonomy (Choi & Lee, 2018). However, low levels of TSE are associated with an authoritarian orientation to classroom management (Gencer & Cakıroglu, 2007).

In accordance with the social cognitive theory, *mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion* and *psychological/affective states* were demonstrated to contribute to the teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The research evidence confirms the contribution of these sources to the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers in teacher education programs (Van Dinther et al., 2011). However, how prospective teachers process and make sense of the self-efficacy information from various sources still remains an uncharted territory (Van Dinther et al., 2015). Mastery experiences and perceived successful teaching performances are likely to reinforce efficacy beliefs, empowering teachers' confidence regarding the success of their future teaching performances (Poulou, 2007; Woolfolk-Hoy & Spero, 2005; Yüksel, 2014). They are considered the most powerful contributor to TSE development (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Verbal persuasion is another important source for TSE development (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) that may involve interactive experiences in the form of coaching and mentoring (Wyatt & Dikilitaş, 2016). It can be provided by school-based mentor teachers and the university supervisors (UnSs) via post-teaching conferences, yet these conferences do not go beyond offering support and criticism concerning the pre-service teachers' activity/lesson planning and their post-teaching reflections (Atay, 2007). In fact, the virtual mentoring practices were integrated into the current study context to enhance preservice teachers' TSE. The dynamics between school-based mentors and pre-service teachers, the quality of support from these mentors, the school community, the UnSs, and the number of field experiences were demonstrated to be the significant predictors of TSE (Aydın & Woolfolk Hoy, 2005). Vicarious experiences, which are derived from observational experiences via other students or teachers (Bandura, 1997), were also viewed as another source of TSE (Wyatt & Dikiltaş, 2016). With respect to the link between the pre-service teachers' affective states and TSE, some studies found a positive relationship (Sevimel & Subaşı, 2018), while others indicated no relationship between both variables (Poulou, 2007; Yüksel, 2014).

The practicum period is considered to play a pivotal role in prospective teachers' professional development and in the development of TSE (Flores, 2015). This period provides them with an opportunity for bridging the gap between theory and practice that promotes pre-service teachers' professional development (Maskit, 2013). Previous studies in the EFL pre-service teacher education contexts emphasized the student teachers' anxiety related to the feedback and evaluation aspects of the practicum (e.g., Paker 2011), a

commonly reported problem in the study context. Another anxiety-provoking factor during the practicum is related to unclear or unrealistic teacher selves due to pre-service teachers' lack of teaching experience and their emergent teacher identities (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013). Prospective teachers' lack of clarity about their expectations adds to their practicum pressure (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013), which is concerned with the pre-service teachers in the current study. In fact, the development of TSE beliefs can be traced back to pre-service teacher education programs and they are considered "the most pliable early in learning" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007, p. 947).

Contradictory findings exist regarding the relation between prospective teachers' field experiences and their perceptions of self-efficacy. Regarding the relationship between field experiences and self-efficacy in the Turkish context over the practicum period, Atay (2007) found an increase in pre-service teachers' sense of efficacy regarding classroom management and student engagement but a decrease in their sense of efficacy in instructional strategies. In the same vein, Yüksel (2014) indicated significant changes before and after the practicum period. The study attributed the changes in their self-efficacy levels to enactive mastery experiences and social persuasion, while no significant contribution of vicarious experiences and physiological/affective states was reported. Also, Alcı and Yüksel (2012) reported a significant correlation between pre-service EFL teachers' performance, their self-efficacy and metacognition. Alagözlü (2016) indicated that prospective EFL teachers' self-efficacy, their self-reported proficiency level and pedagogical strategy use were considered the predictors of self-concept. In addition, Çelik and Zehir Topkaya (2017) pointed out that pre-service EFL teachers demonstrated a relatively high levels of teaching efficacy and an increase in their teaching efficacy perceptions whereas Çankaya (2018) indicated that prospective teachers' self-efficacy levels were slightly lower than in-service teachers, confirming the favorable influence of teaching experience on self-efficacy.

In contrast to the aforementioned studies indicating the favorable impact of the field experiences on the STSE development, other studies (e.g., Gencer & Çakıroğlu 2007) found that field experiences were not conducive to STSE beliefs. The underlying motive was related to the lack of quality feedback provided by school-based mentor teachers. Unless it contains information as to the extent of the acceptability of task performance and the suggestions for task improvement, feedback is not viewed as a salient efficacy source for student teachers (Van Dinther et al, 2015). It is maintained that feedback should be both "balanced" and "recognizable" (Van Dinther et al., 2015, p. 25). The former refers to the positive feedback full of affirmative comments on the strengths and weaknesses of pre-service teachers and the suggestions for the improvement of their teaching performance The latter, however, refers to the feedback connected to pre-service teachers' own experiences, affirming their own perceptions and judgements about their own development (Van Dinther et al., 2015). In fact, a virtual mentoring project was integrated into the practicum course to cater for the student-teachers' need for a "balanced" and "recognizable" feedback and the current study investigated the influence of such feedback on the self-efficacy beliefs of prospective teachers (Van Dinther et al., 2015, p.25).

Video-Mediated Self-Asssessment and STSE

The video-mediated online self-evaluation tasks are regarded as an effective source of self-efficacy information source for prospective teachers (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Segers, et al., 2008; Van Dinther et al., 2015). As formative assessment focuses on the improvement of student learning by enhancing student motivation and learning outcomes (Black & William, 1998), pre-service teachers' formative assessment practices are likely to affect their mastery experiences. Particularly, the integration of reflective formative assessment tasks via reflective e-portfolios into the practicum classes is likely to promote pre-service teachers' reflections on the practicum, which, in turn, promotes their professional growth (Kuter, et al., 2012). These reflective e-portfolios might include pre-service teachers' lesson plans, teaching activities in the practicum, their self-appraisals of real teaching performances, as well as their reflections on the feedback provided for them by their school-based mentor teachers (SBMs) and UnSs and on their future goals. In Kuter et al.'s (2012) study, pre-service teachers' engagement in a collaborative dialogue with their peers, SBMs and UnSs subsequent to a video-taped microteaching session was reported to raise their awareness towards their weaknesses in their teaching and motivated them to ameliorate these aspects.

As suggested by Eröz Tuğa (2013) and Rosaen et al. (2008), watching their own videotaped teaching performances and self-assessment practices enabled pre-service teachers to examine their teaching performance from a critical perspective and raise their awareness towards their strengths and weaknesses. In fact, Baecher (2011) claimed that watching the videotaped performances may build a more realistic picture of their own performance and promote new ways of thinking for prospective teachers as it displays a comparison of their perceptions on the teaching task performance and their real performance.

The adoption of video-mediated feedback provision in practicum courses can help the UnSs provide more evidence-based constructive feedback for prospective teachers (Galvis & Nemirovsky, 2003). In addition, the student-teachers' involvement in such practices might be the driving force for them to internalize self-asssessment practices and become autonomous as well as reflective practitioners. Being involved in such online self-assessment practices might also contribute to their teacher agency (Eröz- Tuğa, 2013; Rosaen et al., 2008). In fact, the current study set out to investigate the impact of the video-mediated self-assessment practices in the practicum course on student-teachers' teaching self-efficacy.

Just as previous research indicated the critical role of students' use of self-regulation skills in their academic achievement, teachers' self-regulatory behaviors were found to positively influence their teaching practices and their adaptive teaching behavior (e.g., Toussi et al., 2011). Baylor et al. (2011) argued that teachers' self-regulatory strategies can promote their effective lesson planning, task management, and classroom management skills. Teachers without well-developed self-regulatory skills are likely to find it challenging to integrate self-regulatory instructional strategies into their own teaching. Additionally, self-regulation can help teachers gain valuable insights into their students' needs and learning experiences. The video-mediated self-assessment practices in

the practicum course in the study aimed to improve self-regulatory skills for prospective teachers.

Virtual Mentoring (E-Mentoring)

The virtual mentoring practice in the study can be defined as mentoring in an online environment conducted via emails and video conferences ubiquitously (Bierema & Hill, 2005). The incorporation of a virtual mentoring component into the practicum courses in the study might complement the established mentoring system at schools. The virtual mentors are likely to contribute to the professional growth of pre-service teachers via their constructive, comprehensive, and detailed feedbacks. Such feedbacks are believed to support the enactive mastery experiences of pre-service teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). The online mentors are also viewed as coaches or guides to help pre-service teachers' professional development via their harmonious relationship with them based on dialogic sharing. Thus, the former might contribute to the vicarious experiences of the latter by sharing their own personal teaching experiences and their ideas about the latter's career choices.

Mentees in virtual mentoring interactions are provided with information easily and an ample amount of professional support (i.e., Smith Risser, 2013). Regarding the factors influencing the success of virtual mentoring, mentors' accessibility and passion about teaching, mentees' clear aims, as well as the mentor-mentee relationship based on reciprocal respect and confidence might be listed (Smith Risser, 2013). If a mentor's communication style is not compatible with that of a mentee, or if he or she is likely to undermine his/her mentee's /mentees' confidence, the effectiveness of virtual mentoring is disrupted (Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009),

Previous research indicated that the type of virtual mentoring approach may affect the prospective teachers' professional development (Alemdağ & Erdem, 2017). In contrast to transmissive mentoring where learners receive knowledge inactively, in constructivist mentoring knowledge is co-created with the mentor and mentee (Richter et al.,2013). Novice teachers with constructivist-oriented mentors were reported to have lower levels of burnout, having a higher level of self-efficacy, teaching motivation, and job satisfaction than others in a traditional mentoring program (Richter et al., 2013). In virtual mentoring, pre-service teachers' engagement in video-mediated self-assessment tasks serves as a self-regulation component to help them evaluate their progress in teaching skills, which tends to facilitate their enactive mastery experiences.

As for the type of support virtual mentors provide, "cognitive, affective, and instrumental support" might be listed (Alemdağ & Erdem, 2017, p.136). *Cognitive support* included problem appraisal, the provision of advice for the practicum problems, the evaluation of the possible solutions, (teaching) experience sharing (Alemdağ & Erdem, 2017). It can be considered to foster enactive mastery experiences. However, *affective support* refers to "empathetic, caring, affirming, and encouraging statements" (Alemdağ & Erdem, 2017, p. 136). This support is concerned with verbal persuasion and affective states. *Instrumental support* is concerned with the provision of digital materials and computer hardware support (Alemdağ & Erdem, 2017). The cognitive and affective support were incorporated into the virtual mentoring project in the current study.

Methodology

Research Design

The study adopted a mixed-methods case study design, which incorporates quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and provides detailed insights and evidence for a particular case (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2018). As the current study explored the impact on the EFL pre-service teachers' self-efficacy of the integration of online reflective practice-oriented assessment and virtual mentoring practices into a practicum course, the adoption of a mixed-methods case study research design is deemed appropriate. Consent forms were obtained from the pre-service teachers prior to their study engagement.

Publication Ethics

For this study, research and publication ethics are complied with via the ethical committee approval obtained from the ethics committee from METU Applied Ethics Research Center. The approval was received on 21 December 2020. The protocol number was 383-ODTU-2020.

Research Context

The setting for the study was the department of foreign language education at a large Turkish state university. The study was carried out in a practicum course called ELT Practicum II, which was offered for the senior Turkish pre-service teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the spring semester of the academic year 2021/2022. The aims of the course were threefold: gaining familiarity with different types of EFL learning environments and learner profiles to have authentic teaching experience at primary/secondary schools under supervision, introducing prospective teachers to the professional teacher community, and developing a reflective teacher identity. The course involved a 12-week-long field experience (six hours a week) in two state high schools and two-hour weekly face-to-face class sessions at university. *ELT Practicum II* was the second practicum course offered for the participants in the spring semester following the first one, *ELT Practicum I,* in the fall semester. It involved teacher research tasks, structured classroom observation tasks based on different teaching skills (such as giving instructions, classroom and time management, as well as dealing with disruptive students) and four teaching tasks. The pre-service teachers were asked to videotape their teaching tasks in class and reflected on their teaching performance using a video-mediated self-assessment form produced by the researcher. The researcher was also the course instructor and UnS.

A digital portfolio assessment component was integrated into the practicum course to promote STSE development (see also Van Dinther et al., 2015) It is composed of three phases. During the first phase, formative video-mediated assessment, pre-service teachers collected evidence regarding their practicum teaching activities, as well as four reflective video-mediated self-appraisals related to their competence development in their practicum teaching tasks such as their future learning goals and activities including a reflection

regarding their prospective learning goals and activities (See Segers et al., 2008; Van Dinther et al., 2015). The second phase, feedback, involves prospective teachers' online interaction with their virtual mentors via email, Facebook and Skype meetings for professional development purposes.

Participants

Fourty EFL pre-service teachers enrolled in ELT Practicum II participated in the study. Prior to their involvement in the study, they completed all the ELT Methodology courses offered at the department. They were within an age range between 21 and 27 with a C1 level of proficiency in English. The overwhelming majority of the participants were female (n=32). They were from different parts of Turkey and had diverse social and cultural backgrounds. As for presenting quotations by the participants for the findings, they are coded as P1, P2, P3 and so forth. The terms *prospective teachers* and *student-teachers* are used interchangeably with the term *pre-service teachers* in the article.

Data Collection

The quantitative data in the study were collected via the Turkish version of Teachers' Sense of Self Efficacy Scale (TTSES), which was originally developed by Tchannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) and adapted to Turkish by Çapa et al., (2005). The qualitative data in the study were collected via weekly reflective journals, video-mediated self-assessment forms, and semi-structured interviews prior to and after the study.

The Turkish Version of the Teachers' Sense of Self-efficacy Scale

The Turkish version of Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale (TTSES) by Çapa et al. (2005), was administered to the pre-service teachers twice (at the beginning and end of the study) during the course sessions at university. The scale (see Appendix) utilized 24 items on a 9-point Likert type. The items on the scale ranged from 9 (A great deal "çok yeterli") to 1 (Nothing "Yetersiz"). The scale is considered to be highly reliable with high item-total correlations. The reliability of the whole scale is .93 (.82 for student engagement, .86 for instructional strategies, and .84 for classroom management). The items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, 22 are related to student engagement and items 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 23, 24 are concerned with instructional strategies. The items 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21 relate to classroom management. Some sample items from the scale are as follows:

•   How much can you do to help your students think critically? (Item 2- student engagement)

•   How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom? (Item 3- classroom management)

•   How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students? (Item 7- instructional strategies)

Reflective Journals

The pre-service teachers were asked to write weekly entries on their reflective journals. In these journals they evaluated their virtual mentoring experiences, their relationships with their virtual mentors, the style, and the quality of the feedback from their virtual mentors, as well as to what extent and how they incorporated the feedback they received into their subsequent teaching tasks, and the influence of this feedback on their self-efficacy. They were also asked for the new perspectives they developed regarding different aspects of teaching via their online academic and career-related exchanges during the study.

Semi-Structured Interviews

All the pre-service teachers in the study were interviewed individually prior to and following the study. The semi-structured interview is commonly utilized in the social sciences for qualitative research purposes (Creswell, 2007). Despite following a general guide or protocol prepared prior to the interview, it allows for discovery, with some room to follow topical trajectories throughout the conversation (Creswell, 2007). The familiarity of the researcher with the topic made it possible for her to address participants further in-depth questions to elaborate on their comments. The interviews lasted 40-45 minutes and were held in the researcher's office at university. They were audio-recorded with the permission of the prospective teachers. The interviews were held in Turkish, in the native language of the participants, to avoid any linguistic obstacles for their self-expression. During the semi-structured interviews before the study, the pre-service teachers performed a self-appraisal of their strong and weak points in teaching EFL, the aspects of teaching EFL where they would like to develop themselves, and the professional development activities prior to their study involvement. The interviews after the study were concerned with the following points: the participants' online interactions with their virtual mentors as well as the impact of their virtual mentors' feedback and their video-mediated self-assessment practices on their professional development and their sense of TSE.

Video-Mediated Self-Assessment

The pre-service teachers in the study completed formative video-mediated self-assessment forms considering their four teaching task performances at the practicum schools. The guidelines for the self-assessments were provided by the researcher. The pre-service teachers were supposed to perform their self-appraisals based on their video-taped teaching performances. They were asked to provide concrete evidence from their videotaped performance on different aspects of their lesson delivery and to upload their appraisals on the online learning management system EDMODO. The self-assessment form was composed of the following sections: the strong and weak aspects of their teaching, their pedagogical challenges during the teaching task implementations, their virtual mentor teacher's feedbacks on their lesson plans and their teaching performances, their interpretation of the feedbacks as well as the beneficial aspects of the feedback and how to integrate the virtual mentors' feedbacks into their future teaching tasks. Upon completing the form after each teaching task performance, they also held a post-teaching conference with the UnS where they discuss different aspects of their teaching

performance in an interactive dialogic sharing session including the provision of the UnS' constructive feedback.

Virtual Mentoring

The virtual mentoring project was incorporated into the study to ameliorate the feedback quality for the pre-service teachers. The virtual mentors are regarded as complementary for the school-based mentors assigned to the pre-service teachers in practicum. It was integrated into the study to provide balanced and constructive feedback and contribute to the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers. Within the framework of the project, both the pre-service teachers and the virtual mentors paired up with them were asked to establish contact with one another online via email. Both parties sent one another an introductory video initially. The virtual mentors' introductory videos incorporated the following details: their educational background, their teaching experience and professional development activities, their teaching qualifications, their professional goals, their professional challenges in their educational institutions and how they were coping with them, their pre-service practicum experiences. The pre-service teachers, however, were asked to incorporate the following features in their introductory videos: their educational background, their previous language learning and teaching experiences, academic research interests, future career plans, current pedagogical challenges, and their coping strategies during the practicum.

Having exchanged the introductory videos, both virtual mentors and pre-service teachers commenced their online academic sharings on ELT-related topics. A closed Facebook group was created for this purpose. They were also encouraged to use e-mails for online communication. These sharings involved discussions on the pedagogical challenges of the pre-service teachers and their coping strategies, the new ELT trends and approaches and their applicability to their local teaching contexts, the lessons they learned from the practicum. The pre-service teachers sent their lesson plans via email prior to their in-class implementation and received feedback from their virtual mentors. Following their in-class implementations, they also sent their teaching task videos to their mentors online for feedback. Apart from the aforementioned aspects, the virtual mentors were supposed to provide career guidance for the participants during the study via email and online meetings. They were asked to email two questions to their virtual mentors related to their career choices, job prospects and professional development on a weekly basis before their virtual meetings with them.

Data Analysis

The data from the TTSES were analyzed quantitatively using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 18.0. To discover the alterations in TSES beliefs of pre-service teachers in time, the responses given to the TTSES were analysed and compared over two periods (i.e., before and after the study) via the Paired Samples t-test.

Thematic content analysis was used in the analysis of the qualitative data from the weekly reflective journals, the online video-mediated self-assessment forms and semi-structured interviews (Zhang & Wildermuth, 2009). It is defined as "a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) found within data" (Braun &

Clarke, 2006, p.6). As it provided a rich and thick description of data, it highlights diverse perspectives of research participants, pointing out similar and different features, providing novel and unanticipated insights (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

During the data analysis, two coders were involved for inter-reliability purposes. One of them was the researcher and the other one was a departmental colleague who was an expert on qualitative analysis. Both coders defined the categories and subcategories in the study data (See Table 1 for the coding scheme).

Table 1. Coding Scheme (adapted from Van Dinther et al., 2015)

Categories	Sub-categories	Number of units
Mastery experiences	Mastery-after-action	195
	a) Evidence-based practice	80
	b) Teacher agency	60
	c) Metacognitive self-regulation skills	55
	Mastery-in-action	40
	a) Being addressed as a future colleague (Admission to the professional community of teachers)	40
	Mastery-for-action	58
	a) Cognitive self-regulation skills	30
	b) Metacognitive self-regulation skills	28
	Milestone-mastery	48
	1. Teacher agency	23
	2. Metacognitive self-regulation skills	25
	Mastery-in-action	40
	Being addressed as a future colleague (Admission to the professional community of teachers)	
	Mastery-for-action	58
	a) Teaching success story regulation skills	30
	b) Commitment to teaching	28
Verbal persuasion (persuading experiences)	Clarifying experiences	120
	Discrepancy feedback	
	Affirming experiences	470
	a) Balanced (constructive) feedback	170
	b) Recognisable feedback	140
	c) Progress feedback	160
Affective states (Affective experiences)	1. A rise in teaching motivation	130
	2. Professional empowerment	170
Total number of units		1329

Regarding the qualitative data analysis, a three-step analysis scheme utilized by Van Dinther et al. (2015) was adapted in the study. The basic analysis unit in the study was "a meaningful text segment, including a partial, single or some sentences" that involves EFL pre-service teachers' references to "video-mediated self-assessment" (VMSA) or "feedback from the virtual mentors" (VMF) or their views regarding the influence of these characteristics on their self-efficacy in the data from the video-mediated self-assessment tasks, reflection journals, and semi-structured interviews (Van Dinther et al., 2015, p.48). The initial step in the analysis was grouping the text segments into the categories and subcategories in line with the qualities of VMSA and VMF. As the second step in the analysis, all text segments where participants described the influence of the VMSA and VMF on their self-efficacy were selected to be coded into four categories of self-efficacy sources in the following way (Bandura, 1997):

a) *Mastery experiences* refer to participants' success experiences regarding teacher competences during the practicum period,

b) *Vicarious experiences* include participants' opinions regarding their observations of their teachers and students

c) *Verbal persuasion* includes participants' statements regarding their virtual co-mentors' affirmations and encouraging remarks on participants' competences.

d) *Physiological and affective states* include participants' opinions regarding their sensory and emotional aspects of their experiences

The third step of the analysis is pertinent to the pre-service teachers' VMSA and VMF experiences. At this stage, the self-efficacy sources depicted at the second step were further specified into efficacy information types in a manner aligned with the results of the analysis at the first step (i.e., various VMSA and VMF characteristics). This step was geared towards the exploration of the self-efficacy information sources in the VMSA and VMF that were elicited from the pre-service teachers at the second step. The results of the further specifications of the pre-service teachers' descriptions of the self-efficacy sources regarding the portfolio assessment phases are presented in Table 2:

Table 2. Connection Between the Phases of Formative Assessment and Types of Self-efficacy Information Types (Adapted from Van Dinther et al, 2015)

Types of self-efficacy information		Definition	Portfolio assessment phase		
			1.Video-mediated self-assessment	2.Feedback phase	3.Interview phase
Mastery experiences	Mastery-after-action	Awareness, consciousness and insights of pre-service teachers following a teaching experience in the past	X	X	
	a)Mastery-in-action	Pre-service teachers' feelings of success while being involved in a teaching or an interview activity			X
	b) Milestone-mastery experiences	Strong affirmation indicating one is on the right track professionally		X	
Persuading experiences	a) Clarifying experiences	Pre-service teachers' feedback experiences providing detailed and informative insights into their professional development		X	
	b) Affirming experiences	Pre-service teachers' feedback experiences enhancing their confidence in their future self-knowledge		X	
Physiological/ affective experiences	Affective states	Pre-service teachers' motivating experiences providing them with self-confidence in their own professional development	X	X	X

Initially, both coders triangulated the qualitative data collected from different sources, the reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and the video-mediated self-assessments, to promote the credibility of the research findings. For the validation and the refinement of the coding scheme, the coders checked the 20% of the qualitative data to ensure the clarity and consistency of the category definitions. Next, they were engaged in an iterative reading of the data actively, searching for meanings and patterns to form the initial codes independently (Braun & Clark, 2006). Then, they worked in the coding process collaboratively, fine-tuning the coding scheme. They negotiated on the coding categories when new codes emerged until consistency in coding was achieved (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). Subsequently, they applied the coding scheme to the qualitative data corpus. An agreement of 85% was achieved in the first round of analysis and before the second round of analysis the coders reached a consensus on the coding scheme. Finally, they launched member checking procedures to check the alignment of the transcriptions with the pre-service teachers' interpretations to consolidate the credibility and trustworthiness of the study.

Results and Discussion

The findings related to the main and sub-research questions are respectively presented in this section. Regarding the main research question in the study, the impact on the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy of the integration of online reflective practice-oriented means of assessment into the practicum course in the study, the results of the Paired Samples T-test indicated that the self-efficacy levels of pre-service teachers changed significantly over a period of 14 weeks during the spring semester of the academic year 2021 and 2022 ($p < 0.001$). The significant positive change in the STSE levels (See Table 3) could be attributed to the promotion of the pre-service teachers' reflective perspectives through the video-mediated self-assessment activities. The virtual mentors' provision of balanced, constructive, and recognizable feedback as well as extra affective and pedagogical support for the prospective teachers were also likely to have fostered their development of self-efficacy. The enhanced levels of TSE might also be linked to the participants' level self-efficacy at the beginning of the study. However, due to a restricted number of pre-service teachers in the study, the findings cannot be generalized.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics Related to TSES

Tests	Means (out of 9)	Standard Deviation
STSE scores before the study	4.57	1.50
STSE scores after the study (STSE scores changed significantly across the two stages *(p < 0.001)*	7. 20	.88

As regards the sub-components of the pre-service teachers' beliefs (Table 4), pre-service teachers felt most efficacious about instructional strategies while they reported a relatively lower degree of self-efficacy related to classroom management and student

engagement (Çankaya, 2018). Pre-service teachers in the study reported themselves as moderately successful, which was also suggested by Çankaya (2018) and Çelik and Zehir Topkaya (2017). This may be attributed to reflective practice-based formative assessment practices and constructive e-mentoring practices in the study. The study findings also indicated that prospective teachers attained higher self-efficacy levels in instructional strategies than in classroom management and student engagement (Çankaya, 2018). The pre-service teachers' tendency to overfocus on their own teaching performance at the expense of student engagement might account for this finding.

Table 4. The Descriptive Statistics Regarding Pre-service Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs Regarding the Sub-components of the TSES

Self-efficacy Categories	Pre-service Teachers' Results	
	Mean	SD
Instructional Strategies	7.50	.40
Classroom Management	7.20	.55
Student Engagement	6.90	.59

Regarding the impact of the integration of video-mediated self-assessment practices on pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy, the prospective teachers indicated that performing a self-appraisal of their own teaching via videos promoted their reflective abilities (Eröz- Tuğa, 2013). They reported that looking at their strong and weak aspects of their teaching task performance in real classroom settings retrospectively from a critical perspective via self-assesment contributed to their enactive mastery experiences (Bandura, 1997). They added that their engagement in the video-mediated self-evaluation tasks raised their awareness towards the teaching tasks they performed during their internship. They became conscious of what they did well in their teaching tasks against the teacher competences they were supposed to develop during the internship period (Van Dinther et al., 2015), which promoted a sense of mastery. In the study, these types of experiences were regarded as "mastery-after-action" experiences (Van Dinther et al., 2015, p.49). Pre-service teachers emphasized that their engagement in the video-assisted self-assessment contributed to their development of self-regulation skills, intertwined with enactive mastery experiences, a source nourishing TSE (Toussi et al., 2011). They also underscored that online reflective self-assessment experiences helped them turn into facilitators with well-developed self-regulation skills and proactive agents who are motivationally, metacognitively, and behaviorally ready to accomplish their instructional goals (Toussi et al., 2011; Zimmerman, 2000).

