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REVIEW ARTICLES

Dear Reader,

We are delighted to welcome you to the latest issue of our ELT Research Journal, which contains five excellent research papers. We hope this journal will contribute to research in ELT, and we invite you to submit your studies. Our vision is to create a high-quality publication relevant to the ELT world's academic researchers, graduate students, scholars, and teachers. The current issue presents research articles addressing a number of issues in the field of English Language Teaching. The first article by Kenan Acarol aims to develop a scale investigating the underlying causes for CRs made in the language learning process. The second paper by Çiğdem Fidan investigates the perspectives of ten English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers on the role of English in the global world and the English language education curriculum used in K-12 education in Turkiye. The third article by Mehmet Abi, Şeyda Selen Çimen and Şevki Kömür tries to uncover how literate prospective English teachers in language assessment, how they perceive their knowledge of language assessment, and how they apply their knowledge when developing language tests. The fourth article by Özlem Sarı and Ceylan Ersanlı synthesize findings from quasi-experimental studies carried out between 2017 and 2022 in terms of the connection between the use of mobile language learning applications and language learning outcomes. The fifth paper by Seçil Pesen reviews MALL studies based on the use of a mobile application to teach or learn English. We would like to thank once more all the researchers who have contributed to the current issue of the journal with their invaluable academic works. We would also like to thank all editors, co-editors and reviewers of the ELT-RJ for their voluntary contribution to the journal by managing the review process.

Best Regards,

Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL
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Examining the Causes Underlying Learners' Clarification Requests in EFL Context

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Abstract

For decades, Corrective Feedback (CF) has received considerable attention in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) and a wide scope of research has been conducted on this subject. Clarification Requests (CRs), one of the corrective feedback types, refers to a conversational strategy used when there is ambiguity or incomprehension. In the second language (L2) learning context, CRs is a highly neglected area that deserves due attention. In order to comprehend the reasons for learners' lack of apprehension encountered in the L2 learning process, more studies should be conducted in this area. This paper, therefore, aimed to develop a scale investigating the underlying causes for CRs made in the language learning process. After constituting the statements of the scale (which were based on students' written responses) a pilot study was performed with 100 preparatory classroom students in a public university in Alanya, Antalya, Turkey. After the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), the CRs scale was determined to have two essential factors (F1: language and learner-related factors, F2: concentration or motivation-related factors), consisting of 13 statements, each representing a different cause for CRs. To verify the findings obtained from the pilot study, the main study was conducted with the participation of 138 learners, and the factor structure of the developed scale was confirmed after the confirmatory factor analysis. Findings of this study have also shown that language-related factors (e.g., unknown vocabulary, lack of language proficiency) are the most common causes of CRs.

Keywords: Corrective feedback; Clarification requests; Ask for clarification

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Introduction

For a long time, there has been a growing amount of discussion on the sources of learners' mistakes and errors in the language learning process (Dulay & Burt, 1974). Even though the terms 'error' and 'mistake' appear identical at first glance, there is a fundamental distinction between these two terms. Errors show where a student's understanding is lacking; they arise when the learner is unsure about what is correct. Mistakes, on the other hand, designate rare failures in performance; they occur when the learner is unable to accomplish what he or she understands in a specific situation (Ellis, 1997). In a similar point of view, Corder (1967) claimed that a mistake is related to physical conditions e.g., fatigue, or to psychological conditions of the learners such as emotions, and an error is the result of a transitional competence in L2.