The following quote by P12 indicated his perception of a gradual increase in his TSE by developing new instructional strategies on time management as a result of his engagement in the regular video-mediated self-assessment practices:

> *Time management was a big problem for me on my first teaching task. I realized that I needed to develop some strategies to improve my time management. I also found that incorporating two group activities into one lesson was neither feasible nor realistic. I considered the timing issue while preparing my second lesson plan and my second teaching task was a lot better timewise.*

P12 in the aforementioned quote indicated that performing a video-enhanced self-evaluation helped him promote his self-regulated learning strategies (Zimmerman, 2000). He commented that he noticed a gradual development in his metacognitive skills by providing evidence from his own classroom practices in his video-mediated self-evaluation, which may be regarded as conducive to the promotion of his evidence-based classroom practices in the long run. This is consistent with what Schraw et al. (2006) referred to as the 'metacognitive' component of self-regulation, related to "the knowledge of cognition" and "regulation of this cognition" (p.4). The enactment of the metacognitive component of self-regulation skills, which was manifested via P12's reframing his lesson planning strategies, was acknowledged to contribute to the development of STSE (Schraw et al., 2006). P12's comments emphasized the affordances of video as a tool for developing pre-service teachers' ability to reflect and analyze (Savas, 2012).

Video- mediated self-assessment followed by critical reflection raised pre-service teachers' awareness concerning the relatively weak aspects of their teaching (Fernandez, 2010). The pre-service teachers indicated that the addition of video-based self-evaluation practices into the practicum changed their perspectives on professional development. The inclusion of the formative video-mediated self-assessment enabled pre-service teachers to capture evidence regarding their teaching practice, guide their personal inquiry into their professional growth and foster their informed decision-making processes regarding active student engagement (Shepperd & Hannafin, 2008). The following comment is representative in this respect:

"Watching my videotaped teaching task performance helped me discover that I gave a lot more turns to some students than others" (P2).

She reported that watching the video helped her see how engaged students were in the lesson. She noticed that she needed to enhance student engagement in her classes and raise the students' level of classroom participation. Likewise, P10 reported that her video-mediated assessment practices helped her improve her strategies to shape student contribution in class. She remarked that while watching her videotaped teaching she was surprised to notice that she did not ask students any elaboration questions, make enough clarification requests and confirmation checks, or use wait time effectively. P10 concluded that watching her videotaped teaching task performances acted as a pedagogical reality check for her as a prospective teacher since it enabled her to compare her real teaching task performance as reflected in the video with the way she perceived her performance (See Baecher, 2011).

Some pre-service teachers expressed their contentment with their mastery experiences at the end of their internship period when they found that they excelled in practising certain pedagogical skills in real classroom settings or that they enhanced their pedagogical competence in general. For some, these successful mastery experiences in the practicum helped them become "post-method practitioners", who can theorize their own practice, in Kumaravadivelu's (2001) terms, equipped with a strong sense of teacher agency and context-sensitive pedagogy, (p.541). They felt that they took one step further towards becoming reflective practitioners with "pedagogic thoughtfulness" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p.541). Teaching experiences informing pre-service teachers of their progress in their teaching skills and indicating their pedagogical competence served as "a milestone for their future professional learning activities" (Van Dinther et al., 2015, p. 52). Such mastery experiences were labelled as "milestone-mastery experiences" in the study because they provided "a source of self-efficacy information for pre-service teachers" (Van Dinther et al., 2015, p. 52). P3 described his mastery experience as follows:

> *For me when my students told me they liked my style of teaching during my final teaching. it was a real experience for me. Now I feel more and more committed to teaching. When I saw them addressing me as "their teacher". I felt a member of a real teacher community experience of success for me. Now I feel more and more committed to teaching.*

In addition to the importance of being able to examine their classroom practices from different angles, some pre-service teachers also emphasized that their involvement in video-mediated self-assessment promoted their awareness towards how their classroom practices affected student engagement in the lesson they taught. As they needed to provide evidence for their reflective interpretations from the lesson in their self-assessment task, pre-service teachers started to acknowledge the importance of evidence-based practices. P19 illustrated this very effectively below:

> *I did not think that my body language was so influential on student engagement. While watching the video recording of my teaching, I noticed that I was listening to my students with my arms folded. When I focused on the students' reactions, I observed very few students participating in the discussion. I was shocked to see listening to the students with folded arms affected student participation negatively.*

Apart from the abovementioned benefit of video-mediated self-assessment concerning the enhancement of mastery-after-action experiences of EFL pre-service teachers, some stated that performing regular video-mediated self-assessment also enabled them to explore and reframe their previous ideas about student learning. Subsequent to her first lesson implementation, P30, wrote in his self-assesssment form the following:

> *During the group work in class, I thought students were not engaged in the task properly.However, upon watching the video, I saw that although they were not interacting all the time,they were still on task and were working towards the task accomplishment.*

Pre-service teachers underscored their perceptions of a growing sense of TSE throughout the study. They reported feeling a sense of success in their teaching task implementations as they became more and more reflective and critical via their systematic engagement in the video-mediated self-inquiry practices. This engagement helped them

develop a professional growth mindset. The study found that such practices also helped pre-service teachers to launch a critical and reflective inquiry into perceived classroom failures, to justify their observations of students' active involvement through video-based evidence, and produce plans for their professional development. In fact, P5 and P17 reported the following in this respect:

"I think I am good at classroom management in general, but I can develop pair/group work strategies more effectively" (P5).

"I believe that I have some good strategies to motivate students ... but I should improve them so that my students can actively engage in the lesson" (P17).

Even though all the participants were concerned with how to enhance student motivation and were aware of the importance of differentiating the question types in line with their pedagogic goals in different stages of the lesson, they questioned if they were able to formulate questions to shape learner contributions effectively and ensure meaningful classroom interaction. Hence, the study unravelled that pre-service teachers' engagement in such video-mediated self-assessment practices paved the way for mastery-for-reflection experiences, which were not reported in the previous studies. As these online practice-oriented self-assessment practice tasks also fostered their cognitive self-regulation skills such as critical thinking, and metacognitive self-regulation skills (planning and monitoring), they also promoted pre-service teachers' reflection-for-action (Farrell, 2013). The pre-service teachers were motivated to view their future actions with the intention of improving or modifying their practices. By reflecting on their past pedagogical experiences, the pre-service teachers started to consider how their previous teaching experiences could guide their future teachings and what and how to make alterations in their own practices (Farrell, 2013).

In relation to the findings concerning the influence of the virtual mentoring practices on the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy, the study indicated the pre-service teachers' favorable perceptions of feedbacks from their virtual mentors. They emphasized the balanced and recognizable aspects of their virtual mentors' feedback enhanced their mastery and verbal persuasion experiences. The participants in the study did not view vicarious experiences as a self-efficacy source as they did not have an opportunity to observe their virtual mentors' classes. The pre-service teachers indicated that their virtual mentors' constructive feedback provision style informed them of their strong and weak points. In addition, the prospective teachers reported that their mentors' inquiry-based Socrative listening style helped them discover how to improve their weak points via reflection on action. (Richter et al., 2013).

Most of the pre-service teachers expressed their satisfaction with their virtual mentors' feedback. They stated that their mentors' constructive feedback regarding the aspects of their teaching performance they need to develop in their teaching tasks enhanced their mastery experiences, contributing to their self-efficacy as prospective teachers (Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009). They pointed out the balanced nature of the feedback, referring to both their strong and weak points, and how it enhanced their self-judgements about their own development. The pre-service teachers expressed that they felt more empowered when they had a clear view of their professional development and a

growing understanding of how and what they needed to improve through feedback (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Rosaen et al., 2008; Van Dinther, et al., 2015). P35 expressed this in the following way:

> *When I discovered in my post-conference session with my virtual mentor that the lack of student participation was due to my excessive use of referential questions in the lesson, I got a clear picture of my teaching performance. She recommended me to vary the question types in line with my pedagogical goals and the lesson stages. Now I am trying to diversify my question types.*

Apart from enjoying a feeling of certainty that the abovementioned quote illustrates, the pre-service teachers pointed out that their virtual mentors' feedback made a favorable impact on their physiological and affective experiences (Bandura, 1997; Van Dinther et al., 2015). However, a minority of prospective teachers in the study indicated that even though their mentors' feedback helped them understand how to develop their weak aspects of teaching, they still needed further guidance and support for her professional growth due to their lack of teaching experience and their emergent teacher identities (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013).

Concerning the balanced nature of their virtual mentors' feedback, the participants emphasized that their mentors' feedback incorporated not only the "discrepancy between a current level of performance of a given student and a goal or desired level of performance" ("discrepancy feedback") but also a comparison between "a current level of performance with an earlier level of performance" ("progress feedback") (Voerman et al., 2012, p. 1108). The pre-service teachers regarded the provision of both discrepancy and progress feedback in a combined fashion as beneficial and motivating for their professional development. They emphasized that in cases where their mentor provided discrepancy feedback exclusively, they tended to feel demotivated and inefficacious as prospective teachers. The provision of progress feedback via systematic online self-assessment tasks as well as the regular online communication with their virtual mentor teachers is in line with the formative nature of the digital porfolio assessment.

The establishment of a safe zone for sharing and communication in their feedback sessions with their virtual mentors contributed positively to their motivation levels, which, influenced their affective states favorably (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Their virtual mentors' non-judgemental interaction style empowered them psychologically and acted as a boost for their self-efficacy. Particularly pre-service teachers who had relatively low self-efficacy found it relieving to be given constructive and detailed feedback on their strong aspects of their teaching and their progress in their teaching skills development. The constructive feedback served as verbal persuasion for the participant pre-service teachers. Those with a low level of TSE beliefs also reported their contentment with the way their virtual mentors shared their weak points in their teaching performance. They indicated that virtual mentors' encouraging words for them to ameliorate their teaching performance and their provision of recommendations in this respect had a positive impact on their emerging teacher identities. Additionally, listening to their virtual mentors' accounts of their successful and relatively unsuccessful lessons, discussing with them the factors underlying their successes/failures were found to positively affect the pre-service teachers' affective states (Bandura, 1997).

Pre-service teachers in the current study pointed out that verbal persuasion via clarifying and affirming experiences fostered their development of teacher competencies. They expressed that the former provided them with a mirror where they could have a clearer picture of their teaching performance as well as a road map for professional growth. They added that the affirming experiences enabled them to have more confidence in their teaching skills, pedagogical content and procedural knowledge.

In addition to the favorable impact of clarifying virtual mentor feedback experiences on their self-efficacy, several participants pointed out the self-efficacy-boosting impact of the affirming virtual mentor feedback experiences. They admitted that their virtual mentors' feedback was generally relevant and specific. They added that it involved valuable strategies for their professional development. They pointed out that the recognisable feature of the mentor feedback addressed the points that they were planning to improve and that it echoed their own point of view (Van Dinther et al., 2015). They pointed out even though they were given feedback about the weak points of their teaching, they did not view it as face-threatening since it was compatible with their perspectives and incorporated some suggestions for further improvement.

In the study, in addition to different sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), an additional source emerged in the data: Admission to the professional teacher community. The prospective teachers in the study reported that being treated as future colleagues by their virtual mentors and by their UnS during the semi-structured interviews, being part of an online community of practice in a dialogic sharing atmosphere for professional development purposes, the absence of a hierarchical power relationship with their virtual mentors nurtured their sense of TSE. The favorable rapport with their virtual mentors affected their affective states and their teaching motivation positively (Richter et al, 2013). Being given the opportunity to be engaged in a career-related sharing with their virtual mentors where they discussed the pros and cons of various career choices from multiple perspectives and where they were informed of their mentors' teaching experiences empowered the pre-service teachers professionally, influencing their affective states positively. They reported that when their mentors made them feel part of the professional teacher community, they became more self-efficacious, with a high degree of commitment to their future profession. In addition, the pre-service teachers in the study remarked that the students' addresssing them as their teachers during their teaching task implementation at the practicum school also enhanced their self-efficacy.

The positive tone the virtual mentors in the study adopted in their dialogic sharing sessions with their mentees regarding career advising, also had a positive impact on the pre-service teachers' affective states, which is considered another source for self-efficacy for teachers (Bandura, 1997). Since pre-service teachers were in a state of anxiety and confusion about the selection of the optimum career paths for themselves, their level of anxiety tended to be relatively high during the practicum period. They described their meetings with the virtual mentors as inspiring and encouraging thanks to the latter's friendly and approachable attitude in their academic sharings. They also mentioned the valuable insights they gained into the potential job prospects as well as virtual and face-to-

face professional development opportunities through their interactive communication with their mentors.

The semi-structured interviews with the pre-service teachers at the end of the study, which served as a mastery-in-action experience, confirmed that the previous phases of the digital portfolio assessment was conducive to the prospective teachers' self-efficacy perceptions. The pre-service teachers reported enjoying a strong sense of self-efficacy when they shared their progress in their teaching competency development and how they dealt with their pedagogical challenges. They also added when they were addressed as 'future colleagues" by their university supervisors, it signified their admission to the professional community of teachers for them. Hence, they felt self-confident, which affected their affective states favourably.

Conclusion

The study highlighted that the integration of reflective video-mediated self-assessment into practicum courses promoted EFL pre-service teachers' self-efficacy in different ways (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Fernandez, 2010; Rosaen et al., 2008; Van Dinther et al., 2015) and the importance of formative assessment for prospective teachers' learning (See Segers et al, 2008; Smith & Tilema, 2003). In addition, they revealed the favorable influence of constructivist e-mentoring style adopted by the virtual mentors in the study on the self-efficacy of EFL pre-service teachers (Richter et al., 2013).

The study findings indicated the pre-service teachers' level of self-efficacy rose relatively significantly owing to the integration of online reflective practice-oriented assessment into the practicum, which corroborates the previous research findings (Van Dinther et al. 2015; Hattie &Temperley, 2007; Segers et al., 2008). From the perspective of pre-service teacher education, the findings could be interpreted as a call for restructuring student teaching experience. The pre-service teachers might benefit from extensive video-mediated self-assessment practices, the guidance and support of virtual mentors in their professional development journey to ameliorate their teaching performance. Furthermore, the pre-service teacher education courses should also attach more importance to pedagogical content knowledge development, particularly regarding classroom management skills and student engagement. The teacher educators might also consider incorporating a reflective component into their practicum course via reflective journals or engaging pre-service teachers in evaluating their performances in teaching tasks (reflection-on-action), in planning or revising their instructional strategies for their future classroom practices (reflection-for-action).

The study also revealed that video-mediated self-assessment practices fostered the self-efficacy of the pre-service teachers through mastery experiences, including mastery-after-action and milestone-mastery experiences as well as mastery-for-action (Van Dinther et al., 2015). Hence, formative video-mediated assessment procedures seemed to have the capacity of enhancing the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy via diverse mastery experiences. Making video-mediated self-evaluation activities an integral part of the practicum is likely to enable pre-service teachers to internalize their reflective perspectives towards their own teaching practices and cultivate a critical attitude towards the teaching

competencies that they have developed, enhancing their self-regulation skills (Toussi et al., 2011). Being engaged in video-mediated self-evaluation activities might facilitate pre-service teachers' discovery of their strong and weak points, triggering them to generate new strategies to cope with their pedagogical challenges. The encouragement of pre-service teachers to provide evidence for different aspects of their teaching through their engagement in video-mediated self-assessment activities may lead to the promotion of evidence-based classroom practices, bridging the divide between the theory and practice in education (Maskit, 2013). Considering the impact of video-mediated self-evaluation activities on the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy development, integrating such reflective activities into the practicum courses might be recommended. These activities contribute to the formation of a reflective mindset among prospective teachers, encouraging them to develop strategies of self-regulation such as planning, organization, monitoring, and evaluation (Orhan, 2008).

As to the impact of the virtual mentoring project on the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy development in the study, the study concluded that the virtual mentors influenced the prospective teachers' self-efficacy development via verbal persuasions. The mentors might encourage the pre-service teachers by providing them with clarifying experiences so that the latter could gain a clear view of their professional development. Additionally, by providing the pre-service teachers with affirming experiences, the virtual mentors might them gain confidence in their teaching skills. Virtual mentors might promote pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy through their balanced and constructive feedbacks. In this respect, the study underscored the significance of providing pre-service teachers with critical feedback based on a discrepancy between the current and desired performance (i.e., discrepancy feedback) as well as supportive feedback based on a comparison between the pre-service teachers' previous and current performance (i.e., progress feedback) (Voerman et al., 2012). The virtual mentors are likely to have an affirmative influence on the prospective teachers' self-efficacy development by addressing them as their future colleagues by recognizing their status as prospective teachers, and by introducing them to the professional community of teachers by sharing their own professional experiences, challenges and professional development activites,

Although the findings of the study are not considered generalizable because of its restricted number of participants and its short duration, the findings are likely to shed light into other similar EFL pre-service education contexts in Turkey and abroad in terms of how to raise the level of pre-service teachers' self-efficacy levels through formative reflective practice-based self-assessment procedures and virtual mentoring. Regarding further research suggestions, the longitudinal inquiry into the EFL pre-service teachers' self-efficacy development in different educational settings might be considered. Also, comparative studies based on the exploration of possible self-efficacy sources for the experienced and novice EFL teachers or the impact of online versus face-to-face teaching environments on the EFL pre-service teachers' self efficacy development might also be recommended. Finally, international telecollaboration projects focusing on the self-efficacy development of prospective teachers could also be regarded as an alternative research field.

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Appendix. The Turkish Version of the Teachers' Sense of Self-efficacy Scale
           (Öğretmen Öz-yeterlik Ölçeği) (Çapa et al., 2005)

Ölçek Maddeleri	Çok Yeterli	Oldukça Yeterli	Biraz Yeterli	Çok Az Yeterli	Yetersiz
	9	7	5	3	1
1.Çalışması zor öğrencilere ulaşmayı ne kadar başarabilirsiniz?					
2. Öğrencilerin eleştirel düşünmelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?					
3. Sınıfta dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen davranışları kontrol etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?					
4. Derslere az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri motive etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?					
5. Öğrenci davranışlarıyla ilgili beklentilerinizi ne kadar açık ortaya koyabilirsiniz?					
6. Öğrencileri okulda başarılı olabileceklerine inandırmayı ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?					
7. Öğrencilerin zor sorularına ne kadar iyi cevap verebilirsiniz?					
8. Sınıfta yapılan etkinliklerin düzenli yürümesini ne kadar iyi sağlayabilirsiniz?					
9. Öğrencilerin öğrenmeye değer vermelerini ne kadar					

sağlayabilirsiniz?

Ölçek Maddeleri	Çok Yeterli	Oldukça Yeterli	Biraz Yeterli	Çok Az Yeterli	Yetersiz
	9	7	5	3	1
10. Öğrettiklerinizin öğrenciler tarafından kavranıp kavranmadığını ne kadar iyi değerlendirebilirsiniz?					
11. Öğrencilerinizi iyi bir şekilde değerlendirmesine olanak sağlayacak soruları ne ölçüde hazırlayabilirsiniz?					
12. Öğrencilerin yaratıcılığının gelişmesine ne kadar yardımcı olabilirsiniz?					
13. Öğrencilerin sınıf kurallarına uymalarını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?					
14. Başarısız bir öğrencinin dersi daha iyi anlamasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?					
15. Dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen ya da derste gürültü yapan öğrencileri ne kadar yatıştırabilirsiniz?					
16. Farklı öğrenci gruplarına uygun sınıf yönetim sistemi ne kadar iyi oluşturabilirsiniz?					
17. Derslerin her bir öğrencinin seviyesine uygun olmasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?					
18. Farklı değerlendirme yöntemlerini ne kadar kullanabilirsiniz?					
19. Birkaç problemli öğrencinin derse zarar vermesini ne kadar iyi engelleyebilirsiniz?					

Ölçek Maddeleri	Çok Yeterli	Oldukça Yeterli	Biraz Yeterli	Çok Az Yeterli	Yetersiz
	9	7	5	3	1

20. Öğrencilerin kafası karıştığında ne kadar alternatif açıklama ya da örnek sağlayabilirsiniz?	
21. Sizi hiçe sayan davranışlar gösteren öğrencilerle ne kadar iyi baş edebilirsiniz?	
22. Çocuklarının okulda başarılı olmalarına yardımcı olmaları için ailelere ne kadar destek olabilirsiniz?	
23. Sınıfta farklı öğretim yöntemlerini ne kadar iyi uygulayabilirsiniz?	
24. Çok yetenekli öğrencilere uygun öğrenme ortamını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	

Research Article

Eliciting Pre-Service EFL Teachers' Views on CoursebooksThrough Metaphorical Language

Sibel Korkmazgil [*]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Unearthing pre-service attitudes towards coursebooks might have important implications for pre- and in-service teacher education since, of all the materials used in English language teaching (ELT), coursebooks are widely used in school settings. In this regard, this study aims to surface pre-service English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' beliefs on coursebooks through metaphorical language. Data gathered from 129 Turkish pre-service teachers of English are presented and discussed in the present study. Qualitative content analysis was employed in this study to analyze the metaphors provided by the pre-service EFL teachers. The participants produced 70 differentmetaphors for coursebooks and data analysis revealed seven conceptualcategories: *Guidance, Resource, Support, Access to New Opportunities, Worthlessness, Restrictions* and *Boredom*. The participants produced mostly positive metaphors for coursebooks and saw coursebooks as a support and guide for language education.

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Introduction

According to the database of the project entitled "How States Promote Global English: Shifting Priorities in Education Policy" (Global English Education Policy, n.d.), there are 142 countries in the world where English is taught as a mandatory subject in the public education and in 41 countries it is offered as an elective course in many schools. As the projection stated in the English Effect (2013), a report issued by British Council, by 2020 there would be up to almost 2 billion English learners in schools worldwide. Considering the wide range of teaching contexts all around the world, it is possible to state that coursebooks are widely used especially in school settings since they have several advantages that make them useful for both teachers and learners (Allwright, 1981; Cunningsworth, 1995; McGrath, 2002; O'Neill, 1982; Ur, 1996). First of all, they provide a structured and systematic approach to curriculum and a clear and coherent progression of language skills and knowledge that follows a logical sequence and builds on previous learning. Furthermore, coursebooks offer a variety of materials and activities that cater to different learning styles, preferences, and needs. They include texts, audio, videos, images, games, puzzles, quizzes, and projects that engage learners and stimulate their interest and motivation (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). They expose learners to authentic and relevant language input and facilitate self-study and revision by providing clear learning objectives and outcomes.

Among the advantages for EFL teachers, one might well state that coursebooks support teachers in their planning and delivery of lessons by providing them with ready-made materials and guidance, which might be considered as "a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.7). They save teachers time and effort in designing and preparing their own materials and allow them to focus on other aspects of teaching, such as classroom management, differentiation, and personalization. Furthermore, coursebooks facilitate communication and collaboration among teachers and learners by creating a common reference point and a shared understanding of the course content and goals. They enable teachers to monitor and evaluate learners' progress and performance by using the same criteria and standards. They also foster a sense of community and belonging among learners by promoting interaction and cooperation.

Despite these advantages, the literature has also raised some of the potential disadvantages that coursebook-based teaching might have (McGrath, 2002; Ur, 1996). For example, coursebooks may not suit the needs, interests, and levels of the learners in a particular class as they are designed for a general audience. Furthermore, coursebooks may impose a fixed sequence and structure of lessons that teachers and learners have to follow, which may reduce the opportunities for teachers to adapt the materials to their own teaching style and context, and for learners to explore their own interests and learning strategies. Thus, they may limit the creativity and autonomy of teachers and learners. Besides, coursebooks are not always accurate, objective or up-to-date in their presentation of language and content. They may contain mistakes in grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation or present misleading or incomplete information about the culture, history or society of the target language.

Considering the advantages and disadvantages of coursebook-based teaching, it is possible to suggest that what matters is not to choose to use a coursebook but how teachers and learners use it in language teaching and learning. As Garton and Graves (2014) state, in their chapter entitled 'Materials in ELT: Current Issues', the field is under-researched and much of the research in the literature focus on materials design, types of materials, materials evaluation, adaptation and

development (McDonough et al., 2013; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2012). Considering the relationship between attitudes, beliefs and practices, exploring English language teachers' attitudes towards coursebooks is of great significance since their attitudes affect the way they use the coursebooks in language teaching. The assumption underlying this study is that if these views are articulated and examined in the pre-service teacher education programs, they will be more aware of their own conceptions and more critical towards using coursebooks in their future careers. Furthermore, such an investigation might yield significant information for teacher educators about the pre-service teachers' needs, which might well lead to changes in the teacher training programs. Metaphor elicitation was employed in this study to unearth pre- service EFL teachers' beliefs about coursebooks since metaphors might provide links between the participants' attitudes and practices. Thus, this paper aims to unearth pre- service EFL teachers' beliefs on coursebooks through metaphorical language. The following research questions guide this study:

1.   What metaphors did pre-service EFL teachers use for coursebooks?

2.   In which categories can these metaphors be grouped according to their common characteristics?

Literature Review

Metaphors may provide windows into people's thinking and cognition as they might be considered as mental structures that shape human perception, thought and action (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), which might well justify its popularity as a research tool in educational contexts. Discussing the use of metaphor in education, Thornbury (1991) states that "[t]eachers, like other professionals, resort to and depend on the use of metaphor when it comes to verbalizing their experience: metaphors help them to see what is invisible, to describe what otherwise would be indescribable" (p. 193). Reviewing the literature on teaching and teacher education, Saban (2006) identified 10 distinct functions of educational metaphors: metaphors as "a blueprint of professional thinking, an archetype of professional identity, a pedagogical device, a medium of reflection, a tool for evaluation, a research tool, a curriculum theory, a mental model, an instrument of discovery and a springboard for change" (p. 301).

Metaphors have been employed in many studies in the literature to explore various educational concepts including teacher and student (i.e., Aslan, 2019; Gencer, 2020; Oxford et al.,1998; Sarıkaya, 2018; Seferoğlu et al., 2009) education, teaching and learning (i.e., Duru, 2017; Leavy et al., 2007), teacher identity (i.e., Gao & Cui, 2021; Nguyen, 2016; Kimsesiz, 2023; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011; Yeşilbursa, 2012), educational reforms (i.e. Ungar, 2016), curriculum (i.e., Akınoğlu, 2017; Aykaç & Çelik, 2014; Çırak-Kurt, 2017; Gültekin, 2013; Özdemir, 2012; Semerci & Özçelik, 2018; Yıldız & Korkmazgil, 2021), school (i.e., Arslan, 2020; Koca et al., 2021; Neyişçi & Özdiyar, 2019; Saban, 2008), classroom (i.e., Levine, 2005), literacy (i.e., Shaw & Mahlios, 2011) and digital literacy (i.e., Tham et al., 2021).