Learners' errors are a natural part of their language learning process; teachers, in this process, should expect and accept these mistakes from their students. There have been numerous debates throughout the years on whether or not students' mistakes should be corrected, when they should be corrected, and what kind of errors should be corrected (Burt, 1975; Pawlak, 2013). Dulay and Burt (1974), in this regard, denoted that errors do not indicate poor learning or the need for instructional intervention. On the other hand, according to Hendrickson (1978), correcting language learners' oral and written errors enhances their foreign language proficiency more than if the errors are left untreated. Looking at the categorization of learners' errors, Brown (2000) mentioned several error types in his book some of which were global errors which "hinder communication; they prevent the hearer from understanding some aspect of the message" and local errors, which do not prevent the message from being heard, usually because "there is just a slight violation of one segment of a phrase, enabling the hearer/reader to make an appropriate judgment about the intended meaning" (pp. 231-232). Therefore, he claimed that local errors usually do not need to be corrected, since the message is obvious and correction may interrupt the student's flow of speech.

The term, 'feedback' or more specifically, 'Corrective feedback (CF)', in the L2 context, refers to the responses given to students on linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language (L2) (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Feedback provided in either the oral or written form during the language learning process has been believed to facilitate this process and contribute to the development of learners' language proficiency

(Mackey, 2006). According to Lyster et al. (2013), CF is critical in the type of scaffolding that teachers must offer to individual students in order to support ongoing L2 improvement.

The comprehensive studies on corrective feedback in L2 learning have started with the definition and the categorization of different corrective feedback types employed in the teaching and learning process. Lyster & Ranta (1997), in this sense, listed the distinct types of corrective feedback in six categories in their study; explicit correction, recast, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. The latter studies conducted in this field have mostly incorporated the effectiveness of CF (Ellis et al., 2001; Li, 2010; Russell & Spada, 2006) and learner or teacher preferences or their attitudes towards CF (Yang, 2016; Yoshida, 2008). Despite the fact that there is much research on corrective feedback in the literature, there is no particular study focusing on clarification requests (hereafter CRs), which is one of the most common forms of corrective feedback. On the other hand, examining the underlying causes of learners' CRs in the language learning process is believed to contribute to a better understanding of the challenges and problems encountered in this process. Therefore, this research aims to investigate the potential causes of learners' CRs in the L2 setting by addressing the following research question.

What are the causes underlying learners' clarification requests in the language learning process?

Theoretical Framework

Corrective Feedback

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), corrective feedback (CF) has received a substantial amount of attention for decades. The term 'corrective feedback' refers to "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance" (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31). CF is the type of feedback that students receive when they make linguistic mistakes in their oral or written production in a foreign language learning process. According to Sheen (2004), corrective feedback is "an umbrella term that covers implicit and explicit negative feedback occurring in both natural conversational and instructional settings" (p. 264).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) listed the six types of main corrective feedback types, shown and explained in detail in the following table:

Table 1. Corrective Feedback Types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Corrective Feedback Type	Definition	Example
Explicit correction	the process of providing the learner with direct forms of feedback, explicitly stating that the learner's response is wrong (Carroll & Swain, 1993).	S: I am always wake up at 7. T: Not I am. You should say I always wake up at 7.
Recast	utterances in which one or more sentence components (such as subject, verb, or object) are changed while the essential meanings remain the same (Long, 1996).	S: There is an book in my bag. T: There is A book in my bag.
Clarification requests	using question forms such as "Pardon?", "I'm sorry?" in the situations where the learner's utterance is not fully understood (Suzuki, 2004).	S: Who do you travel with your friend? T: I'm sorry, what?
Metalinguistic feedback	provides either comment, facts, or questions on the well-formedness of the student's speech, but does not provide the right form directly (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).	S: I need to talk to he. T: He is a subject pronoun, you should use the object pronoun in this sentence.
Elicitation	a corrective technique that prompts the learner to self-correct (Panova & Lyster, 2002)	S: This meeting is very importanter. T: This meeting is very …? S: Important.
Repetition	a verbatim repetition of a student's statement, often with altered intonation to emphasize the mistake (Lyster et al., 2013).	S: I eated my cake! T: I EATED my cake? S: I ate my cake.

Many researchers have debated which sort of corrective feedback would be most effective in correcting learners' mistakes and promoting second or foreign language development up to this point. Regarding the effect of corrective feedback, studies generated in this field have revealed positive results in general, but different findings for the distribution of different forms of feedback and their effects on learning in different contexts have prevailed (Sheen, 2004).

Lyster and Ranta (1997), in their study, investigated the most common feedback types used during the teaching process. Prior to initializing their study, they listed six types of feedback; repetition, recast, elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, and explicit correction. Findings of their study have revealed that recast, as corrective feedback is the most common one, making up 55% of all other feedback types, followed by elicitation, (14%), clarification request (11%), metalinguistic feedback (%8), explicit correction (%7), repetition (%5).

Panova and Lyster (2002), in a similar study, examined the most frequent seven feedback types: recast, repetition, translation, elicitation, explicit correction, clarification request, and metalinguistic feedback. Recast and translation of learner mistakes were the most commonly utilized forms of feedback, with recasts accounting for more than half of all feedback turns. Recast, in total, accounted for 55% of the feedback moves, followed by translation technique (%22), clarification request (%11), metalinguistic feedback (%5), elicitation (%4), explicit correction (%2), repetition (%1).

Clarification Requests

The term clarification request (CRs) refers to a conversational strategy used when there is ambiguity or incomprehension. It is an interrogative utterance by which the speaker requests an explanation, confirmation, or repetition of a statement previously provided by the listener who was not fully comprehended (Cicognani & Zani, 1988).

A clarification request is intended to encourage reformulation or repetition from the student regarding the form of the student's ill-formed statement. This form of response typically demands clarification of the meaning as well. Clarification requests are utilized when problems with the form impact the comprehensibility of the utterance due to the students' low language proficiency level (Panova & Lyster, 2002).

It is essential to have the capacity to recognize and respond to listener input in order to operate in conversation and improve one's conversational skills. This growing awareness is visible in sequences in which the student provides repairs in response to indicators that a message was not comprehended. Participation in conversational repair sentences, therefore, is an essential aspect of the language learning process (Brinton et al., 1986).

During the conversation, CRs mainly occur in two forms: non-verbal and verbal forms. Using mimics or gestures to ask for clarification is the non-verbal form (Cherry,

1979). Clarification markers in a rising intonation (e.g. what?, hey?), repetition (partial, whole, or with expansion or syntactic reformulation) (Brown, 1968; Cherry, 1979; Corsaro, 1977; Langford, 1981; Robinson, 1984), interpretation (e.g. did you mean …?) (Moerk, 1977), and the statement of incomprehensibility (e.g. I did not understand) (Robinson, 1984) are the verbal forms used to ask for clarification in an ongoing conversation (Cicognani & Zani, 1988).

Table 2. Types of Clarification Requests

Types of CRs	Forms	Example
Non-verbal (Cherry, 1979).	gestures and mimics	S: what time … school? T: *tends his/her ear*
Verbal (Brown, 1968; Cherry, 1979; Corsaro, 1977; Langford, 1981; Moerk, 1977; Robinson, 1984).	clarification markers	S: my friends … question. T: What?
	repetition (partial)	S: I want the *mispronounces a word* T: Do you want what?
	repetition (whole)	S: I want to say the answer. T: Do you want to say the answer?
	repetition (with expansion or syntactic reformulation)	S: I … out? T: I want to go out?
	interpretation	S: I… answer … *looks puzzled* T: You do not know the answer?
	statement of incomprehensibility	S: What time … finish? T: I haven't understood.

Despite the fact that numerous research has focused on different forms of oral corrective feedback, clarification requests as part of oral corrective feedback has received little attention. To put it another way, there is not much research investigating the causes of learners' clarification requests during the foreign language learning process. In this regard, this study will be a pioneer for future research in this field as it deals with a subject that has not previously been addressed extensively.

Methodology

The current study is a scale development study employing a sequential exploratory mixed design in which the researcher explores qualitative data and applies it to the quantitative research dimension (Creswell, 2013).