The concept of coursebooks is also one of the subjects studied through metaphors (Allen, 2015; Kesen, 2010; McGrath, 2006a, 2006b). McGrath (2006b) analyzed 221 metaphors gathered from Brazillian teachers of English for ELT textbooks and found that teachers' views on coursebooks vary greatly suggesting that "the teachers fall into three groups: there are those who are prepared to follow a textbook; those who use it selectively; and those who will do what they can to avoid it" (p. 313). In another paper, McGrath (2006a) shared the results of the data collected through over a two-year period both from 75 secondary school teachers of English and several

hundred secondary school students in Hong Kong. These participants were also asked to write a metaphor or a simile for English language coursebooks. The English language teachers' images were categorized under fourthemes, which are *Guidance*, *Support*, *Resource* and *Constraint*, while the learners' imagesfor coursebooks were grouped under *Authority*, *Resource*, *Support*, *Guidance*, *Constraint*, *Boredom*, *Worthlessness* and *Source of anxiety and fear*. Interpreting the difference between the images of teachers and learners, McGrath (2006a) justified the use of metaphors in the study on the grounds that such an investigation has important implications because it reveals learners as well as teachers' attitudes towards coursebooks and "the expression of different views among learners may prompt discussion of the source of these views and their possible effect on learning; implications for learner trainingor for desired modifications in teacher practices may then emerge" (McGrath, 2006b, p. 179). Furthermore, as McGrath (2006b) suggests, if teachers examine their students' and their own metaphors for coursebooks and reflect on the possible gaps between these views,they can eventually take action to improve the education process and use it as an opportunity for their professional development.

Kesen (2010) examined the metaphors of 150 Turkish students about coursebooks. The participants, mostly majoring in science, psychology and engineering, were learning English in the Preparatory School at a private university in Cyprus. The participants produced 57 different metaphors for coursebooks and the analysis of the metaphors revealed that the most frequently cited metaphors such as 'planet', 'foreign country', 'secret garden' and 'space' fall under the theme of *Mystery*. Kesen (2010) interprets this result by stating that these metaphors for language coursebooks "in Turkey where foreign language education is compulsory and is still a demanding task …represent the feeling of uncertainty or enigma experienced by the learners. The reason for such analogies might be attributable to inappropriate selection of language textbooks by language teachers" (p.116). The second category with the highest number of metaphors was found to be *Guidance and Enlightenment* in which the metaphor of 'guide' was used by twelve participants. Kesen (2010) found that participants mostly produced positive metaphors for coursebooks while one-third of the metaphors implied negative perceptions.

Allen (2015) studied the opinions of Swedish teachers of English on coursebooks and their reliance on ELT coursebook packages against freely available digital alternatives and data were collected from pre- and in-service EFL teachers in Sweden. He employed metaphors as part of his data collection procedures. In this regard, the participants were given a list of coursebook metaphors adapted from McGrath (2002) and asked to circle the one that they think best described their attitude to coursebooks in the digital era. Analysis revealed that inexperienced teachers and pre-service EFL teachers have a more positive attitude towards the use of coursebooks. "Their more experienced in-service colleagues are, however, increasingly abandoning the coursebook in favour of freestanding digital resources. Practising teachers in the survey increasingly saw coursebooks in contingency terms and as a 'fall-back' position" (Allen, 2015, p. 249).

The difference between the experienced teachers and pre-service teachers' attitudestowards the use of coursebooks has also been supported by some other studies (Grossman & Thompson, 2008; Tsui, 2003; Yılmaz & Aydın, 2015). As teachers gain more experience, they might feel less dependent on coursebooks they use in the classroom and they can adapt and adjust their use of coursebooks to better suit the needs of their learners, while novice teachers depend more on coursebooks due to lack of knowledge about the learners and the curriculum. Much of the literature on coursebooks deal with coursebook evaluation from the practicing teachers' perspectives

(Kayapınar, 2009; Kütük & Su-Bergil, 2021; Şahin, 2022; Şener & Mulcar, 2018); however, there is a gap in research into the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards ELT materials. Thus, this study aims to contribute to the related literature by investigating pre-service EFL teachers' views on coursebook through metaphors.

Methodology

This research study follows a phenomenological design, which is one of the qualitative research methods. Underlying phenomenological research is an attempt to seek the reality in the narratives of an individual on a particular phenomenon based on his/her emotions and experiences and to produce in-depth explanations for this phenomenon(Yüksel & Yıldırım, 2015, p.1). Thus, the current study aims to reveal pre-service EFL teachers' perceptions of coursebooks through their metaphorical language and explanations.

Participants and the Context

Admission to the Initial English language teaching programs in Turkey is granted by a centralized university entrance exam. Pre-service teachers take various subject matter courses such as literature, linguistics and methodology as well as general education courses during their four-year teacher education programs. Starting their third year in the program, they take the ELT methodology courses that aim to equip these pre-service teachers with theoretical and practical knowledge to address different age groups and teaching contexts. Pre-service teachers take teaching practice in the final year of theprogram during which they have opportunities to observe real classrooms and put their theoretical knowledge into practice during their demo lessons.

The study group of the research consists of pre-service EFL teachers at the Department of Foreign Language Teaching at a state university in the Central Anatolia region in the spring semesters of the 2021-2022 and 2022-2023 academic years. Convenience sampling was employed and of 129 pre-service teachers participating in this study, 105 (81.4 %) are female and 24 (18.6 %) are male. Their ages vary between 19 and 23. As part of their teacher education program, all of the participants took the course 'Coursebook Evaluation in ELT' in the fall term of their third year. This course aims to equip pre-service EFL teachers with knowledge and skills necessary for evaluating language coursebooks and adapting materials, and prepare them towards material development, which might contribute to their professional development considering the fact that teachers working at public schools are obliged to follow the coursebooks that Ministry of National Education send to all K-12 students in Turkey for free. Furthermore, in the courses of Practice Teaching I and II, they both observed their mentor teachers' use of coursebooks and used these coursebooks in their demo lessons in the assigned schools.

Data Collection

An open-ended questionnaire form was administered to determine the perceptions of preservice teachers about coursebooks. The questionnaire form consists of two parts. Participants were first asked to provide demographic information such as gender and age, and then in the second

part they were given the sentence "A course book is like ……. because ……" and asked to complete this sentence with a metaphor or simile that represent their attitudes to course books and provide an explanation for the metaphor/simile they have written.

Data Analysis

Qualitative content analysis was employed in this study to analyze the metaphors provided by the pre-service EFL teachers. The content analysis process was carried out in the following four stages: coding the data, creating themes, ensuring inter-coder reliability, and identifying and interpreting the findings. In accordance with these stages, the metaphors produced by the participants were firstly listed in alphabetical order and thenthe information about each participant, his/her metaphor and the explanation presented by the participant were coded. Reviewing the participants' explanations about the metaphors, seven themes were created in which the metaphors provided by the preservice teachers canbe classified. This stage was finalized by placing metaphors and explanations under the categories. In order to ensure credibility and reliability, the aforementioned stages of content analysis were conducted by two coders. The second coder matched the metaphors with the categories created by the first coder. In the analysis of the metaphorical perceptions of preservice EFL teachers, the coders reached a consensus of 94.8%. The level of consensus among coders is expected to be at least 80% (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002). Therefore, it is possible to assert that the internal consistency is high in this study. Finally, the results were interpreted according to the defined themes.

Research Ethics

Prior to the study, the ethics committee approval was obtained from Social Sciences and Humanities Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee of Sivas Cumhuriyet University dated 08.04.2022 and numbered E-60263016-050.06.04-159543. The participants were informed about the research purpose, data collection procedure, and the research design. They were told that participation in this research study was voluntary and they could withdraw anytime during the procedure. Moreover, the participants were informed about the steps taken to keep anonymity. No personal information which might expose their identity would be asked from the participants, and their responses were displayed not only during the data analysis but also in the report only through numbers with the initials of pre-service teachers such as PT-1, PT-2, etc.

Results

Preservice EFL teachers' coursebook metaphors

129 EFL Preservice teachers produced 70 different metaphors for coursebooks and these metaphors are displayed in Table 1. The most frequently created metaphors were 'compass', 'guide', 'map', 'lantern', 'sea', 'light', 'teacher', 'treasure', 'leader', 'moon', 'ocean' and 'sun'.

Table 1. Preservice Teachers' Coursebook Metaphors

Metaphor	f	Metaphor	f	Metaphor	f
1. Compass	11	25. Breath	1	48. Marriage	1

2.	Guide	9	26.	Candle	1	49.	Medicine	1
3.	Map	6	27.	Canvas	1	50.	Mirror	1
4.	Lantern	5	28.	Car	1	51.	Money	1
5.	Sea	5	29.	A closed box	1	52.	An old man	1
6.	Light	4	30.	Conductor	1	53.	Painting	1
7.	Teacher	4	31.	Dictionary	1	54.	Parent	1
8.	Treasure	4	32.	Door	1	55.	Parrot	1
9.	Leader	3	33.	Drawing room	1	56.	Rubbish bin	1
10.	Moon	3	34.	Eyeglasses	1	57.	Rubik's Cube	1
11.	Ocean	3	35.	Food	1	58.	Safe box	1
12.	Sun	3	36.	Foreign text	1	59.	Showcase in the living room	1
13.	A broken watch	2	37.	Fountain	1	60.	Snacks	1
14.	Coffee	2	38.	Gum sticking to the bottom of a shoe	1	61.	Stairs	1
15.	Friend	2	39.	Human body	1	62.	Streetlight	1
16.	Manual	2	40.	Inadequate parent	1	63.	Swamp	1
17.	Navigation	2	41.	Lampshade	1	64.	Toxic relationship	1
18.	A new world	2	42.	Library	1	65.	Torch	1
19.	Pomegranate	2	43.	Lighthouse	1	66.	Traffic lights	1
20.	Rainbow	2	44.	Life	1	67.	Trip	1
21.	Road signs	2	45.	A living organism	1	68.	Universe	1
22.	Sky	2	46.	Load	1	69.	Waterfall	1
23.	Tree	2	47.	Water spring	1	70.	Work life	1
24.	Balloon	1						

Thematic Classification of Pre-service EFL Teachers' Metaphors for ELT Coursebooks

The metaphorical images produced by the pre-service EFL teachers regarding the coursebooks were grouped under seven themes: *Guidance, Resource, Support, Access to New Opportunities, Worthlessness, Restrictions* and *Boredom*. These themes are displayed in Table 2. Pre-service EFL teachers were found to produce mostly positive metaphorical images for coursebooks (n=109) that included the images assigned to the first four categories shown in Table 2, while the negative images created by the participants fell under the categories of *Worthlessness, Restrictions* and *Boredom Restrictions* (n=20).

As Table 2 presents, among these seven categories created by pre-service teachers' metaphorical images for coursebooks, the categories with the highest number of metaphors were *Guidance* (n=57), *Resource* (n=31), *Support* (n=13) and *Worthlessness* (11) respectively. The categories with the lowest number of metaphors were *Access to New Opportunities* (n=8), *Restrictions* (n=7) and *Boredom* (n=2).

Table 2. A Thematic Classification of Coursebook Metaphors Produced by PreserviceEFL Teachers

	Themes	f	Metaphors
1.	*Resource*	31	breath, coffee (2), dictionary, fountain, food, good friend (2), a human body, library, a living organism, main water spring, ocean (3), pomegranate (2), safe box, sea (5), sky (2), treasure (4), universe, waterfall,
2.	*Support*	13	canvass, car, eyeglasses, marriage, medicine, mirror, stairs, teacher (4), tree (2),

3.	*Guidance*	57	candle, conductor, compass (11), guide (9), lantern (5), leader (3), light (4), lighthouse, manual (2), map (6), moon (3), navigation (2), a parent, road signs (2), sun (3), streetlights, torch, traffic lights
4.	*Access to New Opportunities*	8	door, a foreign text, a new world (2), painting, rainbow (2), trip
5.	*Worthlessness*	11	balloon, a broken watch (2), drawing room, lampshade, load, money, parrot, rubbish bin, showcase in the living room, snacks
6.	*Restrictions*	7	a closed box, gum sticking to the bottom of the shoe, an inadequate parent, swamp, work life, Rubik's cube, toxic relationship
7.	*Boredom*	2	life, an old man

The category of *Guidance* included 57 metaphors (44.2 %). The most frequently stated metaphors in this category were 'compass', 'guide', 'map' 'lantern', 'light', 'moon' and 'sun'. In this category, pre-service EFL teachers considered coursebooks as a guide in English language teaching as the following three quotations showed:

> A coursebook is a lantern because it sheds light on teachers and students on how, where andwhich way to go correctly while progressing on the path we want to go (PT-7).

> A coursebook is like the light that exists in the dark because it guides the teacher and shedslight (PT-34).

> A coursebook is like a map because it guides us in every subject we want to learn (PT-122).

When most of the explanations provided by the participants for the theme *Guidance* were considered neutral as a guide, some nuances were found in terms of their perceptions of a coursebook as a guide. For example, two participants emphasized the control of a teacher over the materials they use in the classroom by stating:

> A coursebook is like a compass because the book shows the direction to the teachers, the teacher decides where and how to go (PT-31).

> A coursebook is like the Moon because just as the moon reflects the light it receives from the Sun to the Earth, the coursebook also gives information to students in the light of the teacher (PT-78).

Moreover, having analyzed the metaphors with the explanations given by the pre-service teachers, it is possible to suggest that metaphors such as 'parent', 'leader', 'conductor', 'manual', 'road signs' and 'traffic lights' revealed their perceptions that they were more dependent on a coursebook as guide:

> A coursebook is like a manual because just as we cannot figure out a new electronic device without looking at the user manual, we cannot understand or solve our lessons without a book that shows us direction. (PT-22)

> A coursebook is like an orchestra conductor because it manages which subject will be given in what way and in what order during the lesson. (PT-26)

> A coursebook is like a leader because it guides, teaches and illuminates our path. (PT-54)

The category of *Resource* includes 18 metaphors obtained from 31 pre-service teachers. In this category, the participants considered the coursebook as the basis, essence,

raw material and main source of the lessons. When the metaphors in this category are examined, it is possible to say that there are different views on the use of coursebook as a source. For example, the metaphors of 'sea', 'ocean', 'main water source', 'spring' and 'waterfall', which evoke water, an indispensable source of life, were expressed by 11 participants. One participant that produced the metaphor of sea stated that "a coursebook is like the sea because it contains all kinds of information and each piece of information in the book is like an organism in the sea" (PT-108), while another emphasized the abundance of information that coursebooks contain for language learners by stating that "a coursebook is like an ocean because it is full of many pages waiting to be discovered and completed" (PT-51). The metaphors of 'sky', 'breath' and 'food' used by four participants also support the view that coursebooks are indispensable resources in education. The selection of these natural life resources as metaphors suggest the view that the coursebook also constitutes a natural resource in the teaching and learning process.

The metaphors of 'dictionary', 'library', 'universe' and 'pomegranate' used by 5 participants also express the view that show the diversity and richness of the information that the coursebooks contain for teachers and students. For example, one participants used the metaphor of pomegranate for coursebooks because "when you open it, you find thousands of large and small beneficial vitamins/information" (PT-110), while another used the Universe to describe the coursebooks as having the structure that encompasses everything that a student needs: "A coursebook is like the Universe because it contains everything within it" (PT-55).

The metaphors of 'treasury', 'safe', and 'good friend' expressed by seven participants in this category also emphasize that coursebooks actually contain valuable resources, but their value will be appreciated by the person who uses them. Unlike metaphors for indispensable resources such as water or breath, these valuable resources can vary depending on the skills and decisions of the person using them:

> A coursebook is like a safe full of money because those who know how to open it can benefit from what is inside. (PT-48)

> A coursebook is like a treasure because you are happy when you first own it, but if you don't care about it later, you waste its pages in vain. If you value it, you can make yourself more valuable with it (PT-49)

The category of *Support* consists of 9 metaphors obtained from 13 pre-service teachers, and pre-service teachers consider coursebooks as an element that contributes to the development of students. In particular, metaphors of 'canvas', 'car', 'glasses', 'mirror',and 'stairs' are considered tools that help students reach their goals and information. The metaphor of 'the teacher', the most frequently expressed metaphor in this category, is important because it might indicate that coursebooks are seen as equal to the teacher. In other words, the information and support given by the teacher to the students are seen as equivalent to the support given by the coursebooks, as expressed by the two participants below:

> A coursebook is like a teacher because it both tells and teaches students (PT-116).

> A coursebook is like a teacher because it can teach you what a teacher can teach (PT-59)

In this category, two pre-service teachers drew attention to the support of the course

book for different skills and subjects by using the tree metaphor. For example, one participant stated that "A textbook is like a tree because each leaf contains new and different information. Students also become green like trees with information, that is, they are informed" (PT-75).

However, 'medicine' and 'marriage' metaphors show a different view of support than other metaphors in this category. Pre-service EFL teachers using these metaphors, although accepting the support and order given by the coursebooks, stated that it actually restricts one's freedom, such as marriage: "The textbook is like marriage because without it you are more free, but with it an order is formed and life improves" (PT-21), or that it is a form of support that is used when necessary, such as medicine: "A textbook is likemedicine because we don't want to use it, but eventually we are forced to use it. We do not want to use it because it is boring, but we have to use it to gain new knowledge" (PT-47).

In the category of *Access to New Opportunities*, there are 6 metaphors produced by 8 pre-service teachers. These are 'a door', 'a foreign text', 'a new world' (2), 'a painting', 'rainbow' (2), and 'a trip'. When these metaphors are examined, one might well suggest that the participants described the coursebook as a tool that might create new opportunities to open up to the world, learn about different cultures and have different experiences:

> A coursebook is like the world because in an English book we usually learn about differentcultures from different corners of the world and we can meet different civilizations. (PT-66)

> When the student opens the book, it opens the door to a new world full of excitement andknowledge. (PT-20)

> A coursebook is like a rainbow because it opens the doors of colorful worlds to children. (PT-76).

The last three categories in Table 2, *Worthlessness*, *Restrictions* and *Boredom*, include negative metaphorical representations with regard to coursebooks. The *Worthlessness* category includes 11 metaphors gathered from 10 participants. Metaphors in this category, such as 'a broken watch', 'drawing room', 'lampshade', and 'showcase in the living room', draw attention to the dysfunction of the coursebook. For example, one participant described the coursebook as an unused showcase in the living room of a house (PT-96), while another likened it to a drawing room not used by the household butprepared only for guests (PT-97). The idea that students have coursebooks, but they almostnever use them in language teaching has also been resonated by the metaphor of the 'lampshade' used by another pre-service teacher: "A coursebook is like a lampshadebecause everyone has it, but it is never used" (PT-89). Another point emphasized in this category through the metaphors of 'balloon', 'load', 'parrot', 'rubbish bin' is the fact that textbooks contain unnecessary, outdated, and superficial information and become worthless due to this structure:

> A coursebook is like a parrot that repeats the same thing over and over because it offers us thesame information every year with the same activities without any change. (PT-94)

> A coursebook is like an information load because we don't always need to learn every piece ofinformation in the book, or it has mostly what we already know in

normal life. (PT-126)

The category of *Restrictions* includes metaphors produced by 7 pre-service EFL teachers. When the metaphors in this category are examined, it is possible to say that the participants saw the coursebooks as a necessity that they cannot get rid of and that coursebook based teaching actually harms the education process. Participants chose strong metaphors such as 'gum sticking to the bottom of the shoe', 'an inadequate parent', 'swamp' and 'toxic relationship' to explain this situation. For example, a pre-service teacher who described textbooks as swamps stated that getting rid of the coursebook is as difficult as getting out of the swamp, and the more you use the coursebook, the more you sink into the swamp: "The coursebook is like a swamp because as much as it is useful, it drags you to the bottom with unnecessary details and makes you drown in too much information" (PT-125).

The category of *Boredom* includes two metaphors: these are 'life' and 'an old man'. As the name of the category suggests, these metaphors were chosen to express that coursebooks are full of boring reading materials, tasks and activities.

Discussion

The results of this present study revealed that 129 pre-service EFL teachers produced 70 different metaphors to describe ELT coursebooks. These metaphors were grouped under seven conceptual categories, namely, *Resource*, *Support*, *Guidance*, *Access to New Opportunities*, *Worthlessness*, *Restrictions* and *Boredom*. The categories in this current study also seem to be consistent with those identified in McGrath's (2006a, 2006b) two research studies published in the same year. McGrath's (2006a) study with two groups of participants in Hong Kong revealed that English language teachers' images were grouped under four themes, *Guidance*, *Support*, *Resource* and *Constraint*, while the learners' images for coursebooks were categorized under *Authority*, *Resource*, *Support*, *Guidance*, *Constraint*, *Boredom*, *Worthlessness* and *Source of anxiety and fear*. Similarly, metaphorical images of Brazilian EFL teachers for coursebooks in McGrath's second study (McGrath, 2006b) were also grouped under five themes, that is, *Guidance, Access, Support, Resource* and *Constraint*.

The participants in this current study produced mostly positive metaphors for coursebooks (n=109), while the negative images gathered from 20 pre-service teachers constitute 16% of the whole data. This finding complies with the related literature. For example, having analyzed the metaphors of coursebooks from 150 college students in the Preparatory School at a private university in Cyprus, Kesen (2010) stated that they mostly produced positive metaphors for coursebooks which correspond to almost two-thirds of the data in the study. There are studies in the literature showing that pre-service teachers have more positive opinions about coursebooks than experienced teachers. (Allen, 2015; Grossman & Thompson, 2008; Israelsson, 2007; Tsui, 2003). For instance, Allen's (2015) collected data both from pre-service and in-service EFL teachers in Sweden about their use of and reliance on ELT coursebooks against freely available digital alternatives. He found that inexperienced teachers and pre-service EFL teachers have a more positive attitude towards the use of coursebooks, while more experienced EFL teachers in the study preferred

to move away from using coursebooks and instead using digital resources. According to Allen (2015), "practicing teachers increasingly saw coursebooks in contingency terms and as a 'fall-back' position" (p. 249). Experienced teachers may feel less reliant on coursebooks and can tailor their use to meet their students' needs. In contrast, new teachers may rely more on coursebooks due to their unfamiliarity with the curriculum and their students. This might well justify the high percentage of positive metaphors that were produced by the pre-service EFL teachers in the study.

There are also studies conducted in Turkey which show that pre-service EFL teachers have mainly positive views about coursebooks (Arıkan, 2009; Aydın, 2012; Şimşek, 2017). Arıkan (2009) analyzed reports of 12 pre-service EFL teachers' opinions taking the Practicum course to explore their opinions about the use of English language coursebooks in secondary school EFL classrooms in Turkey. The results showed that coursebooks were used as the most important resource in the language classroom. Pre- service EFL teachers in the study generally found the coursebooks quality adequate and believed that problems with coursebooks arise from the way teachers use them in the classroom. In a similar study, Aydın (2012) investigated the 48 pre-service EFL teachers' perceptions with regard to the presentation of main language skills in a coursebook called Spot on 8. He found that pre-service EFL teachers had mostly positive opinions of the presentation of main skills, but they thought that some improvement might be made for the treatment of speaking skills in the book. Şimşek (2017), on the other hand, examined pre- service teachers' culturally-responsive preferences and rationales for adapting ELT materials. 58 pre-service EFL teachers in an urban Turkish university responded to a survey that aimed to elicit their attitudes towards gendered and alienating texts from local and global English coursebooks and provided word associations to reveal their prototypical views of culture. Şimşek (2017) found that over half of the participants preferred to use the materials unchanged.

When the seven conceptual categories created by the pre-service EFL teachers' metaphorical images for coursebooks in this current study were examined, it was found that the category with the highest number of metaphors was *Guidance* (n=57). Almost half of the participants' metaphors (44%) belong to this category, and metaphors in the categories of *Guidance*, *Support* and *Access to New Opportunities* constitute 60% of the whole data. This ratio is significant in terms of revealing pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the role of coursebooks in English language education. If we consider pre-service teachers' views about textbooks on a continuum between control and choice, as McGrath (2002) suggests, the results of this study indicate that pre-service teachers mostly see coursebooks as a support and guide for education. This might signal a place somewhere between the two edges of this continuum, which may indicate a balanced relationship to materials in their future educational experiences. Similarly, McGrath (2006b) pointed out that "the thematic progression from guidance to resource posited … can be seen as a continuum ranging from control *by* textbook to control *of* textbook, with the latter expressing itself as *criticality* and a *willingness to be autonomous*" (p. 313). Although the majority of the metaphors produced by the participants were positive, 20 pre-service EFL teachers expressed negative metaphorical images for ELT coursebooks. These metaphors were grouped under the categories of *Worthlessness*, *Restrictions* and *Boredom*.

It is important to note that this research study is limited to 129 pre-service EFL

teachers' opinions studying in the ELT program of a university located in a province of the Central Anatolia Region in the spring semesters of the 2021-2022 and 2022-2023 academic years, and the data collection tool (metaphors) used to determine these opinions. Data gathered from the participants in this study reflect their views about the ELT coursebooks. In this respect, the current study contributes to both pre-service EFL teacher education and in-service training in terms of determining the perceptions of pre-service teachers about English coursebooks. Surfacing pre-service teachers' opinions might allow these teacher candidates to reflect on their own conceptions of coursebooks and become more aware of their coursebook use in their future practices. Since heavy coursebook dependence might lead to a loss in their professional knowledge and result in deskilling of teachers (Littlejohn, 1998), exploring pre-service teachers views of coursebooks might also inform teacher educators about their students' needs and take action to revise the courses in the initial teacher education program. Teacher educators might also employ the metaphor elicitation method to lead a change in the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards coursebooks. As Thornbury (1991) suggests, "images – and the metaphors that help identify them –… offer teacher educators a valuable tool: they are a powerful – perhaps themost powerful – force for change, and should be of critical interest to those whosebusiness is educational change" (p. 197). In accordance with the two-staged approach proposed by Thornbury (1991), the results of this study might be first used as an awareness-raising activity and teacher educators might help pre-service teachers replace these metaphors with more appropriate counterparts, which might result in a change and development in their attitudes. In-service teacher training programs might also benefitfrom such an application. The trainings might be designed and conducted to elicit teachers'opinions of coursebooks and foster teacher autonomy with regard to using materials in language classrooms. Teachers might also be encouraged to take part in decision-making processes including coursebook selection, evaluation as well as development of otherlanguage materials so that they can have a more balanced relationship with the coursebooks they use and adapt them to better suit their teaching contexts.

Conclusion

Coursebooks have a very important role in foreign language education. In this regard, it is also very important to investigate pre-service EFL teachers' attitudes towards coursebooks. Metaphors, on the other hand, are an important method in revealing attitudes and beliefs and, of course, as Thornbury (1991) suggests, an invaluable tool in creating a change. In this regard, this study aimed to unearth the pre-service EFL teachers' perceptions of ELT coursebooks through metaphors and contributed to the related literature that investigates and challenges the beliefs of prospective teachers towards coursebooks so that they can become more autonomous EFL teachers in their futurecareers and can choose and adapt the materials in accordance with their learning environments.