This research aimed to develop a five-point Likert scale (from 1 to 5, indicating 1-never, 2-rarely, 3-sometimes, 4-usually, 5-always) whose each statement represents a different cause for CRs in order to understand the underlying causes of learners' CRs and to examine the most common causes of CRs in the foreign language process. The statements of the CRs scale were written with reference to the collected qualitative data, the CRs scale was later applied to the participants, and the quantitative data was collected and analyzed in the following phase.

This research is grounded on Long's interaction hypothesis which specifies that interactional processes improve second language acquisition because interaction connects "input, internal learner capacities, especially selective attention, and output in productive ways." (Long, 1996, pp. 451-452). Negotiating meaning and providing recasts are two helpful interactional techniques which might provide corrective feedback by letting learners know that their utterances were problematic. Modified output is another interactional process that can occur as a result of feedback (Mackey, 2006).

Research Context

The current research was conducted during the spring semester of 2021-2022 in a public university in Alanya, Antalya, Turkey, and the data were collected from engineering students, aged 18 to 21, living in Alanya, taking 25 hours of foreign language classes per week in the university's English preparatory program. The language proficiency levels of the participants are B1+ (Intermediate Plus) and B2 (Upper-Intermediate).

Qualitative data (students' written responses) were collected from 17 preparatory classroom students (f=2, m=15). The pilot study was conducted with the participation of 100 preparatory classroom students (f=30, m=70), and for the main study, 138 preparatory classroom students (f=46, m= 92) were involved.

Procedure

Prior to the data collecting procedure, after determining data collection tools to be utilized in this research, an application was filed to the Alanya University Ethics Committee to ensure that the research is ethically appropriate. Following clearance from the Ethics Committee (see Appendix A), data for this study were gathered from university preparatory class students at a public university in Alanya, Antalya, Turkey, during the spring semester of 2021-2022.

Participants were informed about the research before the data collection, and it was emphasized that participation in the study was entirely voluntary and the data for this research would not be used for any other purposes without the participants' permission. The researcher also reflected that participants might quit whenever they wanted and that the research results would be shared with them if they so desired.

To create the statements (items) of the CRs scale, written responses of 17 university preparatory classroom students regarding the causes of CRs they made during the learning process were collected and analyzed with the content analysis method. Subsequent to the qualitative data collection process, 20 items, each representing a different cause of CRs, were written for the CRs scale and expert opinion was taken from two specialists working in the field of educational sciences and foreign language education. With regard to their comments, a few minor changes were made on the prepared items and the scale was piloted with the participation of 100 university preparatory classroom students, to see the factor structure of the CRs scale.

After the pilot study was conducted and performed, 7 items, which were determined to have lower reliability value, were excluded from the CRs scale after item analysis and factor analysis were performed. Thus, it was determined that the CRs scale would consist of two factors embracing 13 statements. To verify the findings obtained from the pilot study, the main study was conducted with the participation of 138 university preparatory classroom students, and the factor structure of the CRs scale was confirmed in the main study.

Data Collection Tools

Students' Written Responses

To comprehend the causes underlying CRs and to generate the statements of the CRs scale based on their responses, , learners were requested to think and write about the causes of the clarification requests they made during the learning process. In this regard, the participants were given thirty minutes to complete the task, with no word constraints for the written responses.

Clarification Request Scale

In order to investigate the causes underlying learners' clarification requests, the CRs scale (which initially encapsulated 20 statements, each representing a different cause for CRs

that were based on the written responses of 17 participants) was formed and piloted before the actual study with the participation of 100 students. After the data collection process for the pilot study, exploratory factor analysis was performed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences v. 21) program to see the factor structure of the developed scale. After the exploratory factor analysis, the CRs scale was determined to have a two-factor structure (F1: language and learner-related factors, F2: concentration or motivation-related factors), consisting of 13 statements. To determine the reliability value of the developed scale, Cronbach's Alpha value was calculated and was found to be .844, indicating that the CRs scale is highly reliable (Cortina, 1993).