Further research might investigate EFL teachers' views on English coursebooks similarly and compare those with pre-service teachers' opinions. More research studies can also be conducted to explore pre-service teachers' views on other concepts related to English language education (teacher, student, curriculum, school, literacy, etc.) through metaphors. Moreover, further research studies can be carried out by using different data collection

methods such as interviews and in-class observations, and more in-depth data can be provided to determine the pre- and in-service teachers' opinions about coursebooks.

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Research Article

Translanguaging in EFL Writing: Examining Student Exam Papers in an EMI Setting

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ABSTRACT

Translanguaging has recently emerged as a topic of interest in English Medium Instruction (EMI) contexts, where students are expected to demonstrate proficiency in English, particularly in academic writing. This paper explores the potential benefits of incorporating translanguaging practices in exam papers to support multilingual students' understanding and performance. Drawing on constructionist grammar as its theoretical framework, this study discusses the complexities of translanguaging in exam papers and provides practical examples of how it can be implemented in English literature classrooms, especially in EMI contexts. Embracing a mixed-methods design to comprehensively understand translanguaging practices in exam papers and their effects on student performances and using a sample of English literature students in Türkiye, the study analyses exam papers to explore translanguaging and its potential impact on students' written work. The findings suggest that translanguaging practices in exam papers facilitate students' comprehension and promote their confidence and engagement in learning. Overall, this study contributes to the growing body of research on translanguaging in education and provides insights into how translanguaging practices can be effectively implemented in English medium instruction.

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Statement of Publication Ethics	We declare that the present study was conducted with strict adherence to ethical guidelines to ensure the safety and well-being of the study participants. The Human Research Ethics Committee of Artvin Çoruh University reviewed and approved the study (dated 06.02.2023 and numbered E-18457941-050.99-80636).
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Introduction

Globalisation has had significant linguistic consequences, including the spread of *multilingual* practices, with a lively conceptual discussion of established constructs, e.g., *multilingualism*, codes, and languages as separate entities. While *multilingual* practices have long been defined as how people use and interact with multiple languages in their everyday lives, an emerging paradigm, *translanguaging*, challenges the acceptance of a multiplicity of languages. Translanguaging refers to using all of one's linguistic resources, including different languages and language varieties, to communicate meaning (García & Wei, 2014). Translanguaging, in this respect, views language as a dynamic, complex, and integrated system and recognises that all languages are interconnected. It emphasises the fluidity and flexibility of language use and acknowledges that speakers with linguistic repertoire do not operate within strict linguistic boundaries. From a broader perspective, it highlights cognitive functions, meaning that grammar is not just a set of abstract rules, but is instead grounded in the specific patterns of language use that speakers encounter in their daily interactions (Wei, 2022).

One of the key ideas behind translanguaging is that individuals do not simply use languages as discrete and separate codes but rather as integrated and fluid constellations that are constantly in motion. In this view, speakers do not *switch* between languages but move fluidly and seamlessly, often creating new linguistic forms and expressions. Another critical aspect of translanguaging is its emphasis on the social and cultural dimensions of language use. Translanguaging recognises that language is not just a mode of communication but also a powerful marker of identity, belonging, and social status. By embracing and valuing the full linguistic repertoires of language users, translanguaging seeks to broadly promote more inclusive and equitable language practices in education and society.

In this respect, by examining translanguaging practices in exam papers, researchers and educators can better understand how students use language to demonstrate their understanding of a subject. This can be particularly important in constellations, where learners may have different proficiency levels in the language of instruction. Investigating translanguaging practices in exam papers can also help identify areas where students struggle with language and where additional support may be needed *in situ*. Since translingual practices are *par excellence* emerging and constructed-on-site phenomena, their dynamic patternings and frequencies can best be scrutinised within a constructive model of language use, i.e., construction grammar. Thus, this study attempts to investigate the emerging patterns of translingual practices in writing within the constructionist framework to understand whether *emerging innovative* translingual patterns of constructions are *entrenched* by language users in exam papers.

This study investigates how students with linguistic repertoires use translanguaging strategies in exam papers to better understand the complex and dynamic ways students use their full linguistic repertoires to make meaning in the assessment of written work. Specifically, the study examines how learners draw on the linguistic repertoire to support their comprehension of exam questions, articulate their responses, and provide context for unfamiliar words or concepts. To this end, the present study aims to answer the following research questions:

1.1. How do English Literature students use their linguistic repertoire in exam papers to support their comprehension of exam questions and to articulate their responses?

1.2. What is the frequency of the use of translanguaging in exam papers?

1.3. What are the patterns of use of translanguaging practices?

These research questions aim to explore the interplay between the frequency of language use and emerging translingual practices in exam papers and, thus, covertly investigate the potentiality of a translingual paradigm change in educational contexts.

Literature Review Theoretical Framework I: Translanguaging and Writing

Coined originally by Williams (1994) from the Welsh term *trawsieithu* focusing on the planned and systematic use of two languages in Welsh-English bilingual educational settings, translanguaging has already succeeded in challenging our understanding of how *bi-* and/or *multilinguals* use languages available to them. This challenge of understanding has mainly been relevant in language classroom contexts where the classroom ecology consists of languages in addition to the dominant language(s) used (or imposed) by learners and teachers. This *multilingual* turn (Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2014) in language education has lent itself to questioning the labelling of named languages (such as Turkish and English) and focusing more on how students use their linguistic repertoire when they use languages available to them. In this sense, translanguaging is "the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire, which does not in any way correspond to the socially and politically defined boundaries of languages" (García & Kleyn, 2016, p. 14).

From a pedagogical perspective, translanguaging is transformative in its focus on addressing critical pedagogy for social justice by allowing the students to move freely between languages. It is used as a resource for both teachers and students to deliver and receive content and instruction. It opens up a space for students to extend their repertoires of practice allowing for sociocritical literacy (Gutierrez, 2008). As García and Wei (2014) acknowledge, from a sociocritical approach, translanguaging "has the potential to crack the 'standard language' bubble in education that continues to ostracise many bilingual students" (p. 115), recognising the idea that languages do not fit into clearly bounded entities.

A pedagogical perspective on the translanguaging lens encompasses possibilities for modalities other than oral interactions (García & Wei, 2014). Though translanguaging has often been studied heavily within spoken discourse, written translingual discourse can also be considered a space where translanguaging practices are seen, especially in classroom ecologies where different languages come into contact. The relationship between translanguaging and writing has long been associated with how people with linguistic repertoire negotiate meaning in producing translingual texts, and the evidence from classroom studies shows that translanguaging is a natural phenomenon used by students with linguistic repertoire (Canagarajah, 2011; García & Wei, 2014).

Today, writing ability is seen as "the repository of meaning and hence, knowledge, that leads Western culture to value writing and literacy as the *sine qua non* condition for education and culture" (Menezes de Souza, 2007, p. 155). With the advancement of technology, we tend to mix writing with other modalities via instant messaging, blogging, online discussion forums and others. It is, therefore, inevitable that translanguaging is also observed in written discourses. The combination of translanguaging and writing, first and foremost, challenges and deconstructs the traditional norm in writing instruction and production as it foregrounds the inclusiveness of the languages rather than resorting to a defined named language. Due partly to the English-only

policies in developing the writing skills of foreign language learners (such as in the case of EFL), learners have historically been discouraged from expressing their ideas in translingual forms. In this sense, a translanguaging lens to writing can counteract this trend by allowing learners to move beyond the confines of traditional language categories (Canagarajah, 2013). By embracing translanguaging in writing, teachers may help learners express their ideas more effectively while promoting a more inclusive learning environment (Horner et al., 2011).

Writing skill involves making sense of oneself and moving the message across. As García and Kleifgen (2020) acknowledge, "translanguaging transforms our understanding of language, *bi/multilingualism*, and pedagogical approaches to support *multilingual* learners' use and further expansion of their unique meaning-making repertoire"*[emphasis added]*(p. 554) in their literacy development. Thus, by embracing the diversity of language and utilising translanguaging, learners can better express themselves leading to creativity and connecting with a broader audience. Prior research, albeit limited, has investigated the link between translanguaging and writing in EFL/ESL settings and has demonstrated the effectiveness of this idea from the perspectives of students' note-taking skills (e.g., İnci Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022; Siegel, 2020), teachers' incorporation of translanguaging into writing instruction (e.g., Ascenzi-Moreno & Espinosa, 2018; Karabulut & Kesli Dollar, 2022), code-meshing in academic writing (Canagarajah, 2011), promoting critical awareness in writing (Yang et al., 2023), and general development of language skills, including writing (Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2022). Prilutskaya (2020) examines the use of translanguaging in the draft stage of writing in English by Norwegian students. The study finds that students use translanguaging for various purposes, from socio-pragmatic functions to generating content and experimenting with their linguistic repertoire. The study suggests that translanguaging can be an effective pedagogy to contest the English-only approach to writing instruction. However, considering the growing literature on different aspects of (academic) writing and translanguaging, there seems to be no study investigating exam papers.

Theoretical Framework II: Constructionist Grammar

Construction grammar is a theoretical framework within linguistics that emphasises the importance of grammatical constructions as the basic units of language (Goldberg, 1995). It is based on the idea that grammar is not just a set of abstract rules but is instead grounded in the specific patterns of language use that speakers encounter in their daily interactions. Goldberg (1995) states that, at its core, construction grammar holds that the grammar of a language is made up of a vast number of constructions, which are specific form-meaning pairings used to express particular ideas or convey particular functions in communication. These constructions can range from straightforward patterns, such as subject-verb-object sentences, to more complex and nuanced patterns, such as idioms, collocations, and multi-word expressions (Langacker, 2008).

Construction grammar posits that these constructions are not learned in isolation but acquired through exposure to language use. This means that speakers learn the rules governing the use of these constructions not through explicit instruction but through a process of implicit learning that occurs over time as they encounter the constructions in context. One of the key insights of construction grammar is that constructions are not fixed or rigid patterns but rather dynamic and flexible. Language users can modify and adapt constructions to suit their communicative needs, and new constructions can emerge over time through the creative use of existing linguistic resources.

Another critical aspect of construction grammar is its emphasis on the relationship between

form and meaning. In this framework, grammatical constructions are considered holistic units that encode form and meaning inseparably. This means that the form of a construction is not just a set of arbitrary sounds or symbols but is directly tied to the meaning that the construction conveys. It is also worth noting that there is a strong relationship between constructionist grammar and usage-based linguistics (see Bybee, 2012). Both approaches emphasise the importance of language usage and the construction of language in understanding language structure and meaning.

Constructionist grammar also views constructions as the basic units of language, but it emphasises the role of constructional schemas and their combinatorial properties in shaping language structure and meaning. Constructional schemas are abstract representations of constructions that capture their syntactic and semantic properties and are seen as the building blocks of language. Both approaches reject the idea of a *universal grammar* innate to the human mind and instead view language as a complex system that emerges from usage and experience (see Langacker, 2012). They also share an interest in corpus-based research methods and the use of empirical data to investigate language structure and meaning. According to Barlow and Kemmer (2000), there is an "intimate relation between linguistic structures and instances of the use of language" (p. 2), suggesting that there is a close connection between one's language experience and abstract representations in grammar. In the speaker's language system, linguistic representations are, therefore, closely related to *usage events*. These language structures and usage events constantly affect one another. Usage events are essential to the continuing organisation and functioning of the language system (Barlow & Kemmer, 2000). Usage events, therefore, have a dual function in the system, shaping the language system both as a result of and in response to experience.

Construction grammar and usage-based linguistics emphasise the frequency of use since it is both a consequence and a driving factor of the system (Barlow & Kemmer, 2000; Bybee, 1998; Haiman, 1994, 1998). When a linguistic unit or pattern is used frequently, it indicates that the unit is cognitively ingrained and that its regular usage affects how it is processed. As a result of the primary importance of frequency of use, usage-based linguistics stands out from other methods in that frequency is a key concept that is "unconnected with speakers' linguistic knowledge" (Barlow & Kemmer, 2000, p. 4). Frequency of use has a significant role in the process that leads to strong *entrenchment*. The two go hand in hand; "the higher the frequency of use, the stronger the entrenchment level a unit acquires" (Onar Valk, 2015, p. 54). The process of cognitive *routinisation*, *automatisation*, or *habituation* serves as the foundation for determining the degree of entrenchment. Although type and token frequencies interact somewhat, they play distinct roles in this process because "high token frequency leads to entrenchment by leaving strong memory traces, whereas type variation leads to abstraction" (Behrens, 2009, p. 399). It should be mentioned that regardless of the type of frequency, anytime a language user employs a language unit, its abstract representation is *entrenched*, emphasising the essential importance of frequency of use (Bybee, 2010). If the individual process of entrenchment disperses in the speech community, it becomes *conventionalised*.

Based on the theoretical framework presented above, this study aims at investigating the frequency of use of translanguaging patterns to understand whether *emerging innovative* translingual patterns of constructions are *entrenched* by language users in exam papers.

Methodology

This study mainly employs the qualitative research paradigm and quantitative data for data triangulation, making it a mixed-methods study. According to Hanson et al.'s (2005) classification of types of mixed-methods studies, this study falls into the *concurrent triangulation* design type, given that exam papers are utilised for qualitative data collection. The quantitative data (frequency of use) is nested within it to provide a broad perspective.

Research Design and Ethics

This study employs *concurrent triangulation* design, a type of mixed methods research design, which involves collecting and analysing quantitative and qualitative data concurrently to better understand a research problem (Hanson et al., 2005; Mengshoel, 2012). In this design, researchers collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously and then integrate the results to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem. The purpose of the concurrent triangulation design is to provide a complete understanding of the research problem by combining the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods. This design helps researchers validate and confirm findings from one method with findings from another and gain a more in-depth understanding of the research problem by collecting and analysing different data types. The present study was conducted with strict adherence to ethical guidelines to ensure the safety and well-being of the study participants. Prior to the commencement of the research, the study design and procedures were reviewed and approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of Artvin Çoruh University. Informed consent was obtained from all participants, and their confidentiality and anonymity were ensured throughout the study.

Context

The present study was conducted at a department of English Language and Literature at a state university in Türkiye which has been accepting students since 2018 and now has a student body of over 200 learners. The department provides a wide range of content courses focusing on literary studies, linguistics, and language teaching to offer students a relatively comprehensive education in the English language and its literature. The researchers gave the following courses in the fall semester of the 2022-2023 academic year: i) Discourse Analysis I, ii) Critical Literary Theory I, iii) Advanced Research Skills I, and iv) Teaching English to Young Learners. The rationale for choosing the mentioned courses was two-fold; these were the courses the researchers gave in the mentioned semester, and all the courses were content-heavy with new concepts and ideas for the students about philosophy, sociology, literary criticism, research in education and literary studies, educational studies, theories of learning and instruction etc. Thus, though they were diverse in content, they were ideal for employing a translanguaging lens to allow the students to negotiate meaning in classroom discussions and any written assessable work. In other words, an English-only policy would have potentially hindered students' understanding and negotiation of concepts. Among these courses, Discourse Analysis I and Advanced Research Skills I were third-grade courses, Critical Literary Theory I and Teaching English to Young Learners were fourth-year courses.

This study examines the use of translanguaging in English-oriented content course exams (midterm and final exams). To improve students' understanding of the content (philosophical content including *arkhe, logos, monad, form, apeiron etc.*), we adopted a

translanguaging stance in our classes. We also urged the students to do the same in class discussions to make the intended meaning clear. Because of this, we also allowed them to use their linguistic repertoire during exams. One of our instructions was as follows:

> "INSTRUCTIONS: ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS IN THE SPACES PROVIDED. WRITE LEGIBLY AND CONCISELY. PAY SPECIAL ATTENTION TO GRAMMAR, SPELLING and CORRECT USE OF LINGUISTIC TERMINOLOGY AND PUNCTUATION. FEEL FREE TO TRANSLANGUAGE WHILE DISCUSSING THE CONTENT"

That is to say, to explore this issue, we allowed students to translanguage during their exams to assess the impact of this practice on students' writing skills while conveying their messages and constructing their knowledge in content courses. Allowing translanguaging in written work can increase engagement and participation, as students feel more comfortable and confident expressing themselves in the language(s) they are most proficient (García & Wei, 2014). The number and types of exams are presented in the following table:

Table 1. The Number and Types of Exams

Course	Exam type	Nature of exam	Number of questions	Number of students taking the exam
Critical Literary Theory I	Midterm	Open-ended	3 Qs	29
Critical Literary Theory I	Final	Open-ended	2 Qs	
Advanced Research Skills I	Midterm	Mixed	Five multiple-choice Qs Six fill-in-the-blanks Qs Four open-ended Qs	50
Discourse Analysis-I	Final	Open-ended	3 Qs	52
Teaching English to Young Learners	Final	Open-ended	3 Qs	29

Table 1 displays that there are two exams for the Critical Literay Theory-I. The midterm was an open-ended exam with three questions (see Appendix 1 as a sample exam), and 29 students took it. The final exam was also open-ended and consisted of two questions. The number of students was also 29. Advanced Research Skills I course had a midterm exam that was mixed in nature. It included five multiple-choice questions, six fill-in-the-blank questions, and four open-ended questions. Fifty students took this exam. The final exams of Discourse Analysis-I and Teaching English to Young Learners were open-ended, each comprising three questions. As for the number of students taking the exams, while 52 students took the Discourse Analysis-I final exam, 29 students attended the final exam of Teaching English to Young Learners.

Participants

Since the present study aims to investigate *translanguaging* focusing on students' linguistic repertoires, the participants were selected using convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling technique commonly used in social science research when the researcher selects participants based on availability and accessibility (Neuman, 2013). Regarding the production of written data, exams were administered to 81 students aged 20 and 24. The participants took the exams in the autumn term within the 2022-2023 academic year. All the participants stated that they considered themselves competent in Turkish; however, they did not define themselves as *fully-competent* speakers of English. Such an understanding may lie in the fact that they did have difficulty in mainly the productive skills in English (writing an

essay, conversing with a highly proficient English speaker, etc.). In terms of their socio-economic status, it can be stated that their social and economic profiles were quite akin to one another. They started learning English in primary education and were rarely exposed to English in daily interactions.

Data Collection and Analysis

The present study used exam papers to explore the emerging nature of translanguaging. Using exam papers as a data collection tool is common in educational research, especially in studies focusing on academic performance (i.e., *parole* in Saussurean terms). Exam papers provide a standardised way of assessing student performance across various subjects and can be used to gather data on student knowledge, understanding, and skills. Exam papers in the present study allow for collecting large amounts of reliable and valid data cost-effectively and efficiently. Furthermore, using exam papers as a data collection tool allows for comparing results with other studies, enabling a better understanding of students' academic performance in different settings.

The exam papers providing data for this study included five exams: midterms of Advanced Research Skills I and Critical Literary Theory I and finals of Discourse Analysis I, Critical Literary Theory I and Teaching English to Young Learners. Since the midterm exams of Discourse Analysis I and Teaching English to Young Learners courses and the final exams of Advanced Research Skills I courses were not written assessable work (i.e., the students were assessed based on classroom presentations and other non-written work), they were not included in the data collection process.

Congruent with the *concurrent triangulation* research paradigm, *frequency of use* is used to quantify constructed patterns of translanguaging. Frequency is a critical concept in construction grammar, which is a theoretical framework that focuses on the role of constructions in language production, e.g. writing in exam papers. The more frequently a construction is encountered in language use, the more likely it is to become entrenched in the language user's mental grammar and to be processed more quickly and efficiently during language production (Bybee, 2010). This is because frequent exposure to construction leads to increased activation of its constituent parts, creating strong associations between form and meaning. Moreover, frequency effects can influence the organisation of a language user's mental lexicon and overall linguistic competence. Therefore, frequency is a crucial factor in understanding the acquisition and processing of constructions in language use, and its study can provide important insights into the nature of language learning and use. Thus, the rationale behind using frequency is that it can quantify and triangulate the qualitative data.

In order to quantify the data, the unit of analysis is to be determined prior to analysis. The unit of analysis in linguistics is the smallest unit of language being scrutinised. It is the element of language that is being analysed, observed, or manipulated in linguistic research. The unit of analysis can vary depending on the research question, methodology, and theoretical framework. For example, the unit of analysis in phonetics might be a single sound or phoneme, while in syntax, it might be a sentence or a phrase. Since the present study aims to explore the patterns of conveying meaning through translanguaging, we defined the units of analysis as the *clause* and the *paragraph*. In linguistic terms, a clause is a unit of grammar that typically contains a subject and a predicate and expresses a complete thought or idea. A paragraph is a unit of text usually consisting of sentences focusing on a single idea or topic (cf. Crystal, 2008).

In this study, we took the 'unit of analysis' as our fundamental data analytic unit instead of a 'code' or a 'theme' in a pure qualitative or a nested mixed-methods research design. In this sense, we regarded (i) lexical items, (ii) clauses, and (iii) paragraphs as our units of analysis. After determining the units of analysis, the two researchers first coded the frequencies separately. They later came together to reach an agreement on these, based on Rehbein and Romaniuk's (2014) definition, which regards the unit of analysis as "the basic unit of counting is due to the segmental structure of discourse which is organised according to utterance acts on the communicative surface" (Rehbein & Romaniuk, 2014, p.140). In analysing the exam papers, the researchers took a *collaborative autoethnographic stance* to embrace "the unique strengths of self-reflexivity associated with autobiography, cultural interpretation associated with ethnography, and multi-subjectivity associated with collaboration" (Chang et al., 2013, p. 17) following common lived experiences of fluid language use in the content classrooms they have been teaching.

Results

In the present study, the quantitative data were presented through tables, while the qualitative data were extracted through excerpts to present the findings. The frequency analyses suggest that as the size of the unit of analysis increases, so does the probability of translanguaging. This phenomenon may be because larger units of analysis provide more opportunities for students to draw on their entire linguistic repertoire. Additionally, larger units of analysis may allow for more complex thoughts and ideas to be expressed, which can sometimes be better conveyed using multiple languages. This finding, thus, suggests that the size of the unit of analysis should be considered when assessing language proficiency, as students may exhibit different language abilities depending on the size of the text they are working with. Table 2 illustrates translanguaging patterns of exam papers of the students in Advanced Research Skills regarding clause- and paragraph-based units.

Table 2. Frequencies of Translanguaging Patterns in Advanced Research Skills I (Midterm)

	Frequency	*Percentage*
English-only clauses	729	69.1 %
Turkish-only clauses	273	25.9 %
Mixed clauses	52	4.9 %
TOTAL (Clauses)	**1054**	
English-only paragraphs	102	51 %
Turkish-only paragraphs	19	9.5 %
Mixed paragraphs	79	39.5 %
TOTAL (Paragraphs)	**200**	

Table 2 shows that 69.1% (*f*=729) of the clauses in the exam were in English only, 25.9% (*f*=273) were in Turkish only, and 4.9% (*f*=52) were mixed clauses. Similarly, the table shows that 51% (*f*=102) of the paragraphs in the exam were in English only, 9.5% (*f*=19) were in Turkish only, and 39.5% (*f*=79) were mixed paragraphs. The total number of clauses in the exam was 1054, and the total number of paragraphs was 200. Overall, the table suggests that translanguaging was a common practice in the Advanced Research Skills I course midterm exam, with a significant proportion of both mixed clauses and paragraphs. Similarly, Table 3 presents the frequencies of translanguaging patterns in the final exam of Discourse Analysis I.

Table 3. Frequencies of Translanguaging Patterns in Discourse Analysis I (Final)

	Frequency	*Percentage*
English-only clauses	897	83.3%
Turkish-only clauses	88	8.2%
Mixed clauses	91	8.5%
TOTAL (Clauses)	**1076**	
English-only paragraphs	99	52.9%
Turkish-only paragraphs	4	2.1%
Mixed paragraphs	84	45%
TOTAL (Paragraphs)	**187**	

Table 3 provides information on the frequencies and percentages of translanguaging patterns in the final exam of the Discourse Analysis I course. The table shows that out of the 1076 clauses, 83.3% (*f*=897) were in English, 8.2% (*f*=88) were in Turkish, and 8.5% (*f*=91) were mixed. Similarly, out of the total 187 paragraphs, 52.9% (*f*=99) were in English, 2.1% (*f*=4) were in Turkish, and 45% (*f*=84) were translanguaged. It is worth noting that the percentages of mixed clause use were higher in Discourse Analysis I than in Advanced Research Skills I, as shown in Table 1. This may suggest that students in Discourse Analysis I felt more comfortable and confident using translanguaging to communicate their ideas. Table 4 demonstrates the frequencies of translanguaging patterns in the midterm and final exams of Critical Literary Theory I.

Table 4. Frequencies of Translanguaging Patterns in Critical Literary Theory I (Midterm/Final)

	Frequency (Midterm)	*Percentage (Midterm)*	*Frequency (Final)*	*Percentage (Final)*
English-only clauses	572	43 %	1037	64.2 %
Turkish-only clauses	595	44,7 %	516	32 %
Mixed clauses	164	12,3 %	69	4.3 %
TOTAL (Clauses)	**1331**		**1615**	
English-only paragraphs	53	37,6 %	71	49 %
Turkish-only paragraphs	24	17 %	25	17.2 %
Mixed paragraphs	64	45,4 %	49	33.8 %
TOTAL (Paragraphs)	**141**		**145**	

Table 4 presents the frequencies of translanguaging patterns in Critical Literary Theory I at two different time points: midterm and final exams. The data shows that the most frequent translanguaging pattern in both midterm and final exams is English-only clauses, with 43% (*f*=571) and 64.2% (*f*=1037), respectively. In contrast, the frequency of Turkish-only clauses decreased from 44.7% (*f*=595) in the midterm to 32% (*f*=516) in the final exam, while the frequency of mixed clauses decreased significantly from 12.3% (*f*=164) in the midterm to 4.3% (*f*=69) in the final exam. Regarding the paragraph level, the English-only paragraphs increased from 37.6% (*f*=53) in the midterm to 49% (*f*=71) in the final exam, whereas the Turkish-only paragraphs slightly increased from 17% (*f*=24) to 17.2% (*f*=25). The frequency of mixed paragraphs decreased from 45.4% (*f*=64) in the midterm to 33.8% (*f*=49) in the final exam. Lastly, Table 5 provides an overview of the frequencies of translanguaging patterns observed in the final examination of Teaching English to Young Learners.

Table 5. Frequencies of Translanguaging Patterns in Teaching English to Young Learners (Final)

	Frequency	*Percentage*
English-only clauses	729	91.8 %
Turkish-only clauses	53	6.7 %
Mixed clauses	12	1.5 %
TOTAL (Clauses)	**794**	
English-only paragraphs	90	77.6 %
Turkish-only paragraphs	3	2.6 %
Mixed paragraphs	23	19.8 %
TOTAL (Paragraphs)	**116**	

Table 5 displays the frequencies and percentages of translanguaging patterns in the final exam of Teaching English to Young Learners. The table shows that English was predominantly used in the exam papers, as 91.8% (*f*=729) of clauses were in English, while Turkish-only clauses comprised only 6.7% (*f*=53) of the total clauses. Mixed clauses, containing both English and Turkish, had the lowest percentage, with 1.5% (*f*=12). The distribution of language use in paragraphs follows the same pattern. The majority of paragraphs, 77.6% (*f*=90), were written in English, while Turkish-only and mixed paragraphs had percentages of 2.6% (*f*=3) and 19.8% (*f*=23), respectively. This might result from the fact that the researcher's primary use of English as a medium of instruction is reflected in the students' exam papers, especially in providing content-related terminology and explanations.

In addition to tables, excerpts are given in the present study to provide examples and support the data analysis. A sample student exam paper is given in Appendix 2. In presenting the excerpts, the grammar and punctuation mistakes in the students' exam papers have been preserved. Students' original English clauses are presented in **bold**. Turkish clauses are kept in standard fonts. English translations of Turkish sentences are given in *italics [square brackets]*.

Excerpt 1. A shared emerging pattern of *mixed* translanguaging practices

> **According to Multimodal Discourse Analysis, this pictures want to tell us anything because purpose of MDA is tell anythings by using images**, "simgeler" *[symbols]*, **vocabularies and advertisements. There is a family and they are doing everything in collaborate. Father** "asıyor" *[is hanging]* **curtain, is putting book to its places and is cleaning to bookshelve. Mother** "süpürüyor" *[is vacuuming]* **to living room. And children help and support their parents**…(ID309F33)
>
> **These pictures reflects somethings about social and family life. The most obvious thing that I see is being helpful. Everyone in the photos is helping each other.** Yaptığım bir diğer çıkarım ise, *[Another inference I'm making is that]* **there is a gender identification. For example,** adam perdeleri asıyor *[the man is hanging the curtains]* **because he is strong,** kadın yerleri süpürüyor *[the woman is vacuuming the floor]* **because women are more capable in cleaning. This situation is a** toplum dayatması *[social imposition]*. **There is** düzenli olmak ve temiz olmak *[being tidy and clean]* **in every photos; so I think they want to give a message to the students that "be clean". To sum up, there are some both social and individual meanings in the photos.** (ID309F1)

In this excerpt, the students are provided with three images demonstrating different family members cleaning different parts of the houses (see Appendix 3). The students are supposed to discuss these images from an MDA/critical discourse point of view. The excerpt exemplifies a shared emerging pattern of *mixed* translanguaging practices. Both students begin answering the

question in English and seemingly have difficulty retrieving English equivalents of some words or phrases. For instance, when encountering such a situation, the possibility of being able to translanguage enables ID309F1 to use a Turkish phrase yaptığım bir diğer çıkarım ise *[Another inference I'm making is that]*, and ID309F33 to make use of a Turkish word simgeler *[symbols]*, allowing them to utilise their linguistic repertoire.

In these two answers given by two different students, the translingual patterning is triggered by unknown English lexical items (i.e., çıkarım yapmak *[making inference]* and simgeler *[symbols]*). Here, it is worth noting that these two students use the same Turkish verbs (asmak and süpürmek *[to hang and to vacuum]*) with the same progressive aspect (asıyor and süpürüyor *[hanging and vacuuming]*) when describing the images. This implies that such constructions are not only *entrenched* but also *conventionalised* by the students.

The frequency of such mixed constructions, as seen in the tables above, suggests that these translingual patterns are cognitively routinised among students who are expected to synthesise and reflect on the content in an EMI setting, especially in a cognitively stressing condition such as an exam. Excerpt 2 exemplifies a network of translingual practices in and between clauses, particularly emphasising *terminological translanguaging*.

Excerpt 2. A network of translingual practices in and between clauses, particularly emphasising *terminological translanguaging*

Structuralism görünenin arkasındaki gerçekliği ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bir bütün olarak bakmaz. Hayattaki her şeyin tek tek bir anlam ifade ettiğini savunur *[is to reveal the reality behind what appears to be. Doesn't consider it as a whole. Argues that everything in life has a singular meaning]*. **There are three concepts in Structuralism. These are sign, signifier and signified. Sign: the smallest unit of meaning** or verilmek istenen mesaj [or the intended message]. **Signifier: the meaning that signifies**, gördüğümüz şey *[what we see]*. **Signified: the concept that a signify refers to**, gördüğümüz şeyin ne ifade ettiği *[the meaning of what we see]* (ID402F64)

Structuralism, **Ferdinand de Saussure** tarafından ortaya atılmıştır. Dilbilimden gelir ve dili yapısal olarak inceler. Sesler bir araya gelerek **arbitrary** bir ses topluluğu oluşturur. Bu sesleri anlamlandırmak için görünenin ardındaki gerçekliğe bakmamız gerekir. Bunun için Saussure dilin bir sistematik yapı olduğunu, akılsal ve mantıksal şekilde bunu anlamamız gerektiğini ileri sürer. Bunun için de üç kavram geliştirmiştir *[is put forward by Saussure. Comes from linguistics and studies language structurally. Sounds come together to form an arbitrary group of sounds. To make sense of these sounds, we need to look beyond what is visible. For this, Saussure argues that language is a systematic structure, and we need to understand it rationally and logically. To do this, he developed three concepts]*. **These are sign, signifier and signified. Signifier is a subject. It is arbitrary. It is just about the what we can see. But meaning is different. Signified** görünenin ardındaki anlam yani asıl anlatılmak istenendir. Biz bir şeyi anlamlandırmak için bu **signified**'a bakarız *[is the meaning behind what appears to be, in other words, the intended meaning. We consider the signified to make meaning out of a thing]*. **Signifier and signified is meaning of sign. Sign** hem **signifier** yani gösteren hem **signified** yani gösterileni kapsar. Özne, bu yapıları anlamlandırmaya çalışarak ikinci plandadır. Görevi bu **signifier**'ı tanıyıp anlamaktır *[includes both signifier, which signifies, and signified which is signified. The subject is secondary, trying to make meaning in these structures. Its task is to define and understand this signifier]* (ID402F78).

In this excerpt, the students are supposed to refer to a photograph (Appendix 4) demonstrating a Japanese woman and man bowing one another and to analyse the photograph by referring to specific parts using structuralist constructs of *sign, signifier*, and *signified*.

Both students begin explicating the meaning and purpose of structuralism. They use the terminological jargon in English, *structuralism*. However, they immediately translanguaged to explicate its definition. After Turkish explanations, they both introduced three significant structuralism constructs in English: *sign, signifier* and *signified*. After these introductions, they

defined these constructs in Turkish and English by translanguaging, probably to convey their messages thoroughly. They both preferred using specific structuralist terms in English, implying that they could use them in discussions. However, they seemingly relied on their Turkish proficiency to provide their definitions. Thus, in a content course (Critical Literary Theory) exam, their network of translingual practices helps them convey their messages.

As in Excerpt 1, in these two explanations (provided by two different students), the translingual patterning is probably triggered by the urge to provide English terms (*structuralism, sign, signifier, signified*) and to be able to explicate them as correctly as possible. This patterning is also observed in other students' exam papers, implying that such constructions are probably conventionalised.

Translingual practices do not occur only in and between clauses. There are instances in which students tend to translanguage in and between paragraphs while constructing their narration. Excerpt 3 exemplifies a network of translingual practices in and between paragraphs, emphasising the emerging theme of *constructing meaning through translingual paragraphing*. In this excerpt, the students are supposed to discuss the following quotation from a Turkish professor of the history of philosophy: *It is no surprise that if you happen to travel into the depths of Turks' souls, you will discover Plato therein. You cannot find Aristotle in the Turkish way of thinking, though.*

Excerpt 3. Construction of meaning through translingual paragraphing

Platon'a göre bu dünya ideal olan dünyanın yansımasıdır ve felsefesi de ideal olan dünyayı anlamaktır. Platon'un Akademisi'nin girişinde yazan "geometri bilmeyen giremez" yazısı da bununla açıklanabilir. Çünkü Platon'a göre bu geometrik şekiller, bir Tanrı tarafından oluşturulan şekillerdir. Dolayısıyla Platon, bu evrenin, doğanın, intizamın ve insanın anlamını ideal olanda aramaktadır. Aristo ise bu görüşün aksine, anlamı tam manasıyla bizde, yaşadığımız bu dünyada aramaktadır. Bu yüzden Aristo'nun çalışmaları da bu dünyayı anlamaya çalışmakla ilgilidir. Platon, kutsal olanı ideal olan dünyada ararken; Aristo, yaşadığımız bu dünyada aramaktadır. Sonuç olarak Türklerde Platon ve düşüncelerini buluyor olmamız, bu dünyanın, felsefeye göre kutsal olanın Türklere göre kendimizde ve doğada değil başka bir güçte Tanrı'da aramalarından kaynaklanmaktadır. Türkler , bu dünyayla değil, ona kurtuluşun Tanrı'da olduğunu vaat eden din ile ilgilidir. Onlar için önemli olan aklı kullanarak bu dünyayı anlamak değil, Tanrı'nın onu bir gün kurtaracağı inancıdır. *[According to Plato, this world is the reflection of the ideal world, and his philosophy is to understand this ideal world. This can be explained by the inscription "who does not know geometry cannot enter into here (the Academy)" written at the entrance of Plato's Academy. Because according to Plato, these geometric shapes are the shapes created by the Creator. Therefore, Plato seeks the meaning of this universe, nature, order and humanbeing in the ideal. Contrary to this view, Aristotle seeks the meaning literally in us, in this world we live in. That is why Aristotle's work aims at understanding this world. While Plato seeks the sacred in the ideal world; Aristotle seeks it in this world we live in. As a result, that we find Plato and his thoughts in Turks are due to the fact that this world, according to philosophy, is not in ourselves and nature, but in God, in another power, according to Turks. Turks are not concerned with this world, but with religion, which promises them (the Turks) salvation is in God. The important thing for them is not to understand this world using reason, but to believe that God will save them some day.]*

Literature is subjective discipline. So there cannot be one meaning, and it is analysed with various theories. Literary criticism helps to analyse works of literature, and with literature theories we acclaimed various points of views.

Bu eleştirel teorilerin amacı dünyayı ve insanı anlamaktır. Bu bağlamda felsefeyle ilişkilidir. Çünkü felsefenin de ilk amacı kutsal olanı yani bu dünyayı anlamaya ve sorgulamaya çalışmaktır. Örneğin Stoacılar bunu kozmosla yani dünyanın nizamını, akıl yoluyla anlamaya çalışırlar. Edebiyatı incelerken kullandığımız teorilerde de aynı şekilde ilerleriz. Yapısalcılar, kutsal olanı yani metni, onun yapısı ve arkasındaki anlamdan yola çıkarak anlamaya çalışır. Biçimciler ise metni biçim aracılığıyla anlamaya çalışır. Aristo ve Plato, felsefe ve eleştirel teorilerin ilişkisi bununla açıklanabilir. Bütün hepsi

yaşadığımız dünyayı, insanı, kitapları anlamaya çalışır. Felsefe ve eleştirel teori arasında bir benzerlik daha vardır. İkisi de önyargılarımız, inançlarımız, korkularımız ve endişelerimizden arınarak özgür düşünmeyi ve eleştirmeyi amaçlar. *[The purpose of these critical theories is to understand the world and humanity. In this context, they are (somehow) related to philosophy. Because the first purpose of philosophy is to try to understand and question the sacred, that is, this world. For example, the Stoics try to understand this with the cosmos, the order of the world, through reason. We proceed in the same way with the theories we use when examining literature. Structuralists try to understand the sacred, that is, the text, based on its structure and the meaning behind it. Formalists, on the other hand, try to understand the text through form. The relationship between Aristotle and Plato, and philosophy and critical theories can be explained by this. All of them try to understand the world, humanity and books. There is another similarity between philosophy and critical theory; both aim to (help people) think freely and criticise by getting rid of our human-oriented prejudices, beliefs, fears, and worries.]*

According to Claude Lévi-Strauss, we can understand people with binary oppositions. He gives a binary opposition: bricoleur (savage mind) and engineer (scientific mind). People who have savage mind live according to the nature and they do not change it. However, people who have scientific mind, try to change the world in order to develop the humanity.

It related to the dualism of Plato. There is an idealised world and the world we live. Plato focuses on the idealised world, on the other hand Aristotle focuses on the world we live.

Sonuç olarak Türkler, özgür düşüncesini ve aklını kullanmayı engelleyen inançlarının ve korkularının peşine gider. Stoacıların ve Aristo'nun yaptığı gibi yaşamın anlamını bu dünyada ve kendimizde arama sorgusu içerisinde olmak yerine Platon gibi kurtuluşu başka bir yerde aramaktadırlar. *[As a result, Turks follow their beliefs and fears that prevent them from using their free thought and reason. Instead of being in search of the meaning of life in this world and in ourselves, like the Stoics and Aristotle, they seek salvation elsewhere like Plato]* (ID402M73).

The student (ID402M73) began constructing his own narration, explicating Plato's and Aristotle's philosophies in Turkish. They translanguaged in the second paragraph once they tried to link the relationship between literary criticism and philosophy. After referring to the literary theories, they went back to Turkish when they started diving into the depths of literary theories, providing examples: Yapısalcılar, kutsal olanı yani metni, onun yapısı ve arkasındaki anlamdan yola çıkarak anlamaya çalışır. Biçimciler ise metni biçim aracılığıyla anlamaya çalışır *[Structuralists try to understand the sacred, that is, the text, based on its structure and the meaning behind it. Formalists, on the other hand, try to understand the text through form]).*

They evidently relied on their Turkish proficiency to provide broad explanations. However, while using the terminological jargon, they translanguaged, e.g. bricoleur (savage mind) and engineer (scientific mind). They ended up wrapping their ideas up in Turkish. They seemingly constructed *meaning through translingual paragraphing,* providing a linguistic agency to make themselves clear in constructing meaning in a content-heavy course.

In addition to constructing meaning through *translingual paragraphing,* in answer to analysing the series entitled *Monster: The Jeffrey Dahmer Story* within the framework of students' own choosing, an intra-paragraph translingual patterning in which the students navigated through their thoughts with an apparently emerging cognitive procedure was also observed in the dataset. The following excerpt provides an example of such occurrences:

Excerpt 4. Construction of meaning through intra-paragraph translingual patterning

I want to select Postmodernism theory to analyse Jeffry Dahmer Story. Postmodernism is opposed to Modernism. Modernizmde akıl ve bilim düşünceyi belirler. *[In modernism, reasoning and scientific thought determine thought.]* **There is one true for it. However, Postmodernism rejects this idea. Thinking is changeable from culture to culture. There is no one true for it. The most leading thinker is Foucault in postmodernizm. The Archaeology of Knowledge is Foucault's work. Foucault defends "deconstruction". According to Modernism, All is well and everything is true.**

However, Postmodernizm rejects this idea. Everything is not excellent for it. In terms of this aspect, we can analyse Jeffry Dahmer Story. Why does he kill the people? Why is he doing that? Dahmer's story starts in pregnancy because his mother uses psychological drugs. It may lead to some diseases for him. On the other hand, babası ölü hayvanların organlarını ve kemiklerini incelemeyi öğretiyor. Organları dokunup onları hissetmek Dahmer'in hoşuna gidiyor *[his father teaches him to examine the organs and bones of dead animals. Dahmer likes to touch and feel organs]* **and he uses this method in people's organs. As an another example, Dahmer's father admits that I was thinking like you once upon a time and I dream that I kill the people.** Bunu psikanaliz teorisiyle bağdaştırabiliriz. Bilinç altında bastırılmış düşünceler ortaya çıkıyor *[We can reconcile this with the theory of psychoanalysis. Repressed thoughts appear in the subconscious.]*

Babasının hissettikleri başka bir bedende yani oğlunda hayat buluyor *[What his father feels comes to life in another body, that is, his son.]* **When we look at Dahmer in terms of Modernism, Dahmer is a serial killer because he killed seventheen people.** İnsanlara işgenceler yapmış ve öldürdükten sonra da çeşitli işkenceler yapmıştır *[He tortured people (when they were alive) and tortured them after killing them]*. **He ate dead people's organs.** Bazı organları saklamıştır *[He kept some organs]*. **When we look at this perspective, Dahmer is cruel man. On the other hand, when we look at postmodernism, we**

analyse Dahmer's family. How is his family? Bütün bunları ailesi yüzünden mi yapıyor? *[Did he do all this evil due to his family (issues)].* **There are some scenes in prison. He looks like a** masum *[innocent]* **person… When Dahmer was a child, his father left to the home. Dahmer felt sad and alona because** babasından başka kimse onunla ilgilenmiyor. O da öldürdüğü kişilerin onu bırakmasından korkuyor ve *[no one takes care of him except his father. He is also afraid that the people he killed will leave him, and]* **he doesn't allow them to go somewhere.** Öldürdükten sonra da her birinin bir parçasını saklıyor *[He keeps a piece of each of them after he killed them]*. (ID402F64)

In Excerpt 4, translanguaging is evident in how the student uses Turkish and English interchangeably to provide a more nuanced analysis of the text in translingual intra-paragraphing. The student (ID402F64) began their explanations in English, followed by Turkish elaborations. They went back to English as observed in the following extract in the first paragraph: I want to select Postmodernism theory to analyse Jeffry Dahmer Story. Postmodernism is opposed to Modernism. Modernizmde akıl ve bilim düşünceyi belirler *[In modernism, reasoning and scientific thought determine thought]*. There is one true for it. However, Postmodernism rejects this idea. Thinking is changeable from culture to culture.

In the second paragraph, however, they began using Turkish, followed by English explications. After a while, they translanguaged to convey their messages. Translanguaging in the exam paper allows the student to bring in cultural and linguistic perspectives that may not be possible with a single-language analysis. Using Turkish and English, the student can provide a more in-depth analysis of the text that considers different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

Excerpt 5. Construction of meaning through translanguaging using discourse markers

(a) Critical discourse analyses discusses the discourses in terms of society. There are four main principles in CDA. These are social relations, ideologies, power relations and social and political. When we analyse the discourse as ideologies, söylemde dini ifadeleri ifadeleri görmeliyiz örneğin bir rahibe ile herhangi bir insanın din açısından konuşmasını ideology açısından inceleyebiliriz *[we need to see the religious statements in discourse, for example we can analyse a religious conversation between a nun and any person in terms of ideology]*. **Second principle is power relations. We can analyse the discourse as power relations when we see the middle and upper class differences.** Örneğin bir hizmetçi ile ev sahibi konuştuğunda, hizmetçinin ev sahibine hitap şeklini bir power relation açısından inceleyebiliriz *[For example, when a servant and a householder converse, we can analyse the way the servant addresses the householder in terms of power relations]* (ID309F32)

(b) When I looked at the question, I understand it is example images for multimodality. In these images, there are examples of social relation when analysed in terms of critical discourse. Şöyle ki,

bir babanın, erkek figürün bazı sosyal normlar açısından yardım etmesi ilginç karşılanırken, baba burada çocuklarıyla ve eşiyle "ideal eş, aile babası" olarak nitelendirebileceğimiz bir görüntüyle karşımıza çıkıyor [*That is to say, while it is considered weird in terms of some social norms when a father, a male figure helps, the father here presents himself to us with his children and wife as "an ideal husband, a father-of-the-house figure"*] (ID309F36)

(c) **When we look at Grandma's Garden activity, we can understand and see easily that many skills were used. Actually, that is more useful and needed. In my opinion, while this activity is done, young learners can do painting because young learners can be bored easily. The teacher should focus on these problems. There is not just speaking skill in this exercise, this could be improved with dialogues and a little presentations. If I were a teacher who prepared this exercise, I would do same thing.** Kısacası, temel ve alt beceriler yerinde kullanılmış, konuşma becerisinden de bahsetmiştim zaten. Bir aktivitede illa hepsi olacak diye bir durum yok, sadece kişisel görüşlerimi belirttim. Bir sürü oyun, egzersiz olduğu için becerileri hepsinde sıklıkla kullanabiliriz [*In short, main and sub-skills were properly addressed, I already mentioned the speaking skill. You can't have all in one activity, I just told*

my personal opinions. We can use the skills for all of these since there are many games, exercises] (ID451F80).

(d) Şimdilerde öğrenciler ders dinlerken aşırı sıkılıyor ve dersten kopuyorlar ama işin içine teknoloji girince bu öyle olmuyor. Eğer öğretmen gelip düz bir şekilde ders anlatıp giderse öğrenciler dersin yarısında kopuyorlar [*Nowadays students get really bored listening to the lectures and get distracted but it doesn't happen so when there is technology in play. If the teacher comes and goes lecturing in a flat manner, the students get distracted in the first half of the lesson*]. **So, the teachers should give something. For example, this activity, not only they learn something but also draw picture and this is more funny for the student** (ID451F63)

(e) A woman and a man have always different roles in society. Bu yüzden bu iki cinsiyete biçilmiş farklı rolleri kritik etmek, incelemek, söylemi ve gizli anlamı çıkarmak **critical discourse analysis** konusunun işidir. Halkına seslenen, konuşma yapan liderleri incelemek, sosyokültürel olarak incelemek any zamanda yine critical discourse işidir [*That's why it's the subject of critical discourse analysis to critique and analyze the various roles attributed to these two genders, extract the hidden meaning and the discourse*] (ID309F29)

Another pattern that we have observed in the analyses of students' exam papers is the construction of meaning through translanguaging using discourse markers. Excerpt 5 presents various quotes from different students regarding the dynamic and fluid use of discourse markers for the functions of exemplification, elaboration, brief restatement, and extending. In (a), in an attempt to discuss the concept critical discourse analysis and its scope as part of the exam question, the student dynamically translanguages when defining and exemplifying the concepts. The mixed nature of the paragraph indicates that the triggering point for translanguaging practices is when the student aims to give examples for the concepts they are defining. The same pattern is also observable in (b) and (c) where the students' negotiation of meaning for the functions of elaboration (with the discourse marker: şöyle ki [that is to say]) and brief restatement (with the discourse marker: kısacası [in short]) is done through a fluid use of translingual practice.

In (d) and (e), the discourse function of extending a previous idea is observed in the students' written work from a translingual perspective, with both students using different linguistic repertoires to indicate how they construct meaning differently. In other words, while one student prefers to use Turkish and extends in English, the other prefers the opposite; using English and extending the idea in Turkish. This suggests that though the students are expected to use English continually in an EMI setting, the construction of meaning does not seem to happen in only one language when the students are given a chance to translanguage.

Discussion

The present study utilised a mixed-methods approach to examine the use of translanguaging in academic writing among university students. The findings overall suggest that translanguaging is a common practice among all students who participated in this study. Another overall finding is that as the size of the unit of analysis increases, so does the probability of translanguaging, which may be because larger units of analysis provide more opportunities for students to draw on their entire linguistic repertoire. In this way, translanguaging allowed students to express their "whole selves" (Ascenzi-Moreno & Espinosa, 2018, p.18) in producing written language.

Furthermore, the findings show that when encountering lexical gaps in English, students tend to draw upon their linguistic repertoire to fill the gap, resulting in mixed translanguaging practices. The use of translanguaging, in this sense, enables students to articulate their thoughts more effectively and contribute to constructing knowledge in a cognitively stressful setting. Prior research also supports this finding. As Karabulut and Kesli Dollar (2022) argued, Turkish learners in an EFL setting scored higher in written tasks regarding task achievement, cohesion and coherence, and lexical and grammatical accuracy. They also report that given a chance to embrace a translanguaging perspective, EFL learners included more details in their written works, negotiated meaning for content better, and thus discussed their ideas more effectively.

It is worth noting that while English was more dominantly used in all the courses, students also utilised Turkish and mixed clauses and paragraphs to express their ideas. The quantified data also revealed that the percentages of mixed clause use were higher in Discourse Analysis I than in Advanced Research Skills I, which may suggest that the nature of the Discourse Analysis I course, due to its content-heavy perspective, probably required the students to use multiple languages to communicate their ideas. On the other hand, while learning the basics of academic research in Advanced Research Skills I, the students were supposed to acquire more *technical* language, which did not allow more flexibility in terms of translanguaging. Similar concerns were observed in Critical Literary Theory I and Teaching English to Young Learners, where the former was a more content-heavy course. As İnci Kavak and Kırkgöz (2022) also highlighted, content seems to be a determining factor for translanguaging, especially in an EMI setting. In their study, students reported that the amount of translanguaging depended on the content and delivery of the course. Our study also emphasises the relation between course content and the amount of translanguaging to be used by the students depending on the nature of these courses in EMI settings.

The use of mixed translanguaging practices is not a new phenomenon, and the findings presented in this study are consistent with previous research (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011; İnci Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022). However, what is noteworthy is the frequency of these mixed constructions among the students, which suggests that these patterns are routinised and entrenched in the students' cognitive processes. This finding implies that translanguaging is not just a strategy to fill in lexical gaps but an integral part of the students' cognitive processing and meaning-making practices. In this sense, translanguaging in literacy skills, especially in writing, deconstructs the idea of separations of one named language and the other, as well as cognition and practice (García & Kleifgen, 2020). Thus, it is necessary to recognise and value these mixed translanguaging practices in educational settings to promote students' linguistic diversity and support their learning.

In addition, the data suggest that translingual paragraphing enabled the students to navigate through their thoughts and ideas more fluidly and efficiently using a mix of Turkish and English, which suggests that translanguaging is a dynamic and evolving process. Through translingual paragraphing, the students could present their ideas clearly, interactively, and effectively. As Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2022) argue, translanguaging in EFL settings appeals to the learners' affective dimension, such as feeling secure, developing a sense of comfort, sustaining motivation, and experiencing enjoyment. In this sense, a translanguaging perspective enables learners to be better writers in examination settings and provides practical benefits in constructing these written works.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

This study posits that translanguaging is an effective practice that students can utilise in classroom discussions and exam situations where they need to discuss content. In this sense, our study challenges the English-only ideology in written exam papers of EFL students in EMI contexts. Since education in EMI is about language and knowledge construction, translanguaging redefines how we ask the students to construct this knowledge (Wei, 2022). We conclude that translanguaging as a cognitive strategy can facilitate critical thinking and knowledge construction in a classroom with students with diverse linguistic repertoires. By allowing students to draw upon their linguistic repertoire, translanguaging can enhance their ability to engage with complex concepts and ideas when answering questions in exam settings.

The findings of this study have various important implications for language teaching and assessment situations. First of all, language proficiency should be redefined in conformity with a translanguaging paradigm shift, considering the size of the text students are working with, as they may exhibit different language abilities depending on the size of the unit of analysis. Additionally, we believe that translanguaging should not be seen as a problem but rather as a resource for students to express their ideas more effectively, even in academic writing. Therefore, language teachers should be aware of the potential benefits of translanguaging and consider incorporating it into their teaching and assessment practices to support students' language development. Acknowledging and valuing students' linguistic resources and practices can lead to more inclusive and effective pedagogies that enable students to reflect more meaningfully on their learning processes and strategies.