Having determined that the prepared questionnaire was applicable and reliable enough, the actual study was performed with the participation of 138 students, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using LISREL (Linear Structural Relations), a statistical program package particularly designed to estimate structural equation models (SEMs), to verify the factor structure of the developed scale. The findings of the confirmatory factor analysis have confirmed the factor structure of the CRs scale.

Results

During the development of the CRs scale, the written responses of the 17 student volunteers corresponding to the causes of the clarification requests they made during the learning process were gathered to form the statements (items) of the scale. The collected responses were then analyzed with the content analysis method. The following table illustrates the content analysis results of students' written responses, including related codes and themes/categories.

Table 3. Content Analysis Results of Written Responses

Themes/Categories	Code(s)	Frequency / Participant(s)
unknown vocabulary	vocabulary	6 (S1, S3, S8, S10, S11, S12)
	word	3 (S1, S4, S16)
	familiar	2 (S1, S16)
the lack of language proficiency	language	2 (S6, S8)
	difficulties	1 (S6)
ask for simplification/examples	simple	1 (S1)
	example	1 (S1)
complicated materials/tasks	material	2 (S10, S14)
	activities	2 (S2, S14)
learning anxiety	anxiety	1 (S15)

complicated instruction	instruction	2 (S11, S13)
	complex	1 (S13)
concentration problems	focus	2 (S2, S15)
	attention	2 (S2, S6)
	concentration	1 (S7)
the lack of motivation	motivated	1 (S5)
the lack of interest	interest	2 (S4, S17)
teacher's pronunciation	pronunciation	1 (S4)
activity instruction mismatch	inconsistency	1 (S7)
distractors	distractors	1 (S3)
	behaviors	1 (S3)
the lack of listening practice	listening	2 (S9, S17)
	practice	2 (S9, S17)
negative experiences	experience	1 (S15)

For some participants, the lack of vocabulary or unknown words used in the instruction given by teachers to learners during the teaching process was considered as the most common causes of CR.

> I think the reason why instruction is not understood is the lack of vocabulary. I can understand better when simple and familiar words are used. (S1)

> The lack of vocabulary that I have is the biggest factor in my inability to understand the given instructions. (S3)

The lack of language proficiency, inability to master the grammar rules properly, and problems understanding the sentence forms are among the causes of CRs.

> […] Sometimes I have difficulties in understanding when I am not good at the target language. (S6)

> In my opinion, the lack of language proficiency may result in poor understanding of the given instructions. (S8)

Some participants stated that during the learning process, they intentionally make CRs so that their instructors make simplifications or give extra examples about the given instruction.

> Sometimes I think that expressing the instruction in a simpler way or supporting it with examples will make it easier for me to understand the instruction given. (S1)

The difficulty of the task or the material used in the teaching process were considered as one of the causes of CRs.

> The complexity of the materials used in the lessons or the use of incorrect resources that are not suitable for the level of the student can sometimes cause the student not to understand the instruction given. (S10)

> […] We may experience problems because the instructions used in the course materials or activities are complex or are above the student's level. (S14)

Some of the students expressed that the learning anxiety that they have may sometimes cause them not to understand the given instruction.

> The reason we don't understand the given instructions can sometimes be due to […] the anxiety we have. (S15)

For some learners, the language used to give an instruction which includes long and complex structured sentences that learners are unfamiliar with are one of the causes of CR.

> Sometimes the complexity of the activity or the instruction given for that activity can make it difficult for me to understand. (S11)

> Sometimes I find it difficult to understand because the instructions given during the lesson are either so long or so complex to understand. (S13)

For some participants, not concentrating enough on the lesson causes them to make CRs.

> Sometimes I have difficulty understanding the instruction given because I cannot focus enough on the lesson or do not pay attention properly. (S2)

> Due to the lack of attention, I can miss some important points, which causes the instruction given to be poorly understood by me. (S6)

The lack of motivation, or interest, according to some participants, seemed to be the other cause of CRs.