This study is also limited in various aspects. The findings cannot be generalisable to other populations or settings, given the sample size, context, and characteristics of the participants. Thus, further research may be needed to determine the broader implications of translanguaging in different academic settings. Moreover, investigating exam papers in terms of translanguaging may not accurately represent students' language practices outside of the exam context. Students may be more likely to use translanguaging strategies during exams to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of the subject matter but may not necessarily use these strategies in everyday communication.

Additionally, the study may not consider the different levels of proficiency in both languages of the students, which could impact their use of translanguaging strategies. Also, this study did not fully consider the broader socio-cultural and institutional factors that influence the use of translanguaging in academic settings, such as the attitudes of teachers and peers, the linguistic and cultural diversity of the classroom, and the policies and regulations governing language use in exams. Lastly, future research may explore the use of translanguaging in other

content-loaded courses and the impact of translanguaging on students' academic performance and linguistic development.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. A Sample Exam (Critical Literay Theory-I)

IDE 401 ÇAĞDAŞ ELEŞTİREL KURAM-I
2022-2023 GÜZ DÖNEMİ ARA SINAVI

Ad: _____

Soyad: _____

Öğrenci No: _____

NOT: _____ /100

INSTRUCTIONS: ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS IN THE SPACES PROVIDED. WRITE LEGIBLY AND CONCISELY. PAY SPECIAL ATTENTION TO GRAMMAR, SPELLING and CORRECT USE OF LINGUISTIC TERMINOLOGY AND PUNCTUATION. FEEL FREE TO TRANSLANGUAGE WHILE DISCUSSING THE CONTENT

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1. QUESTION (THEORETICAL INQUIRY) [50 points]   **[VIDEO]**

"It is no surprise that if you happen to travel into the depths of Turks' souls, you will discover Plato therein. You cannot find Aristotle in the Turkish way of thinking, though".

Based on the judgement provided above, you are expected to discuss the essential differences between Plato and Aristotle. You are supposed to reflect on their contributions to the literary criticism as a subfield of research in literary studies.

In your answer (taking its historical development into account) try to provide a historical background of philosophical theories and literary theories we covered in the class (from the Ancient era onwards), to name few major schools of literature, and to show **how these theories are/similar and different** in how they **approach** the issue, **how they involve other related concerns (such as, for example, "philosophy", "social movements" etc.) in their models/theories**. **If** you have reservations or **critiques** for them, please also comment.

Make sure you give a concise/short account of the meanings of the constructs "literature", "literary", "theory", and "critical" in your argumentation.

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2. QUESTION (APPLICATION) [50 points]   **[VISUAL]**

Referring to the photograph provided in Appendix A in the following page, you are expected to discuss the very constructs of "sign", "signifier", and "signified". Please use the terminological jargon that we made use of in our discussion in the lectures.

Make sure that you refer to the Japanese culture, history, as well as your subjective "Japan" illusion, such as *Samurai, Hara-kiri, Mount Fuji. sushi, Shintoism, Tokyo, Japanese anime*, etc.

In your answer (taking the structural understanding into account) try to analyse the photograph by referring to specific parts and give an elaborated account of the appropriate element. Justify your answers with strong argumentations and reasoning.

Make sure you give a detailed account of "sign", "signifier", and "signified".

Appendix 2. Originals of student exam papers presented in Extract 1

According to Multimodal Discourse Analysis, this pictures want to tell us anything because purpose of MDA is tell anythings by using images, "simgeler", vocabularies or advertisements. There is a family and they are doing everything in colloborate. Father "asıyor" curtain, is putting book to its places and is cleaning to bookshelve. Mother "süpürüyor" to living room. And children help and support their parents. According to MDA, it is worked to tell in these images that family's colloboration, if father and mother do anything together, children take an example to them and this is a positive action for children's development.

These pictures reflects some things about social and family life. The most obvious thing that I see is being helpful. Everyone in the photos is helping each other. Yaptığım bir diğer çıkarım ise there is a gender identification. for example, adam perdeleri asıyor because he is strong, kadın yerleri süpürüyor ~~because~~ women are more capable in cleaning. This situation is a toplum dayatması. There is ~~■~~ düzenli olmak ve temiz olmak in every photos, so I think they want to give a message to the students that "be clean." To sum up, ~~■■■~~ there are some both social and individual meanings in the photos.

Appendix 3. Image as prompt for Discourse Analysis I

Appendix 4. Image as prompt for Critical Literary Theory I

Research Article

Self-Evaluation as a Form of Reflective Practice in the Practicum

Hanife Taşdemir [*]   **Fatma Gümüşok**[**]

ABSTRACT

This research aims to explore the content of the reflection that pre-service EFL teachers are engaged in their self-evaluation reports during the practicum process at a public university teacher education program. So far, most reflection research in teacher education has concentrated on the levels of reflection pre-service teachers are involved in. Against this backdrop, we analyzed self-evaluation reports that the participant teachers wrote after three teaching tasks in the practicum. In general, the findings suggest that the pre-service EFL teachers reflected mostly on the instructional processes. The other areas they considered in their self-evaluations were learner motivation and engagement, their self as a teacher and classroom management. The findings also demonstrate that there is a change in the focus regarding the self as a teacher during the practicum. We conclude that examining the content of reflection has the potential to guide and inform practicum regarding the areas to reflect on through various tasks.

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Introduction

In the last two decades, the term reflection and reflective practice have become an indispensable part of teacher education, specifically in second language teacher education (SLTE) (Anderson, 2020; Beijaard et al., 2000; Farrell, 1999). With the shift from teacher training, which is generally about the acquisition of entry-level teaching skills, to teacher development and life-long teacher learning in pre-service teacher education, the use of reflective practice in SLTE has raised (Richards, 2008). This heightened emphasis on reflection and similar practices stems from the increasing focus on teacher development, which seeks to empower educators through self-governed practices. This involves them taking charge of their own learning and actively participating in the analysis of their strengths and weaknesses. (Richards, 2008; Wallace, 1991). In this regard, reflectivepractice has been considered as a means of improving teachers' practices (Lefebvre et al., 2022). It is hence argued that teacher educators should actively utilize tools that support reflection in the initial teacher education (Day et al., 2022).

Practicum is an established component of SLTE programs. During this process, pre-service teachers are engaged in various observation and teaching tasks (Gebhard, 2009). It typically includes close collaboration and active participation of pre-service teachers,mentor teachers at schools, and supervisors in the teacher education program (Cirocki et al.,2020). Based on Mattsson et al.'s (2011) model of practicum partnerships, the collaborationwith schools during the process employs the integrative model in Türkiye (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013) where the pre-service teacher education program and the partner schools share responsibilities. In the practicum, class observations, pre- and post-teaching conferences, orevaluation could also be conducted by varying degrees of involvement of pre-service teachers, mentors, and supervisors. Furthermore, pre-service teachers evaluate their own teaching practices via structured reflective guides or intuitively. The reflection could eithertake a written form mostly in the form of journals or an oral form through discussions withpeers, mentors, and supervisors. Pre-service teachers are immersed in learning-to-teach experiences and encouraged to reflect on these through the practicum process when pre- service teachers "shift from students of teaching to teachers of students" (Cirocki et al., 2020, p. 2). In their first professional teaching experiences with real students in a real classroom environment, the points that pre-service teachers assessed themselves convey a passage to their learning not only as an accumulation of three-year on-campus instruction but also in the practicum process. As emerging teachers who have just begun to teach in a genuine teaching context, self- evaluation can afford them to "see of what is actually happening in their classrooms, to appreciate aspects of their own teaching and learning that they might not otherwise be aware of" (Curtis & Szestay, 2005, p. 7). In this article, we examine the content of reflection in self-evaluation reports from a group of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers during their practicumat a public university in Türkiye.

Literature Review

Reflection in Teacher Education and Development

The common integration of reflection into teacher education programs has been discussed around various issues for teacher professional learning and development. First and foremost, there is an ongoing debate about the nature and definition of the term reflection itself. While it is discussed whether it is a form of thinking or a certain form of action (Hatton& Smith, 1995), the two major educationalists in reflective studies, Dewey (1933) and Schön(1983) saw it as an action. Yet, these two fundamental figures have seemed to diverge on the nature of reflection in terms of the role of emotions and science in reflective thinking (Fendler, 2003). To Dewey, reflection is a scientific thinking, differing from impulsive androutine action, leading to professionalization (1933). On the other hand, the intuitive nature and experience and personal practices are

highlighted in Schön's understanding (1983). Regardless of such discrepancies, the common and mostly attributed features of reflection in educational studies are social, emotional, and cognitive engagement with the experiences to make sense of them for improved further personal and professional practices with heightened awareness and insightful understandings (Anderson, 2020; Yeşilbursa, 2011).

Accompanying such theoretical disputes, the time of reflection - when the individual is engaged in reflective actions, has also been subject to the conceptualization of reflective practices. Schön (1983) primarily talked about two distinctive reflection types based on their time: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. The former, reflection-in-action refers to the on-the-spot decisions of teachers when they face a difficulty in their routine teaching. It occurs simultaneously with the action itself as the name suggests. Yet, reflection-on-action has a retrospective nature. It occurs after the completion of tasks or activities and involves a thorough understanding and evaluation process. Reflection-on-action is the most common form of reflection in many teacher education programs. Both types of reflection necessitate recognizing a problem since in Schön's words: "problems do not present themselves to the practitioner as givens. They must be constructed" (1983, p. 40). As a third form, anticipatory reflection, namely, reflection for action, is future-oriented, takes place with anticipation of problems, and acting accordingly pre-emptively (Van Manen, 1995). Overall, the literature argues that all distinctive forms of reflection could be a crucial part of teachers' professional growth in addition to providing benefits for schools and the community (Griffiths, 2000).

Research on reflection in educational studies has attempted to make sense of reflection through typologies by categorizing reflection. In addition to the time dimension discussed above, the content of the reflection is also categorized. Various typologies categorize the levels of reflection that practitioners engage in differently. However, a common thread is that the lower levels typically involve descriptions of teaching and discussions about its mechanics. On the other hand, higher levels of reflection encompass justifications and the positioning of reflective concerns within broader societal, political, and contextual frameworks. (Jay & Johnson, 2002; Sparks-Langer et al., 1990; Valli, 1997). Such categorizations are handy in analyzing the reflections of practitioners, nevertheless, they convey a message that lower-level reflections are not desirable. However, such reflections, as Zeichner (1994) and Collin et al. (2013) point out, are mainly about teachers' daily practices and are valuable and needed. Similarly, Lefebvre et al. (2022) argue that focusing only on the levels of reflection that imply "a hierarchical gradation rather than a comprehensive approach to reflection" (p. 454) could delegitimize the importance of all categories of reflection. Thus, devaluing teachers' descriptive reflections is limiting and could even be unproductive.

Reflection on Pre-Service Teacher Education

Reflection requires active social and cognitive engagement with the context from pre-service teachers rather than directly applying theory into the practice without considering the contextual elements (Richards, 2008). In this way, pre-service teachers' past experiences and personal practical knowledge assist them in making in-situ decisions and being empowered practitioners (Yeşilbursa, 2011). In other words, reflective practices-driven teacher education is "learning-in-practice'' (Lisle, 2006, p. 118).

Various forms of reflection could be found in teacher education programs. Lee (2008) suggests that reflection is quite meaningful for pre-service teachers as "it is only

when they reflect upon their knowledge critically that they can transfer what they have learned in initial teacher preparation programs as students to the real classroom situations as teachers" (p. 117). Thus, placing reflection at the center of teacher education is insightful since it brings about justifications for teachers' utilizing certain strategies and how they facilitate learning (Lee, 2005).

In reflection-based educational studies, self-evaluation has become nearly synonymous with reflection (McLaughlin, 1991) as one should definitely think over their actions, and identify problems for solution or improvement to practice reflection. Perhaps, therefore Leitch and Day (2000) present reflective practitioners as people with "problem-solving and self-evaluation capacities" (p. 182). Self-evaluation could be a means of a deeper understanding of pre-service teachers' classroom practices. It is seen as fundamental in teacher education especially as a part of practicum since "a teacher's ability and skills to analyze and plan his/her work" are supposed to be among "key teacher competencies" in teacher education (Poom-Valickis & Mathews, 2013, p. 420). Self-observation further allows pre-service teachers to be able to identify strong or weak aspects of their teaching. They can focus on a variety of dimensions that they see there is room for improvement. As pre-service teachers could look back upon their pedagogical decisions and instructional practices via self-evaluation, they also get the chance to realize some points that are ignored while teaching. Overall, self-evaluation is argued to surface pre-service teachers' own beliefs and perceptions about teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

Reflection in the form of self-evaluation particularly thrives in the process of practicum, "the ideal place to develop reflective practice" (Collin et al., 2013, p. 112). As the practicum is when pre-service teachers get the authentic opportunity to teach and observe classes that take place in their routine time and space, pre-service teachers could build on their own experiences to understand themselves and their practices as teachers. Besides, the structure of the practicum fosters such teacher exploration and learning via several tasks some of which require reflecting on different issues to varying degrees. One way to achieve reflection in practicum then becomes self-evaluation; an inherent constituent of the process. Self-evaluation is described by McLaughlin (1991) as follows:

> an aspect of reflection that is concerned with defining one's concerns, establishing criteria for success, and determining the most appropriate methods to judge the effects of one's actions in the classroom. Self-evaluation involves carefully observing and analyzing one's actions and interpreting the consequences of what one has done. (p. 142)

Research on reflection in practicum is mostly interested in the levels of reflection pre-service teachers are involved in (Leijen et al., 2012; Zhu, 2011) and they showed that pre-service teachers mostly remained at lower-level reflections and rarely reached higher critical level reflections. However, at the practicum stage, what may be more revealing in unearthing pre-service teachers' learning is the study of the content of their reflection. In other words, understanding 'what pre-service teachers commented on during the practicum' could provide insight into their focal points and learning outcomes. . In that sense, Astika (2014) analyzed 40 pre-service teachers' teaching journals at the end of a three-month-long practicum and found that the journals included more reflection on personal and contextual elements of teaching than interpersonal and critical domains. Similarly, Chien (2013) carried out a case study with one elementary school English teacher in their teaching journal for a

semester. The content of the reflection mostly included students' behaviors and performance, and teaching strategies of the teacher. In the Turkish context, exploring the themes of reflection in self and peer evaluation forms and post-conferences of pre-service teachers at the practicum, Gümüşok (2014) found out that pre-service teachers evaluated themselves based on the technical strategies of teaching, pupil engagement, classroom management, and teacher identity. In the same vein, more recently, Yalçın Arslan (2019) analyzed the nature of reflection by four pre-service EFL teachers in the Turkish context over a year through four interviews with each participant going through the practicum stage and ending up as a novice teacher. The study confirmed that the majority of the preservice teachers' reflection was about learning environments, teacher behavior, and competence in all four interviews. However, as time passed, the participants started to reflect more on their identities and missions as language teachers. From another international context with a focus on the nature of pre-service teachers' reflections, Azimi et al. (2019) explored 41 pre-service teachers' 620 reflective excerpts during the practicum process over two years in three practicum courses in Iran. The study found out that in the first times of practice teaching, pre-service teachers mostly commented on the routine level themes such as classroom management and surviving the teaching tasks. Later, their concern was directed to the themes at the technical level, like the instructional design inclusive of preparation and planning teaching. They rarely wrote about the learners' learning process.

Considering the discussion above, this study aims to explore the content of the reflection pre-service EFL teachers are engaged in their self-evaluation reports during the practicum experience. In their initial profession teaching experiences with real learners in real schools, pre-service teachers' own review of their teaching would not just inform teacher education as an immediate reflection of the initial teacher education learning but also immersion in more organic and multi-dimensional experiential learning. As novice teachers embarking on their teaching journey within an authentic educational environment, self-assessment grants them the opportunity to gain insight into the true and possible occurrences in the classrooms. It enables them to recognize and value elements of their own teaching and learning that may otherwise go unnoticed. Furthermore, analyzing the content of pre-service teachers' reflections based on a few teaching tasks over a semester offers the teacher education community an opportunity to observe their practice-oriented growth.

In line with these aims, we asked the following research questions:

1. What aspects of teaching do pre-service EFL teachers consider and emphasize when they reflect on their own teaching?

2. Which changes are observed in the aspects of teaching pre-service EFL teachers consider and emphasize when they reflect on their teaching from the beginning till the end of the practicum?

Methodology

This study employed a qualitative case study methodology. Stake (1995) argues that qualitative case studies enable researchers to "seek greater understanding of the case" and to "appreciate the uniqueness and complexity of the case, its embeddedness, and interaction with its contexts" (p. 16). Based on this conceptual framing, this study defined its case as the self-evaluation practices of pre-service EFL teachers at a public university in Türkiye.

Such an interpretive approach that acknowledges the complex and nuanced nature of phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008) fits well as a method of inquiry in this study to rigorously understand and explore its bounded case by time, space, and activity.

Context and Participants

This study was conducted at an English language teaching department of a public university in Türkiye. The data was collected during the Practice Teaching course offered in the Spring 15-16 term. The Practice Teaching course "consolidating the skills necessary for teaching English as a foreign language at primary and secondary schools through observation and teaching practice" (University General Catalogue, 2014, p. 453) was relevant to the aims of this study as the pre-service teachers were engaged in many reflective practices through written reflective reports, self or peer feedback forms and evaluations and such.

The participants were 29 pre-service EFL teachers. They were attending public and private institutions at the middle and high school levels. They were following their Practice Teaching coursework both at these K-12 schools and the university-based teacher education program. For ten weeks, they spent six hours at schools and attended a two-hour seminar discussion at the university based on the required readings. The pre-service EFL teachers regularly reflected on their observations of the mentor teachers at their schools, the articles discussed in the seminar, and finally their own teaching sessions. Throughout the course, they completed observation and teaching tasks and further evaluated their own teaching sessions in separate evaluation forms.

Data Collection

To meet the requirements of the Practice Teaching course, each pre-service EFL teacher taught three lessons at their K-12 schools. These were scheduled and evaluated by their mentor teacher at schools. In addition to these, the pre-service EFL teachers prepared a 40-minute lesson plan as their final teaching task. This final lesson was observed and evaluated both by the mentor at the school and the Practice Teaching course instructor at the university. After each teaching task, the pre-service EFL teachers wrote self-evaluations. They commented on the strong aspects of their 40-minute teaching and what they were happy with regarding their lesson. They also focused on what they would have changed if they had re-designed or re-taught this lesson, and how they responded to the issues that their mentors mentioned in their feedback. In this study, we examined all three self-evaluation forms from pre-service EFL teachers after they did their teaching at practice teaching schools over threemonths. These self-evaluation reports were written at regular intervals after every three weeks as the pre-service teachers taught in their practice teaching schools.In total, we investigated 87 self-evaluation reports of one- to two-page length. The followingquestions were given as probes:

- What were the strong aspects of your 40-minute teaching? What are the points that you are happy with in your teaching experience?

- If you had a chance to re-do Teaching Task 1 (2/3), what are the things you would change? What were the aspects of the activity or your teaching that

could be/need to be re-designed if you had a second chance?

- What are some of the issues mentioned in your <u>mentor teacher's feedback</u>? How do you respond to these comments?

Data Analysis

A cyclical-reiterative analysis process was adopted with reference to Creswell (2013) as in the following sequence: "a preliminary read-through of the database, coding and organizing themes, representing the data, and forming an interpretation of them" (p. 195). First, we formed a database for the current case (Yin, 2018). Then, we conducted a thematic content analysis (Patton, 2015) to achieve a broader interpretation of the data. The coding scheme of Şanal-Erginel (2006) guided us to explore the data in the initial coding phase as it is informed by pre-service teachers' and on on-campus learning. We enriched the initial coding by in-vivo or descriptive coding (Saldaña, 2013) as our data set required more experimentation and practice learning-oriented comments. This was an inductive process consisting of "data reduction, data grouping, and the formation of concepts that can be used to answer research questions" (Kyngäs, 2020, p. 14). The data was analysed on MaxQDA software (Version 12, Release 12.3.1). To achieve peer checking - "the stability of responses to multiple coders of data sets" (Creswell, 2013, p. 253)- we reflected on our initial analysis, compared and discussed our codes and categories, and then finalized the representation of the data for the discussion. After we both analysed the data, we sought agreement on our codes and reached a %89 agreement rate. For the codes where we fell apart in our interpretations, we either re-wrote or re-assigned codes for these sections. We stored and analyzed the data confidentially. Furthermore, we anonymized the participants after their informed consent was obtained. We report their comments by assigning numbers as participants (e.g., P1) in the three self-evaluation reports (e.g., E1 for self-evaluation 1). The study was carried out in accordance with research ethics and approved by the institutional ethical review board as well (2016-EGT-026).

Findings

The findings showed that the aspects of teaching that pre-service EFL teachers considered and emphasized when they self-evaluated themselves were instructional processes, learner motivation, and engagement, self as the teacher, and classroom management. The most common theme was instructional processes (N=251 out of 405 codes) taking up to around 62% of the whole data. In all three self-evaluation reports, it was the main theme. Learner motivation and engagement (N=59 out of 405 codes) was the second most common theme in all reports consisting of around 15% of the whole data set. The least common themes differed from the beginning till the end of the semester contrary to the most common theme staying the same. The pre-service EFL teachers made more reference to their self as the teacher in their final reports. However, three themes other thanthe main theme still received similar focus. Talking about pre-service teachers' self as the teacher (N=48 out of 405 codes) took up around 12% of the data while classroom management (N=39 out of 405 codes) took up around 10% of the self-evaluation reports. The following figure shows an overview of the areas of reflection in self-evaluations:

Instructional Processes

Figure 1. Areas of Reflection in Self-Evaluations
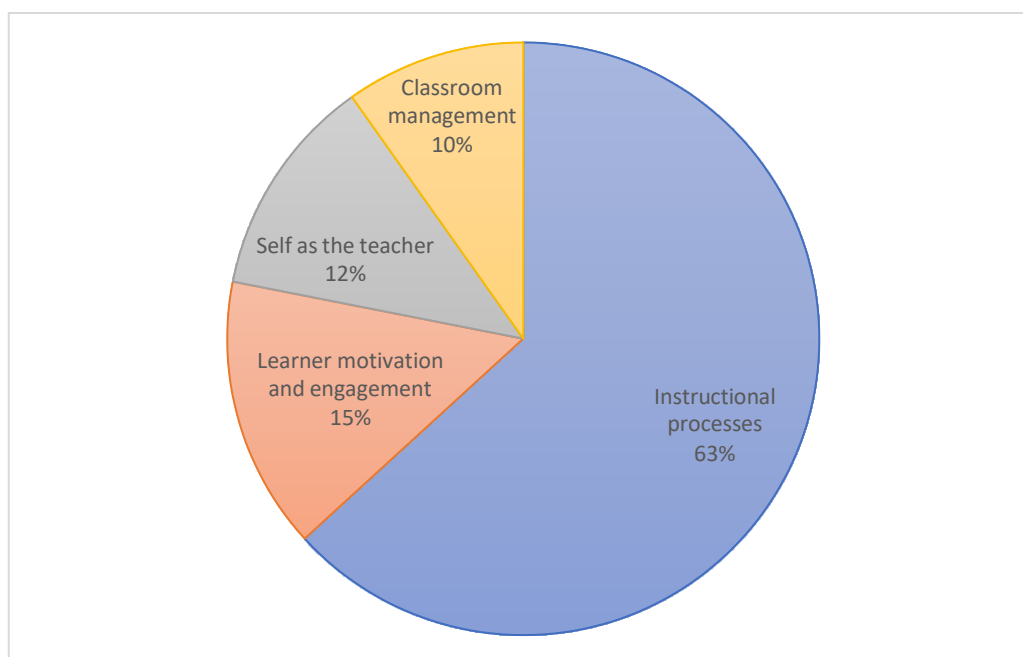
The pre-service EFL teachers focused on the delivery of content, materials and activities, skills teaching, time management, and interaction patterns in relation to instructional processes in the class.

Delivery of the Content

The most common category under this theme was the delivery of content with subcategories of giving instructions, technology and Smartboard use, L1/L2 use, error correction, activating prior knowledge and giving examples, checking answers and teacher talk time.

Figure 2. Delivery of the Content
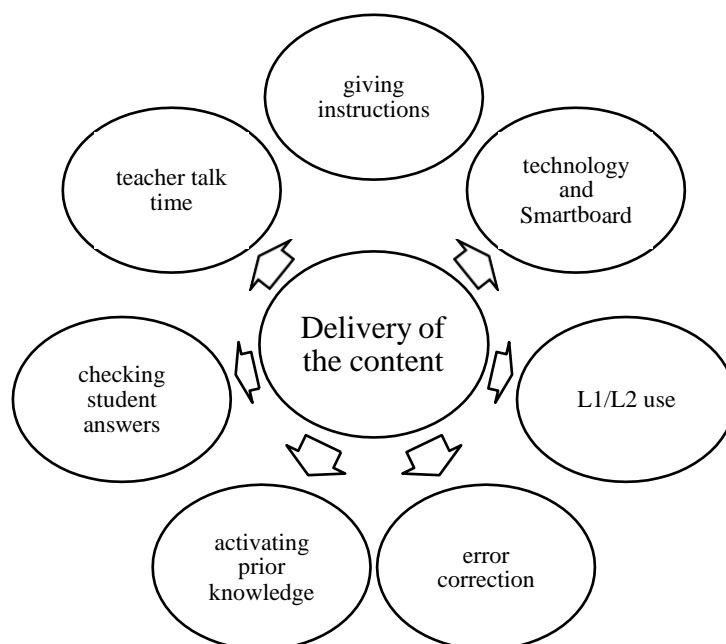
To start with, being able to give instructions successfully was found quite important by the pre-service EFL teachers. They stated that they were able to give clear instructions such as "I was good at giving instruction as well. I adapted my language according to my students' level. I explained everything step by step and I provided a model for my students" (P8, E2), but there were some instances when they could not achieve their goals while giving instructions: "while giving the instructions, I should use more simple language for all the students to be able to understand" (P14, E2). Some of the pre-service EFL teachers mentioned their own strategies: "I was careful about using simple and concise statements. I even supported them with demonstrations. When the students seemed not able to understand one part, I asked a student who understood to translate the instructions into Turkish" (P5, E1). However, there were sometimes problems regarding instructions:

> If I had a chance to do my teaching task again, I would check the understanding of students after giving instructions so that they do not get lost while doing the activity. The reason why I did not check was that the students were not used to this, and I thought they would be puzzled if I wanted them to repeat the instructions to the whole class. However, I realized that they would do it perfectly if I had given them the chance. (P1, E3)

Another pre-service EFL teacher also referred to some areas of improvement: "I realized that I didn't say everything they needed to do the activity. For example, in my student-to-student interview activity, they needed to do this in pairs to ask and answer all their questions" (P21, E3). Additionally, vague, or complicated instructions led to problems:

> I created the groups first; I wanted students to write the names of things in the pictures individually. This was very problematic because I should have told them to write the names of objects first, then I should have created the groups. I wanted them to match the pictures including letters with the pictures including numbers. There were some misunderstandings in this part. I would give an example after my instruction. (P8, E1)

The subsequent focus was on technology use, especially how to use Smartboard. We grouped any types of instructional technologies including black board under this category.

For example, quite a few of them told they had made use of a Smartboard: "I feel very satisfied when I see that the smart board can be used in a crowded classroom and group activities can be applied as well" (P3, E3), or "Since smart boards are not used in classes too much, we thought that using them would draw students' attention to the lesson. We designed games and colorful images to make it more interesting" (P1, E1). The use of a Smart board allowed them to integrate presentations or videos into the pre-service EFL teachers' classes making the students' participation more meaningful: "They got very excited seeing the pictures on the smart board. They were intrigued by the board game. Even the students who normally do not take turns much were trying to make sentences in English while playing the game" (P16, E1). Yet, for some pre-service EFL teachers, navigating the board was not that easy and there was a need for prior training using the board: "the smart board was not like the computers I used before. I could not complete my competition game because of this problem, and it took nearly 5 minutes from my teaching time" (P14, E1). In some cases, there were unexpected problems utilizing instructional technology when one of the computers in the class did not work and the pre-service EFL teacher had to change the room:

> I was bound hand and foot because my lesson plan was based on the PPT with lots of colorful pictures. Then, we found an empty classroom and moved there, but then, my mentor teacher said that was the "science classroom" and we could not be there. And we found another classroom. When I thought that everything was going to be alright, the mouse and keyboard of the computer in that class did not work again. The students brought another mouse, but it did not work, either. Losing 15 minutes of the lesson, I started the lesson helplessly. Unfortunately, I had no flashcards or printouts. All I could do was to explain the differences between deep and shallow and narrow and wide by using my gestures. (P17, E2)

Language use of both L1 and L2 was another area that the pre-service EFL teachers reflected on in their self-evaluations. For some of them, it was the case that they dominantly used English in the classroom: "I almost never switched to Turkish" (P4, E1), or "I did my teaching task in a public school, and they were not used to listening to the whole lesson in English. I did not speak even a word in Turkish and they were able to understand all my instructions throughout the lesson" (P7, E1). The pre-service EFL teachers stated that they felt like they set a model for students "For the first time, I realized that I used my English in a way that they can use as a model" (P22, E3). Regarding this bilingual use in the class, L1 was generally mentioned as an aid: "When a student could not understand what I was asking, I asked another student to translate it to her friend. I think it worked well because the student was able to answer my question correctly" (P13, E3). P12 stated the consistency in using English also influenced the students: "They are not used to English speaking in the classroom, they firstly tried to discourage me. But I continued to use English. Then, they began to get used to it and asked me their questions in English" (E1). Similarly, P17 wrote: "I tried to simplify my language as much as possible while giving instructions. After seeing that they understood the instructions clearly and tried to respond to me in English, I realized that using L2 was not so difficult" (E2).

Error correction was another topic that pre-service EFL teachers considered when they reflected on their teaching. Most of the time they were not in favor of immediate correction: "my aim was not increase accuracy in that lesson. I was trying to get the students talking. If I had corrected their mistakes all the time, they would be more reluctant to speak up and participate" (P5, E2). The pre-service EFL teachers not only relied on their own

practice while evaluating themselves but also their mentors':

> When a student did not answer the question correctly, another student took the turn to correct it. According to my observations, the students who answered incorrectly did not listen to the correction because they were demotivated by their teacher. But, in my teaching task, when the students tried to make sentences in the picture matching activity, I helped them to answer my questions by providing the necessary vocabulary, asking extra questions. It was motivating for the students. (P4, E3)

Next, the pre-service EFL teachers commented on activating students' prior knowledge and giving examples in their self-evaluations. P15 stated: "I liked the connection of my lesson with the previous lesson. They covered a poem related to Jewish massacre which later turned into a blues song. I also included so many materials related to the same topic" (E3), and P6 wrote: "I believe my introduction was quite nice. Because I asked what they did that morning in their English class, I connected the lesson to previous information, and they started talking" (E1). Giving examples was a priority for the pre-service EFL teachers: "Also, in my last activity, I was not sure about giving an example of my own, but I saw that it was the right thing to do. They liked the example I gave from my own life" (P9, E1). The pre-service EFL teachers also realized when the instruction fell short in activating prior knowledge and suggested alternative practices:

> I didn't use any pictures or any kind of materials. Just talking about nature-inspired objects and asking for them were not effective enough to start a lesson. I could have brought some examples of nature-inspired objects to the class, hung some pictures on the board or simply Google nature-inspired objects on the smart board. (P8, E2)

Finally, the pre-service EFL teachers referred to checking students' understanding and answers, and teacher talk time in relation to the delivery of the content. For example, P18 exemplified how they used wait time: "I frequently asked about whether there was something unknown or unexplained for them. I waited around 8-10 seconds for them to think, make their sentences and then move to the lesson" (E1). P11 focused on a change in their future practice: "the way we checked students' answers with the PPT because there were answers on the PPT. I should have listened to the students' answers first, then shown the correct answers" (E2). Teacher talk time was also reconsidered in self-evaluations:

> I realized that I kept the teacher talk time too long in the while-reading part. I was trying to give information about Gaudi's sources of inspiration and how he imitated nature while constructing some parts of his buildings. I think, instead of giving all this information by myself, almost lecturing the class, I could have created an activity by using that information. (P13, E2)

Materials and activities, skills and systems

There was also a substantial focus on materials and activities, skills and systems such as writing, listening, reading, speaking, grammar, and vocabulary. Mostly, the pre-service EFL teachers were happy with their practices: "My story is quite effective. Although it is very short and easy, it enabled me to show the rationale behind using reported statements" (P8, E3). There were also a few instances of problems: "I would find more enjoyable and different activities for the students rather than focusing on the course book that much" (P21, E2), or "I regret I focused on the activities in their book. They were regular, ordinary. I should have created more enjoyable and unexpected ones. If I had come up with my original activities, they would have been more willing" (P17, E2). The action focus for the future was also prevalent in using materials and designing activities:

> I would have skipped the last activity (the board game) and spent all time on the second activity (writing sentences related to cartoon characters). If I had done this, we could have repeated all important points

in detail or we could have completed the board game as the whole class, and I can give feedback to the answers. I could have asked all the extra questions I had planned. (P5, E3)

Furthermore, the pre-service EFL teachers commented on how they managed or could have managed teaching skills or systems of the language. For writing, P14 stated they wanted students to write a descriptive paragraph "about their imaginary buildings by using the words they learned in the lesson. It is a good way of encouraging students to use their skills, and they can practice writing by using the new words in sentences" (E2). For listening, P22 wrote how they would adapt instructional practice: "when I asked a question from time to time about the video they were watching, they did not know which element was important to them. I would supply them with a worksheet, so they could be ready to talk" (E2). For grammar, P16 commented that they gave the rules of the structures by writing on the board and did not ask the students to copy them in their notebooks: "Maybe, I could have given them a small piece of sheet on which the rules are written to make them attach to their notebooks because even if they memorize the rules, they immediately forget" (E2). Another area of reflection was time management for the pre-service EFL teachers. There were few instances where they reflected-in-action and changed their next action in the class: "I did not have much time left, so I decided to end the lesson by wrapping up the grammar points, yet the students continued to play the game, so I could not create a sense of closure here" (P6, E3), or were left puzzled:

> I could not finish my lesson on time. We could not finish the last activity because the explanation part took more time than I planned. The students were not used to listening to explanations in English. I have no solution for this part in my mind. (P15, E1)

Regarding instructional processes, the pre-service EFL teachers reflected on interaction patterns such as pair and group work. P10 stated: "I wanted students to work in pairs to guess the meaning of the words. They can learn from each other. My last activity was also good. It pushes being creative by working as a group" (E2). P19 wrote: "They worked in pairs, and even though it is a boring topic for students, I tried to make it more learnable with a lot of activities" (E1). Lastly, it was seen that the pre-service EFL teachers were well prepared for their lessons in terms of planning, and they were flexible with their plan while teaching.

Learner Motivation and Engagement

In relation to motivating and engaging learners in the class, the pre-service EFL teachers reflected on the importance of a positive atmosphere, teacher smile, encouraging students, grabbing their attention, keeping them on task, providing an interesting topic and activity, praising students, attending to them by names. Creating a positive atmosphere and teacher smile as a motivational factor were the most common aspects of teaching that the pre-service EFL teachers considered in their self-evaluations. These were helpful in their teaching. P14 wrote: "I smiled all the time so that students could feel safe" (E1). P9 stated: "I asked how they are doing lately and what they do in their leisure time- as unusual. I showed how I cared about them and wanted to learn their life a little bit by asking real questions" (E1). Preparing attention-grabbing activities was another priority for the pre-service EFL teachers. P17 commented: "the way I drew students' attention to the sentences including should in the dialogues and the way I connected the sign and notices to 'should' constructions were successful" (E2). Encouraging students was also found important in

P12's practices: "I also encouraged some students to talk by asking them to comment or chose the students randomly for some questions" (E3). The pre-service EFL teachers mentioned that they praised students occasionally: "When they said something nice or correct, I praised their answers by saying "Well-done" or "That's very smart of you" (P18, E1).

Learner engagement was not only about acknowledging positive or smooth moments in the class. In one incident, P16 called a student with a different name confusing two names with similar meanings and the student told another friend that this made them upset. However, P16 wrote:

> I have never thought that calling a student with a wrong name would make him/her feel that much sorry and share it with someone else. When I heard it, I went to Uygar and said, I am so sorry, it is totally my mistake. The names are so similar to one another, I got confused. This will never happen again. (E2)

Self as the Teacher

The pre-service EFL teachers commented on how they felt themselves as teachers and the importance of having rapport in the class. For example, P19 felt confident as a teacher: "It went very well. I felt confident and positive, and this was one of my strengths" (E1). They valued having close relationships – rapport with students:

> Also, I liked the relationship between me and my students even if it was for a limited time. I felt that the students considered me closer. The thing I liked most about that day was the break-time before my teaching when all the students gathered around me and asked me some questions. One of them even said, *Why don't you work in our school*, which made me the happiest person at that moment. (P12, E3)

Likewise, P4 wrote after their final teaching task how the students appreciated them:

> I was very emotional. After the class, when most of the students came and hugged me, for the first time, I felt like a teacher. I had this awesome communication and energy with the students. They loved me as much as I loved them. During the lesson, they tried to help me since they knew that (the supervisor) was grading my performance. I was happy to hear that those students want me to be their teacher. Even if my first day at that school was a total disaster, my last day was a bliss. It was one of the best days of my life and sharing that day with those students was one of the greatest feelings that I have experienced. (E3)

The pre-service teachers enjoyed being in the class as a teacher on different occasions: "I also really enjoyed being in that class (congratulating announcements from the school speaker and singing a song) because it was a pleasure to watch the students, they could spend enjoyable time in the classroom" (P7, E3). Sometimes, they positioned themselves and the students in the class: "If the aim is to raise awareness of certain phenomena by teaching language, students should know why they discuss or give their opinions over these (hunger, poverty) topics and we should not add personal values to the discussions" (P18, E3). The teacher they aspired to be was such that, in P5's words: "We should never give up counting on our students. No matter how bad they are, they are children in the end, and we can help them to improve themselves" (E3). Additionally, they referred to certain actions that would not go together with their teacher self. For example, P23 reflected on a specific action of her mentor teacher while evaluating themselves and how they act as a teacher: "I would be very disappointed to hear such words from my teacher or I would not say these to my students. Sometimes teachers do not choose the best way (to manage the classroom)" and added, "I don't find it very appropriate to reflect private life issues into the lesson" (E3). These comments attributed specific practices for teachers as

desirable and appropriate, and the pre-service teachers were evaluating the extent to which they live up to these features.

Classroom Management

In managing the classroom, the pre-service EFL teachers paid attention to dealing with misbehavior, teacher voice, monitoring the class, and noise. Among these, the effective use of the teacher's voice was found the most important factor in classroom management. Most of the pre-service EFL teachers mentioned problems with their teacher's voice, and it impacted their lesson to varying extents as their teacher's voice was "too low" (P4, E2; P17, E1) or they could not use it "effectively" (P9, E3; P25, E2).

P25 reflected on an incident when they repeatedly tried to explain in English by showing the instructions on the Smartboard but could not manage and then one of the students yelled what they were expected to do in the activity: "I was very calm and did not get angry no matter how hard it was for me. Normally, in real life, I am an easily angered person. However, when I am in the classroom, I am not" (E2). P11 wrote that: "I ignored some minor issues. Sometimes, I went near the students who were misbehaving and stood there for a while until they stopped the behavior. Also, I tried to make eye contact with misbehaving students" (E3). P12 reported some problems with classroom management:

> The group sitting next to the door was so disruptive both for me and the classroom because they did not listen to their friends; did not focus on the activity and talked among themselves about other things. Since I had to listen to the answers of the other groups at this time, I could not control them that much, and this caused a breakdown in my teaching. I would definitely want them to sit in different groups. (E3)

There were some extreme cases as well. In one of the classes, when the pre-service EFL teachers were co-teaching a lesson and the mentor teacher was not in the classroom, one of the students who was reported to be disrespectful in the earlier session clasped another student with hearing impairment by the throat. P20 wrote they did not know what to do but immediately interfered with the situation: "When I seized the student by the collar and made him sit down in one move, I thought I did wrong and felt a little bit guilty. Then, I relieved myself thinking What if something happens to him" (P20, E3).

Finally, the findings showed that, although we identified a slight change in the least common theme from the beginning till the end of practice teaching, the areas of reflection in self-evaluations except instructional processes were comparable to each other. Considering the aspects of teaching the pre-service EFL teachers considered and emphasized when they reflected on their teaching from the beginning till the end of the practicum, we found that the focus on their self as the teacher was almost exclusively present in the final reports. The other three themes showed a similar trend in all three self-evaluation forms; the instructional processes theme was the dominant one followed by learner motivation and engagement. Classroom management received similar emphasis in all reports, being not the least common theme in the initial ones. However, the focus on the self as the teacher doubled in the final reports, making it the third common theme overall.

Discussion

This study sets out to outline the focus of pre-service EFL teachers' reflection in their

self-evaluation forms during the practicum process and present if their focus changed throughout the semester. The results yielded the dominance of instructional process-focused reflection in the evaluation forms, followed by learner motivation and engagement, self as a teacher, and classroom management. Overall, the findings show that reflection is a recurrent activity involving a cyclical set of experiences and critical examination (Lefebvre et al., 2022) and not only an individual but also a relational process drawing on individual ideas, interpretations, and interactions with others (Marshall et al., 2022). The pre-service teachers gained classroom experience and continuously evaluated the classroom environment, their in-situ actions, and sometimes based on observations of their mentors.

The comprehensiveness, breadth, and depth of the category of the instructional process may have contributed to the great ratio of the reflection on this field. It encompasses multiple entry-level teaching skills: giving instructions, technology use, language use, error correction and materials, and skills use. A closer examination of the focus of these reflection points suggests that these are the basic elements of teaching, without sufficient possession of which teachers may not enter the profession. Considering the practicum, the very first professional experience with actual students in real teaching environments, pre-service teachers' reflection displays that they assessed themselves based on entry-level teaching skills such as creating a suitable learning environment, facilitating learner participation, and dealing with misbehavior (MoNE, 2017). In addition, the greatest amount of attention to the instructional processes could be meaningful and expected as Leijen et al. (2012) point out emerging teachers may be more concerned with technical aspects of teaching, which are more available to control in the teaching process. This result is also in line with Yalçın Arslan (2019) and Azimi et al. (2019) in which pre-service teachers in Turkey and Iran also topicalized their practicum experiences in the technical and immediate-context related issues such as classroom management and teaching skills. Quite similarly, pre-service teachers frequently commented on their activities and materials design and use during their teaching experiences. They expressed future-projected alternative ways of achieving their plans and designs acknowledging their problematic aspects. One may argue that in self-evaluation forms pre-service teachers mainly focus on their retrospective practices; however, as shown in the data; design and preparation-oriented comments could have the potential to function as anticipatory reflection (Van Manen, 1995) giving the pre-service teachers opportunities to take pre-emptive measures and be much more prepared and welcoming for unexpected teaching moments. These show that the pre-service teachers not only reflected onaction (Schön, 1983) but also onaction (Van Manen, 1995).

Since the participants in this study were majoring in English as a Foreign Language Teaching, it is no more surprising to see that they frequently reflected upon language use. What is surprisingly pleasant is that pre-service teachers reflected upon their successful target language use in the evaluation forms. Their writing conveyed that they resorted to the mother tongue as an aid rarely and most of the time they utilized English as a medium of instruction and their students were able to understand them. Their emphasis on the state school was worth noting as stated by the participants. The perception about the target language use in the Turkish state school was that students receive target language instruction in their mother tongue, and they wouldn't accomplish following the target language use. However, the positively worded content of the reflection of this group of pre-service teachers

could be promising and contribute to the pre-service teachers' growing comfort in speaking more in the target language. It further signals their enactment on the use of the language rather than ethnolinguistic ownership (Lee & Canagarajah, 2019).

One of the findings of this study is that pre-service teachers did not reflect on classroom management so frequently. Classroom management ranked last in the evaluation forms. The practicum is part of the 'survival stage' at which pre-service teachers are mostly interested in dealing with the students and silencing them and keeping the class under control (Fuller & Bown, 1974, as cited in Hascher et al., 2004, p. 634). One would assume that the participants would comment on classroom management issues to a great extent as in the case of Azimi et al. (2019). What is sensible in this finding is that the pre-service teachers mainly commented on managing the classroom as a point to be improved, not as their strong suit. Lack of experience and the growing responsibility of teaching the language to real students (Hascher et al., 2004) may have driven the participants to perceive classroom management as a room for development. After all, classroom management is "a topic about which student teachers often know little and have a great deal of anxiety" (Day, 1990, p. 53).

Overall, our findings are quite similar to Astika (2014). Her category of the personal domain was quite similar to the instructional processes and self-as-a-teacher in this study and her contextual domain was inclusive of student engagement, and motivation. The two domains of instructional processes and self-as-a-teacher constituted nearly 90% of the reflection set. We can infer that within the reframe of the practicum with the actual students in the real school environment, pre-service teachers are more inclined to be concerned about instructional processes and student involvement and interest more than other elements.

One noteworthy finding of our study is that pre-service teachers' reflections on self-as-a-teacher showed an increase gradually. That is, they commented on how they felt, and how their students acknowledge their teacher persona more in the last self-evaluation form especially. This also resonates with Yalçın Arslan (2019) in which the pre-service teachers increased their focus on identity and mission as they gained more experience in the practicum. In our study, identity-focused reflection mostly constituted both how they felt as teachers and their references to aspired identities by having certain characteristics but refraining from others; as identity is "to become a certain person or, conversely, to avoid becoming a certain person" (Wenger, 1998, p. 215). The focus on the self as a teacher could be due to the fact that pre-service teachers' identity development was affected by the experience of the practicum and the relationship they built with real students as this is one of the constituents of teacher identities (Izadinia, 2013) and students could function as identity mirrors (Meng, 2014) for the pre-service teachers. Receiving immediate positive feedback from the receiver of their service; students, seemed to positively contribute to the pre-service teachers' perceptions of themselves, in(directly) confirming their emerging teacher identity constructed through classroom practices (Kanno & Stuart, 2011) during the practicum. Finally, this finding shows that teacher learning is also an identity-construction process (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020) profoundly shaped by practice (Taşdemir, 2021). Thus, reflective activities fostering pre-service teachers' actively exploring their teacher identities are needed in pre-service teacher education programs.

Conclusion and Implications

Understanding reflection is important since it is necessary to explore the learning processes of pre-service teachers and know what they touch upon, consider, and emphasize when they write reflective reports (Davis, 2006). One of the tools for engaging pre-service teachers in such reflective practice is self-evaluations in the practicum process. In this paper, we investigated the content of reflections made by pre-service EFL teachers after completing teaching tasks at practicum schools and evaluating themselves. Additionally, we examined any observed changes in this content. To this effect, we analyzed self-evaluation reports of pre-service EFL teachers during their practicum at a public university in Türkiye. The findings showed that the pre-service EFL teachers reflected mostly on various aspects of their instruction, namely, the areas that have the most visible connection to practice. Then, they focused on affectionate ways of engaging learners, their teacher selves and managing the classroom and disruptive behaviors.

As the pre-service teachers are engaged in several reflective tasks in the practicum process, this could create the basis for exploring different areas of their instruction and pedagogical practices. In this study, the majority of reflection points in the self-evaluations consisted of entry-level professional skills. Therefore, we suggest that the content that is addressed in reflective tasks, either through observation or teaching, could first aim at actively exploring these aspects and then broader discussions in the field such as diversity, social inclusion, and multiculturality, preparing pre-service teachers to handle emerging classroom contexts. Another aspect to explore is how to promote the university and the school partnerships that will support pre-service teachers' reflective activities in the practicum. Reflective tasks or self-evaluations could also encourage pre-service teachers to deliberately ponder on their teacher identities through various tools such as narrative guides or prompts. It is seen that by gaining in-class practice, the pre-service teachers directed their focus to identity-based reflection points more. Thus, reflective practices need to provide opportunities that will foster pre-service teachers' understanding of the ever-emerging teacher identities on a deeper level.

This study has a few limitations. For instance, we only focused on a specific group of pre-service EFL teachers at a public university in Türkiye. Further research is needed to explore different educational contexts around the world and different teacher education and training programs. Close analysis of various cases would inform how self-evaluation could promote reflection across the career span of English language teachers. Additionally, other data sources such as interviews or think-aloud protocols and other tools such as video-based (Lefebvre et al., 2022) or vignette-based instruments (Yılmaz & Akar, 2022) could be utilized to enhance our understanding of self-evaluation and reflective practice. The ways the stakeholders in the practice teaching process such as mentors, peers, and supervisors influence pre-service teachers' reflective understanding need also be investigated to further this line of research.

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Research Article

Rethinking EAP Reading Courses: Insights from Student Feedback

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ABSTRACT

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs are crucial for developing language skills in academic settings, and course evaluation plays a key role in assessing their impact, meeting student needs, and improving the curriculum and instruction. This study evaluates an EAP Reading Course implemented in an English Language Preparatory Program in a Turkish higher education institution, seeking to enhance curriculum and instruction through student feedback. Using a qualitative case study approach, a focus group interview gathered data from a student group at the end of the academic year. Inductive content analysis revealed noteworthy findings in course components like content, materials, technology integration, and duration. This research informs EAP reading course development, curricula, and materials in English Language preparatory programs in higher education, offering insights to enhance similar courses and ultimately improve students' overall educational experiences.

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Introduction

Course evaluation is a valuable instrument that offers a number of benefits. For instance, it provides essential feedback to practitioners by allowing them to reflect upon their teaching and thus helps them enhance the effectiveness of courses and improve their instructional practices. In addition, it contributes to student satisfaction by allowing learners to express their opinions and reveal their needs and thereby promoting a positive learning environment (Zamin & Asraf, 2017). It is also a means for cultivating a culture of continuous improvement in educational institutions. Consequently, course evaluation serves as an essential means to promote the overall impact and quality of a course.

While course evaluation has the potential to provide the aforementioned benefits, most evaluation studies have employed quantitative methods and conducted surveys whose results are interpreted through statistical procedures (see Steyn et al., 2018) and might yield limited insights into determining the efficacy of the courses being evaluated. Similarly, Sozer et al. (2019) state that the structure, administration, and reporting of mid- semester course evaluations play a crucial role in obtaining deep and high quality feedback from students to improve the learning and teaching experience, unlike end-of-semester evaluations that typically use Likert scale-type questions. In this vein, qualitative evaluations that take learners' experiences and perspectives into account might complement the conclusions drawn from the quantitative studies. Indeed, assessments provided by instructors and students are crucial for comprehensive program evaluation reports since they offer more holistic and unique insights that might directly inform the components of the program, making their contributions indispensable as insiders (Tezel, 2021; Zamin & Asraf, 2017).

Literature Review

English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Course Evaluation, and Academic Reading

EAP is a specialized area of English language teaching (ELT) and a subdomain of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) that focuses on developing language skills and competencies necessary for individuals to engage in academic or professional activities within an English-medium higher education contexts (Gillett, 2022). According to Bruce (2017), EAP has drawn support from the knowledge base rooted in five research streams: systemic functional linguistics, genre theory, corpus linguistics, academic literacies, and critical EAP. For Hyland (2014), EAP relies on diverse theoretical foundations, including text-based genre analysis, contextual language investigation, and research-based language education. This knowledge base and theoretical foundations inform curriculum and materials development, assessment, and program implementation within the field of teaching EAP.

The primary aim of an EAP course is to support learners in acquiring the necessary linguistic and cultural knowledge, particularly in terms of institutional and disciplinary practices, to effectively study or work in English. EAP courses typically cover the four skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, as well as the academic discourse of a particular discipline (Hyland, 2006). Additionally, they include the instruction of peculiar

features of academic discourse, such as formal or academic vocabulary, complex sentence structures, and academic conventions, and provide guidance on how to handle and produce these types of texts. Furthermore, developing learners' ability to analyze arguments in both academic genres and texts and approach them with a critical thinking stance is an essential focus of EAP courses. Learner engagement, raising learners' cultural awareness, and technology integration are increasing trends concerning the EAP curriculum and instruction. In sum, EAP courses mainly aim to improve learners' competence and skills tocommunicate in written and spoken discourse in an academic setting where English is the medium of instruction.

In addition to the main features discussed above, needs assessment, evaluation, and analysis of learner goals and objectives are equally important components of an EAP program (Carkin, 2005). As with any educational program, assessing the impact of an EAP course and learner needs is an invaluable means to enhance the efficacy of the curriculum and instructional methods. In this regard, language program evaluation, "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to enhance curriculum improvement and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, along with participants' attitudes, within the specific institutional context" (Brown, 1989, p. 223), becomes essential. This definition highlights the two main purposes of evaluation: promoting improvement and assessing impact. In line with these purposes, the process of evaluation can be categorized into two types: formative and summative. Formative evaluation takes place during the program's implementation and focuses on gathering and analyzing data to improve the program. On the other hand, summative evaluation typically occurs at the program's conclusion and aims to determine the degree of success, efficiency, and effectiveness of the program (Brown, 1995). According to Brown and Rodgers (2004), teachers and administrators can conduct course or program evaluations for multiple purposes, such as improving the effectiveness of the course materials, classroom activities, teaching, and learning processes along with many other possible purposes.