> As I am not motivated enough to learn, I may not understand the instructions given at times. (S5)

> Sometimes there may be some points that I don't understand because I lost interest in the lesson. (S4)

The fact that the topic does not attract enough attention, or not appealing enough for the learners are among the main factors. (S17)

Interestingly, for one of the participants, the teacher's pronunciation may cause learners to do CRs.

The fact that the teacher uses a word whose pronunciation I am not familiar with during the instruction-giving process can make it difficult for me to understand. (S4)

A participant expressed that the inconsistency between the given instruction and the task may cause CRs.

Sometimes the inconsistency between the instruction given and the activity may prevent me from participating in the activity. (S7)

Distractors are among the other causes of CRs, for some participants.

Sometimes I have problems understanding the instruction given due to the behavior of my friends in the classroom or some distracting factors. (S3)

Some participants claimed that a lack of listening practice makes it difficult to comprehend the instructions given to them.

Because we do not practice listening enough, we may have difficulty understanding the instructions given. (S9)

Finally, for some of the participants, negative experiences that they had during the language learning process in the past had an impact on their understanding.

The reason we don't understand the given instructions can sometimes be due to negative experiences we have had in the past […]. (S15)

Upon analyzing the students' written responses, 20 statements, each representing a different cause for CRs, were written by the researcher. The prepared scale's content validity was confirmed by consulting two specialists in the fields of foreign language education and educational sciences. After which, in order to determine its reliability and validity, the pre-application of the prepared scale form was performed with 100 participants, which was five times the number of items on the scale. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), when developing a Likert-type scale, the number of participants in the pilot study should be at least five times the number of items on the scale, indicating that this ratio can provide appropriate

estimates, and the studies including participants less than this number may yield suspicious results.

After collecting data for the pilot study, validity and reliability analyses were performed respectively. In this sense, item analysis was initially performed. According to Ferketich (1991), if the item correlation value is less than 0.30, the item may not be related to the problem being measured. Therefore, 7 items, with a corrected item-total correlation lower than 0.30, were excluded from the scale for the current study. The following table illustrates the analysis results of the remaining 13 items.

Table 4. Item Analysis Results of the CRs Scale

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Teacher's pronunciation	28.8900	64.665	0.430	0.369	0.837
Lack of listening practice	28.0200	60.101	0.520	0.396	0.832
Lack of proficiency	27.8900	61.574	0.559	0.396	0.829
Complicated materials/tasks	28.9400	60.804	0.639	0.496	0.824
Learning anxiety	28.3500	61.583	0.474	0.352	0.835
Complicated instruction	28.4800	63.202	0.560	0.444	0.830
Unknown vocabulary	27.6000	63.859	0.478	0.308	0.834
Negative experiences	28.5900	60.002	0.516	0.313	0.832
Activity instruction mismatch	29.1000	66.576	0.398	0.362	0.839
Concentration problems	28.3800	60.117	0.574	0.572	0.827
Distractors	28.6700	64.203	0.450	0.444	0.836
Lack of interest	28.6000	66.101	0.315	0.283	0.844
Lack of motivation	28.4500	61.038	0.553	0.478	0.829
Cronbach's Alpha = 0.844					

Following that, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), used to assess the sampling adequacy of the collected data, and Bartlett's test were performed to determine if the data gathered within the scope of the current research were adequate for factor analysis. The fact that the KMO value is larger than 0.60 implies that the data is suitable for the factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974).

Table 5. KMO-Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.817
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square ($\chi2$)	399.457
	df	78
	Sig. (p)	0.000

The KMO value was determined to be significant at 0.817>0.60 level, and the Bartlett Sphericity Test result was found to be significant at p<0.01 level. These values indicate that the sample size is appropriate for factor analysis and that the data came from a multivariate normal distribution (Kaiser, 1974).