Given that this research focuses on the evaluation of an EAP reading course, it is essential to provide a fundamental understanding of reading as a skill. Reading is a multifaceted and intricate skill that defies a thorough definition. Although Grabe and Stoller (2019, p. 5) provide an initial definition of reading as "the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information coherently", they caution against oversimplifying the term due to its inherent complexities. One such complexity stems from the fact that people engage in reading for a range of purposes, including seeking simple information, skimming, learning from texts, integrating information, searching for information to support writing, critically analyzing texts, and achieving overall comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2019). While some additional factors contribute to the complexity of reading as a skill, for the sake of clarity, it is important to address the fundamental characteristics applicable to reading courses in general. In this context, Grabe (2004, p. 44) highlights ten key implications derived from research on reading, offering valuable guidelines when making decisions related to the design and execution of effective reading instruction:

- ensure fluency in word recognition;

- emphasize the learning of vocabulary;

- activate background knowledge;

- ensure the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and general comprehension;

- teach recognition of text structures and discourse organization;

- promote the development of strategic readers rather than the mechanical application of strategy checklists;

- build reading fluency and rate;

- promote extensive reading;

- develop intrinsic motivation for reading; and

- contribute to a coherent curriculum for student learning.

Reading plays a significant role in academic environments, serving as a fundamental method for acquiring new knowledge, accessing different perspectives, and exploring alternative interpretations. Moreover, reading forms the basis for developing critical thinking skills, fostering the ability to synthesize information, and promoting independent learning (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). Due to the importance of EAP reading, it is crucial to develop reading courses and curricula, make informed decisions regarding instructional methods, and carefully choose or modify materials and resources to ensure the delivery of effective reading instruction in academic contexts.

An Overview of Research on EAP Program/Course Evaluation

There is a growing body of course evaluation research on the assessment of EAP courses from an insider's perspective. Such studies might include practitioners, learners, or other stakeholders as the participants, all of whom might offer extensive data to help assess the impact of any instructional program or course and identify learners' needs and goals to revise and reshape the course components.

Course evaluation studies have yielded various findings obtained from a range of settings and participants. For instance, in a Turkish higher education setting, Üstünel and Kaplan (2015) found that students were in need of developing reading strategies, improving their academic vocabulary, and having more opportunities such as extensive listening and reading, etc. Based on these findings, the researchers suggest that the selection, adaptation, and creation of instructional materials for this course be based on the specific requirements and preferences of the students. In an American higher education setting, Tezel (2021) evaluated a graduate program by including faculty members and students, as the insiders of the program for data collection. The findings revealed that both cohorts expressed positive opinions about the majority of the dimensions directly related tothe quality of education provided in the program. Chowdhury and Haider (2012) implemented a needs-based evaluation of the EAP courses for pharmacy students in a private university in Bangladesh. The findings indicated that current EAP courses fall shortof meeting learners' needs and transferring acquired language skills effectively for academic and professional contexts. To improve these courses, it is recommended to integrate subject-specific materials and prioritize the development of writing and speaking

skills. These skills are crucial and challenging for students, requiring increased attention and focus. In a similar context to that of the present study, İlerten and Efeoğlu (2021) evaluated an ELT preparatory program in Turkish higher education in a longitudinal study.The results revealed that the program improved students' overall English proficiency, although several components required modifications and enhancements, including teachingfour skills in an isolated way, individualized learning, and technical facilities. In a Japanese higher education setting, Lesley (2022) carried out a longitudinal evaluation study on the Extensive Reading (ER) component of an Academic Skills (AS) course that transitioned from onsite to online education due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The results indicated that students achieved course goals in both formats, in relation to the course aspects such as word counts, vocabulary testing, reading speeds, and student feedback. However, improvements needed to be made to enhance the quality of discussions, providea wider range of reading materials, and increase student engagement in the ER Course. In the Malaysian higher education context, Zamin and Asraf (2017) implemented an EAP course evaluation study and found that students exhibited an overall positive attitudetowards the course, yet they raised concerns regarding the use of textbooks that were not directly applicable to their specific field of study.

While the studies reviewed above provide valuable insights into the effectiveness and implementation of entire EAP programs in general, there appears to be a paucity of research specifically focused on the evaluation of EAP reading courses. Indeed, in her examination of research in the field of EAP, Pehlivan (2016) stresses that the majority of published studies on EAP primarily concentrate on writing skills. While writing is an essential skill that learners need to acquire and master in their academic pursuits, it is equally imperative to investigate other skills such as reading more extensively and thoroughly to nurture a holistic growth of their academic English proficiency.

Having addressed the significance of course evaluation in an EAP course or program, examined the value of employing a qualitative and insider-focused research approach, and identified the research gap related to the assessment of EAP reading courses, this study aims to evaluate an EAP Reading Course within the English Language Preparatory Program at a Turkish state university. Doing so, it also seeks to ascertain the impact of the course, discover the degree to which it fulfills students' needs, and elicit student recommendations for improving the curriculum and instructional delivery. The following research questions have been formulated in alignment with these objectives:

1. How do students evaluate the effectiveness of the EAP Reading Course?
2. What suggestions do students have for the improvement of the course?

Methodology

Research Design and Publication Ethics

Within the qualitative paradigm that aims to explore individuals' perceptions, understandings, and opinions about a specific phenomenon, this study adopted a case study method. One of the key strengths of the case study method lies in its ability to conduct in-depth investigations of complex issues. This quality makes it particularly appropriate for qualitative research, as it allows for a deeper understanding of particular themes, programs,

policies, organizations, events, and activities that take place in society (Bhatta, 2018). It is also a type of study that takes place within a specific context, gradually developing over time and in real-world settings (Van Lier, 2005).

Furthermore, this research constitutes a program evaluation study that applies Owen's (1999) Interactive and Impact Evaluation Models to assess the course comprehensively. The Interactive Evaluation Model focuses on program improvement by addressing goals, progress, consistency, and effectiveness. On the other hand, the Impact Evaluation Model assesses the program's effects, addressing factors such as adherence, needs achievement, unintended outcomes, and cost-effectiveness. Aligned with the objectives of these evaluation models, the current study aims to facilitate a thorough evaluation and improvement of the course's process and outcomes.

This study was conducted by following the publication ethics, and the ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University-School of Graduate Studies with the meeting number 10/13 dated 03.08.2023. Before the focus group interview, the participants were informed about the purpose, duration, and data collection procedures of the study. Consequently, their informed consent was taken through a written form, and confidentiality was assured.

Context and Participants

The research was implemented at a Western Turkish university, in the English Language Preparatory Program (ELPP) within the School of Foreign Languages. The ELPP comprises two distinct programs based on students' majors: the General English Preparatory Program (GEPP), and the English Language Teaching - English Language and Literature Preparatory Program (ELL-ELT). This study focused on the latter program, which offers intensive yearlong EAP language courses at B2 and C1 levels to students admitted to the departments of English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature. The program offers four core courses: Listening and Speaking, Reading, Writing, and Advanced English Grammar. Its main objective is to equip learners with the necessary skills, knowledge, and confidence to meet the academic English demands and requirements of their respective departments upon completion of their studies.

The primary objectives of the Reading Course include improving general reading comprehension, facilitating reading fluency and speed, developing effective reading strategies, expanding academic vocabulary knowledge and usage, introducing different discourse structures and organizations, fostering critical thinking through reading, encouraging extensive reading, and increasing familiarity with academic genres. The course consists of four weekly hours dedicated to reading instruction. Formative assessment procedures include two quizzes, two midterms, and a performance grade. Additionally, students are assigned tasks like analyzing academic articles and novels and presenting short stories. The course materials comprise a course book along with supplementary resources. To facilitate the teaching and practice of the course content, a variety of digital tools are employed. Furthermore, a learning management system is utilized for assigning tasks, monitoring progress, sharing additional materials and resources, and maintaining communication with students.

As for the sampling approach, a purposeful and convenient sampling method was preferred as the participants of the study were the students enrolled in the target program,

and the researcher was also actively teaching courses at the research site during the study. Ten female and three male students out of a group of fifteen students volunteered to participate in a focus group interview held at the end of the academic year. The students' age varied between 18 and 21, and they were all native speakers of Turkish.

Data Collection and Analysis

A focus group interview was conducted in Turkish to gather data. Before the interview, the researcher had prepared an interview protocol including open-ended questions related to the course components such as the content, materials and resources, assessment procedures, reading skills and strategies, vocabulary learning, use of technology, the instructor, learner needs, and suggestions for improvement. The questions underwent face and content validity checks conducted by two ELT experts. Following the necessary revisions, the questions were used as a guideline during the interview to steer thediscussion. The interview, lasting approximately an hour, was recorded for transcription purposes to facilitate coding and analysis.

Initially, the data obtained from the focus group interview was transcribed, and then an inductive analysis was conducted. The participants' mentions were condensed into meaning units, leading to the identification of patterns, codes, and categories. These categories were further organized into broader themes. To ensure inter-coder reliability, two independent raters analyzed one-third of the data, and Cohen's kappa coefficient was calculated. The coefficient of .73 indicates substantial agreement, as interpreted by Landis and Koch (1977).

Results

The data analysis identified two main themes: students' insights into the Reading Course and students' suggestions for improvement. These findings are presented below, addressing each research question individually. The presentation includes additional categories and exemplar participant responses to provide further context and illustration.

Students' Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the EAP Reading Course

The analysis of the data yielded three broad themes in relation to the students' insights into the EAP Reading Course. The first theme is the strengths of the Reading Course, the second one is the technology-enhanced learning, and the third one is the instructor. The themes, categories, and sample responses are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Students' Perspectives on the Effectiveness of the EAP Reading Course

Theme	Category	Exemplar response	Mentioned by
	Contribution to skills improvement	The course provided exposure to a variety of sentence structures to enhance writing skills and improve our fluency in both writing and speaking.	P-12
Strengths of the Reading Course	Preparation for majors	The introduction to academic texts and the analysis of literary works will become beneficial as we start our studies within our respective departments.	P-1

	Content	The content was informative and practical.	P-7
	Critical thinking	In fact, I believe our discussions involved a greater degree of critical thinking than what was typically covered in the Reading Course.	P-5
Technology-enhanced learning	Preference for technology use in learning	Using technological tools makes learning more like a game and thus simplifies the process and makes it more memorable.	P-8
	Quizlet	Practicing the learned words through Quizlet with visual support has been very beneficial.	P-12
Instructor	Professional development	She is open to exploring different approaches for improvement, and I find it valuable that she fosters a supportive learning environment.	P-9
	Accessibility	The instructor was easily accessible.	All Ps

As seen in Table 1, the first theme, strengths of the Reading Course, emerged from categories such as contribution to skills improvement, preparation for majors, content, and critical thinking. One participant (P-5) noted that it significantly contributed to enhancing their general knowledge and vocabulary. Another participant (P-11) stated that the course provided exposure to a variety of sentence structures, improving their writing skills and fluency in both writing and speaking. It also helped them develop their ability to analyze and comprehend texts and promoted the learning of academic equivalents for familiar synonyms (P-8).

In terms of the second category, preparation for majors, the participants found the introduction to academic genres and the analysis of literary works, particularly beneficial. This is reflected in the following response:

"Activities like reviewing articles and analyzing novels are also very helpful, in my opinion. I believe they will be beneficial for us when we join our departments, especially since we have already encountered articles as a form of academic writing." (P-1)

The course content as the third category in this theme was highly appreciated by the participants. Especially, all the participants agreed on the usefulness of the classdiscussions about the reading texts covered in the class. Finally, the content topics covered were found informative and practical (P-7).

The last category within the first theme is critical thinking. It was seen that the reading instruction provided opportunities for the students to develop their critical thinking abilities through reading. This is evident from a participant's response:

"In fact, I believe our discussions involved a greater degree of critical thinking than what was typically covered in the Reading Course. I think you at least have room for it.We have talked more than we can in a reading class." (P-5)

In relation to the second theme, technology-enhanced learning, the participants expressed a preference for the use of technology in learning, highlighting that using technological tools like Quizlet, Kahoot, and Wordwall made the learning process more enjoyable through gamification and thus making it more straightforward and memorable. The impact of technology on learning was acknowledged, with its accessibility being a significant advantage. Lastly, the use of Quizlet, a digital tool for presentation and practice of target vocabulary items was positively received, as they found it fun and effective in making new words more memorable. Practicing learned words with visual support through Quizlet was also noted as highly beneficial, and they utilized Quizlet sets for vocabulary

practice and exam revision. Quotes highlighting the preference for technology use in learning, particularly Quizlet, are presented below:

"Technology has had a huge impact on the way we learn as it is always readily accessible." (P-11)

"Using Quizlet is quite fun and makes the new words more memorable." (P-5)

"We use the Quizlet sets to practice vocabulary and to revise for the exams." (P-11)

"Since we are constantly surrounded by technology, using it in our learning process can make things easier and more memorable. Gamification also makes our learning even more enjoyable. In my opinion, Quizlet is a much more useful tool than a traditional vocabulary book for improving vocabulary skills." (P-8).

The third and final theme that emerged from the analysis centers on the instructor. Particularly, two qualities of the instructor were highlighted by the participants: professional development and accessibility. First, the participants observed that the reading instructor demonstrated an openness to professional growth and actively sought students' perspectives on the course, fostering a supportive and conducive learning environment. This is exemplified in the following participant response:

"I think she is one of the few instructors who is open to exploring different approaches for improvement. I find it valuable that she fosters a supportive learning environment." (P-9)

The second category pertaining to the instructor is accessibility. The consensus among all participants was evident, as they unanimously agreed that the reading instructor was highly accessible. Several participants expressed their satisfaction with the instructor's promptness in responding to questions, both during and outside of class. Moreover, they conveyed a sense of comfort in approaching the instructor for inquiries. (P-6, P-11, P-13)

Students' Suggestions for Improving the Course

The analysis of the interview data revealed one main theme: students' suggestions for the improvement of the course, with five related categories: materials and resources, reading strategies, course duration, personalization of learning, and topic selection. Table 2 displays information about the findings of the second research question.

Table 2. Students' Suggestions for the Improvement of the Course

Theme	Category	Exemplar response	Mentioned by
Suggestions	Materials and resources	If the course content included literary works such as poems, short stories or readers, and academic texts related to education, there would be no need to rely mainly on a coursebook.	P-11
	Reading strategies	I feel like we did not spend enough time on reading strategies. We could have given it more attention and made some changes.	P-1
	Course duration	Four hours for the Reading Course is inadequate. For this reason, additional tasks can be assigned for independent work outside of class.	P-10

for improvement	Personalization learning	Suppose that there are several learning methods, and the student chooses the best one that suits their learning style and preferences. Each student's performance is then assessed based on their chosen method.	P-5
	Topic selection	As some topics in the book are about certain scientific and specific subjects, we may not discuss them comfortably. Thus, the topics should be relevant to current issues or subjects about which we can share our opinions easily.	P-13

The findings from the data analysis highlighted several suggestions for improving the course. The first group of suggestions centered on materials and resources. Participants expressed the opinion that incorporating short stories or novels, rather than relying heavily on the course book, would be more beneficial. They also noted that particular readings in the course book were uninteresting and suggested that including short stories, novellas, and poems in the curriculum would be preferable. They recommended assigning additional tasks to encourage extensive reading outside of class. As could be inferred from these suggestions, the participants were in demand of not depending mainly on the course book, but rather of using additional materials and resources like those of literary works and academic articles of their specific interests in and out of class, which could be inferred from the responses below:

"I think it could be more beneficial if we incorporated short stories or readers instead of relying solely on the texts in the course book." (P-3)

"As some readings were uninteresting, it could be better to cover short stories, novellas, and poems in the curriculum." (P-5)

"Additional tasks, such as extensive reading outside of class, could be assigned." (P-10)

Another suggestion put forward by the participants was related to the reading strategies. One participant (P-2) offered that more time could be allocated for discussing and analyzing the reading texts in class. Another participant also noted that the focus on reading strategies was not sufficient, and thus more attention should be directed to the use of reading strategies, which is indicated in the original response:

"I feel like we didn't spend enough time on reading strategies. We could have given it more attention and made some changes. If we had focused more on this aspect, it would have been beneficial for us." (P-1)

The third category in this theme was the course duration. One participant (P-8) suggested reducing the weekly hour dedicated to the Advanced Grammar Course while increasing the time dedicated to the Reading Course, reasoning that they had been learning and practicing grammar structures since they were in high school; as such, engaging in more reading activities would help them facilitate their reading skills. It was noted by another participant that the current class duration was inadequate, leading to a heavy reliance on the course book. Another participant (P-10) suggested that four hours for the Reading Course were insufficient and recommended assigning additional tasks for independent work outside of class. Only one participant (P-5) felt that the number of hours allocated for the Reading Course on a weekly basis was adequate. Some related quotes

from the participants below reflect these issues clearly: "It would be beneficial to reduce the number of hours dedicated to the Advanced Grammar Course and increase the time dedicated to the Reading Course." (P-8)

"The class duration is insufficient, and we require more time; that's why we usually depend heavily on the course book." (P-13)

The fourth category in this theme was related to the personalization of learning. This category emerged from the observation that the participants pointed out the importance of personalizing the learning process to suit individual learning styles and preferences. They also expressed a preference for being provided with a range of options for vocabulary learning, allowing students to choose the best method for themselves. Two participant responses, for example, reflect this category clearly:

"Suppose that there are several methods for learning, and the student chooses the best one that suits their learning style and preferences. Each student's performance is then assessed based on their chosen method." (P-5)

"You know, there are different ways to learn. Instead of assigning grades based solely on one aspect like vocabulary, students should have the responsibility to choose their preferred learning method. It would be beneficial to offer them a few options to select." (P-8)

Discussion

The findings of this study shed light on the impact of the EAP Reading Course from the students' perspective, highlighting their role as the primary stakeholders in the program. In addition, these findings help the researcher determine learner needs andexpectations, which are essential considerations for the future revision and enhancement ofthe curriculum and instruction.

To start with, regarding the impact of the course, the participants have mainly positive perspectives of the Reading Course on a range of issues. For instance, they acknowledge the several strong aspects of the course, including its contribution to skills improvement, preparation for their majors, the informative course content, and the improvement of critical thinking abilities. More specifically, they are mostly satisfied with the contribution that the course made to the improvement of their general knowledge, academic vocabulary, writing skills, and ability to analyze and comprehend texts. Besides, the extensive exposure to a variety of sentence structures and discourse organizations is perceived to have improved their writing skills and speaking fluency. Furthermore, they recognize the value of being exposed to diverse academic reading genres and engaging in the analysis of literary works, as these aspects are expected to provide benefits during their studies within their respective departments. In addition to their perspectives on the value of the course content as being informative and practical, they appreciate post-reading discussion sessions, stating their positive effect in fostering their ability to think critically. These results imply that most of the specified course objectives have been achieved in the course. To exemplify, improving general reading comprehension, expanding academic vocabulary knowledge and usage, fostering critical thinking through reading, and introducing different discourse structures and organizations are stated course objectives. Hence, the course can be regarded as effective in attaining most of its intended objectives. Although there is not an available study evaluating a tertiary-level EAP Reading Course

similar to the context of this study, the findings that Mutlu (2018) obtained indicate that the Main Course implemented in the English Language Preparatory Program at a Turkish university demonstrates overall effectiveness concerning the core aspects of the course, as reported by both the instructors and students. Similarly, Lesley (2022) states that student feedback regarding the components of an Extensive Reading (ER) course is generally positive. Zamin and Asraf (2017) also report that EAP students in their study have a positive attitude towards the program. However, Chowdhury and Haider (2012) note that EAP courses fall short of meeting the academic and professional language needs and expectations of pharmacy graduates at a Bangladeshi university. They recommend improving effectiveness and motivation and making the course content relevant and interesting.

The second aspect of the course found satisfactory by the participants is the integration of technology into their learning process. They explicitly show a preference for using technological tools in their learning process as they think such tools or applications help gamify learning and make it more memorable. They are especially content with the use of Quizlet, a digital tool allowing the teacher to present the target vocabulary items and provide interactive practice for learners. The tool can be used both as an in-class application and as a self-study resource. Anjaniputra and Salsabila (2018) also report that Quizlet has improved students' engagement and motivation in vocabulary learning at the tertiary level. Similar results have also been attained by other researchers about the benefits of using Quizlet for vocabulary learning (e.g., Dizon, 2016; Sanosi, 2018; Setiawan & Wiedarti, 2020).

The third aspect of the course appreciated by the participants is the course instructor. Two highlighted qualities of the instructor are commitment to professional development and accessibility, with a focus on promptness in responding to students' questions and inquiries.

As for the suggestions provided by the participants, they express a desire to go beyond depending solely on the course book throughout the term. Coinciding with this finding, Üstünel and Kaplan (2015) have discovered that the students hold a negative perception of the course book. To address this issue, they recommend carefully selecting, modifying, and developing instructional materials for the course that cater to the specific needs of the students. Likewise, Zamin and Asraf (2017) point to the necessity of involving reading materials and texts that relate to students' specific fields of study. Another suggestion for improvement is the provision of supplementary materials and resources, such as reading texts from different genres aligned with their personal interests. They also recommend the inclusion of more literary genres like short stories, novellas, and poems, as well as the integration of more digital tools into the course. A similar result has been obtained by Lesley (2022) in that there is a demand for a greater variety of texts to cater to different student preferences. İlerten and Efeoğlu (2021) also identify a lack of individualized learning opportunities in an ELT preparatory program, which calls for more personalized and tailored learning opportunities for students. Finally, the participants of the current study emphasize the importance of focusing on reading strategies more and suggest increasing the weekly hours dedicated to the Reading Course. Fathi and Afzali (2020) aptly suggest that EFL practitioners should integrate reading strategy instruction into their regular classrooms to enhance students' reading performance, ensuring that they

have received proper training on how to teach these strategies effectively. Par (2020) also highlights the importance of teaching students to employ reading strategies as the findings indicate that there is a significant relationship between overall reading strategy use and students' reading achievement.

Conclusion

The primary objective of this study is to assess the effectiveness of an EAP Reading Course offered within the English Language Preparatory Program at a stateuniversity in Türkiye. Additionally, the study aims to assess the degree to which students' needs are addressed and to gather student feedback on the content and implementation of the program curriculum. The findings from this study will provide valuable insights for revising and improving the curriculum and instructional approaches employed in the program.

First, regarding the impact of the course, the participants express predominantly positive views on various aspects of the Reading Course. The findings indicate that the EAP Reading Course is effective in achieving its intended goals, with participants recognizing its strengths and benefits, such as the potential of the course to prepare the students for their academic work in their majors, to foster their critical thinking abilities, improve reading skills, and transfer those skills to writing and speaking. In addition, the integration of technology into the learning process is well-received. Finally, the reading instructor is evaluated as being open to professional growth and being accessible to studentinquiries and questions.

In addition to identifying the satisfying aspects of the course on the part of the students, they provide valuable suggestions for course improvement. To exemplify, they emphasize the importance of incorporating supplementary materials and resources beyond the course book and the addition of more literary works into the syllabus to make the readings more engaging. They also need a more increased focus on reading strategies and being assigned more extensive reading activities. Finally, they indicate a preference for more personalized learning, giving them a choice for learning methods and selectingreading topics. These suggestions can be seen as a form of needs analysis, highlighting areas that require attention when redesigning future iterations of the EAP Reading Course. Additionally, such learner insights are crucial to be examined as they reflect the potential impact of local, cultural, and educational practices on students' expectations and their overall experiences within the EAP course. Incorporating the participants' feedback will contribute to a more tailored and impactful learning experience in the future.

Based on these results, a couple of recommendations might be provided for future instruction and research. Practitioners teaching EAP reading courses in this research site or elsewhere can benefit from the findings of this study when designing courses and revising curricula and instructional methods. For instance, as inferred from these results the participants believe that a reading class without a book can be effective as long as the materials are selected with care to improve language skills. This calls for teacher training on curriculum and course design so that practitioners can make more informed choices when designing the content, specifying course objectives, selecting or adapting materials and resources, deciding on assessment procedures and instructional methods, integrating technological tools, etc. Likewise, Brown (1995) emphasizes the significance of actively

engaging teachers in the process of curriculum design, as well as the crucial role played by continuous program evaluation that involves both summative and formative assessments. Furthermore, the significance of incorporating training for teaching EAP skills becomes evident. Indeed, Bruce (2017) suggests that while practitioners engage with EAP in higher education, it appears essential to support them through ongoing teacher education both in pre-service and in-service contexts. Instructors are also recommended to be more responsive to learner needs, expectations, and preferences in the learning and teaching process to enhance their learning experiences. Another recommendation might be to integrate technology into the curriculum more comprehensively as it is clearly shown that the current generation is not keen on traditional teaching methods and resources that have been utilized for decades in education and as technology is comparatively more accessible to them and an indispensable part of today's world. As Anjaniputra and Salsabila (2018) put forward, integrating technology into teaching provides an engaging and innovative learning approach that enhances students' overall learning experience and meets the needs of 21st-century learners. Furthermore, practitioners ought to focus on creating an engaging and supportive learning environment, using a variety of pedagogical approaches and tools of educational technology. Finally, yet importantly, they need to make course evaluationan integral and continuous part of their teaching and be willing to take action for improvement.

While this research provides valuable insights into the field of EAP, particularly academic reading, it also possesses certain limitations. Firstly, the qualitative approach taken in the design and implementation of the study and the small sample size typical in case studies hinder the generalizability of the findings. In addition, it would have been beneficial to employ an additional data collection technique, such as observation or learner journals, to complement the existing findings. Next, while the findings of this study might contribute to the growth of course evaluation research regarding EAP reading courses and serve as a model for the design and implementation of similar courses, it is important to note that the results are specific to the institution where the research was conducted. Furthermore, although it might be thought that the researcher's active involvement at the research site may have influenced the results, efforts were made to mitigate this influence by ensuring interrater reliability and being meticulous with the analysis and the discussion of the findings. On a positive note, practitioner research becomes particularly valuable when recognizing the significance of EAP practitioner development (Bruce, 2021).

Future research has the potential to examine the influence of technology-enhanced learning on various dimensions of EAP reading courses, including reading comprehension, reading fluency, critical thinking skills, and academic vocabulary development. In addition, there is a notable lack of course evaluation studies specifically targeting EAP reading skills; hence, more studies investigating EAP reading courses need to be undertaken to fill this gap. Additionally, the research design may encompass multiple sources of data collection and involve various participants. Finally, by conducting regular evaluation studies with diverse methodologies, future researchers can contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of EAP reading courses and inform various aspects of program implementation.

In conclusion, course evaluation studies focusing on insiders as primary stakeholders in the learning process might provide valuable benefits and insights as the

findings from similar studies point to a range of student needs, course strengths, and areas of improvement in EAP courses. Freeman and Dobbins (2013) aptly argue that, as educators, we have a responsibility to prioritize the enhancement of the learning experience for students, our own professional development, and the continuous improvement of our courses. To achieve these goals, it is crucial that the evaluation process foster active collaboration between students and educators.

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