After determining that the data was suitable, exploratory factor analysis was performed and it was thus determined that the CRs scale consisted of 13 items and 2 factors that explain 47,580% of the total variance; they were also free from the overlapping items as shown in the following table.
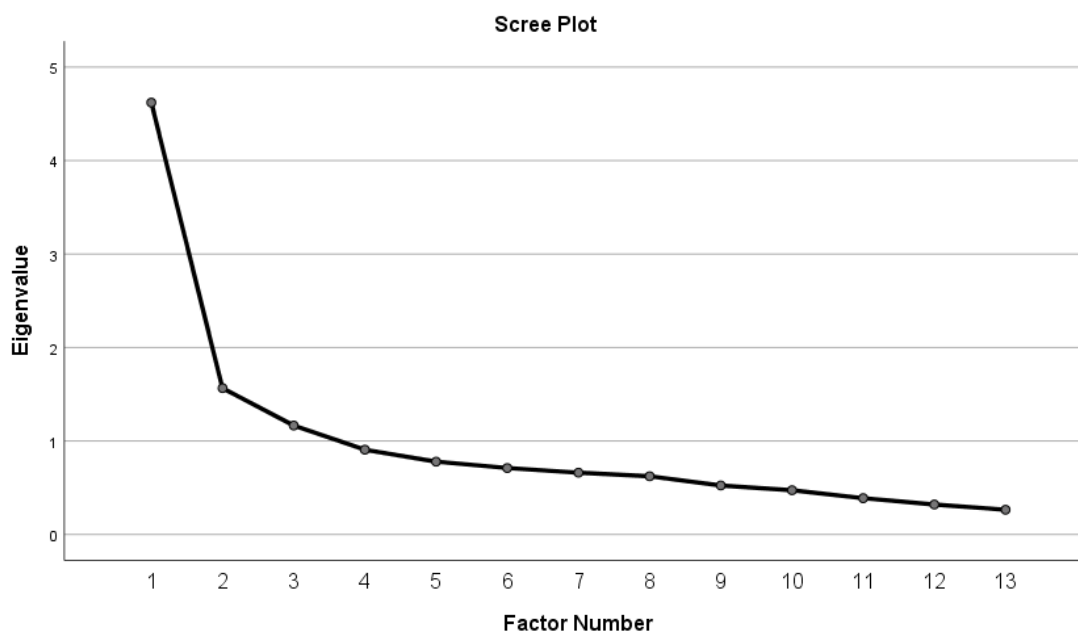
Figure 1. *Scree plot of CRs Scale*

The scale's common factor load values were examined, and it was revealed that the load values ranged from .387 to 911, with no overlap between factor loads. The Cronbach's Alpha values of two factors were found .817 and .715 respectively, indicating that the reliability values of the factors are within the acceptable level (Cortina, 1993).

Table 6. Factor Loadings of Items

Number	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Reliability
1	Teacher's pronunciation	.712		
2	Lack of listening practice	.671		
3	Lack of proficiency	.622		
4	Complicated materials/tasks	.578		.817
5	Learning anxiety	.556		
6	Complicated instruction	.552		
7	Unknown vocabulary	.494		
8	Negative experiences	.450		
9	Activity instruction mismatch	.387		
10	Concentration problems		.911	
11	Distractors		.614	.715
12	Lack of interest		.557	
13	Lack of motivation		.460	

Having performed exploratory factor analysis, the items under each factor were examined and the first factor, therefore, was named "Language and learner-related factors", while the second one was named "Concentration or motivation-related factors".

Following that, to verify the findings obtained from the pilot study, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed. Considering the fact that the scale should be applied to at least 'ten times' more participants than the number of items (13) on the scale, the main study was conducted with the participation of 138 students, which represents the required sample size for factor analysis (Kline, 2005). The path diagram and the goodness of fit index values of the scale obtained after the confirmatory analysis have indicated in the following figure.

Chi-Square=69.05, df=57, P-value=0.13155, RMSEA=0.039
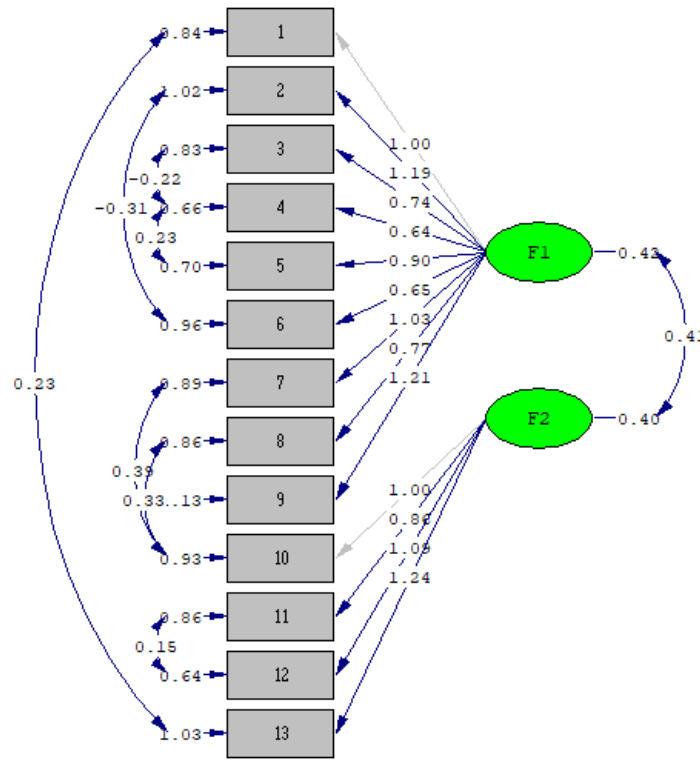
Figure 2. *CRs Scale Path Diagram*

Table 7.The Goodness of Fix Index of CRs Scale

x²/df	p	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	AGFI	NNFI	NFI	RMR	SRMR
1.211	0.000	0.039	0.99	0.93	0.89	0.99	0.94	0.070	0.058

The reported goodness of fit indices must be within acceptable limits for a model to be accepted as a whole (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). The fit indices obtained as a consequence of CFA were found to be within acceptable or perfect fit indices, demonstrating that these findings confirm the previously described factor structure.

After the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), in order to investigate the most common and the least common factors underlying learners' requests for clarification, the CRs scale was applied to those students who participated in the main study.

Before the application of the developed scale, learners were asked about the frequency of CRs they made during the language learning process and their preferences concerning the language to be used in the clarification.

The following table, therefore, contains related information.

Table 8. The frequency of CRs made by learners

	Frequency	**Percent (%)**
Never	10	7.2
Rarely	57	41.3
Sometimes	39	28.3
Often	16	11.6
Always	16	11.6
Total	138	100

The participants stated that they employ CRs as an oral corrective feedback technique mostly rarely (41.3%) and sometimes (28.3%).

Table 9. Preferences of learners for the language to be used in the clarification

	Frequency	**Percent (%)**
Native language (totally)	3	2.2
Target language (totally)	34	24.6
Target language (mostly)	89	64.5
Native language (mostly)	12	8.7
Total	138	100

The table above has shown that during the language learning process, learners tend to receive feedback mostly (64.5 %) or totally (24.6%) in the target language.

Following that, the causes of CRs were investigated by means of the developed scale and the most common to least common causes of CRs were shown in the following table.

Table 10. The most and the least common causes of CR.

N	**Causes of CR**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
1	Unknown vocabulary	3.2174	1.03048
2	Lack of proficiency	3.1159	1.12095
3	Lack of listening practice	2.7464	1.28473
4	Learning anxiety	2.5000	1.26866
5	Concentration problems	2.4420	1.16530
6	Complicated instruction	2.3768	1.01954
7	Lack of interest	2.3551	1.15765
8	Negative experiences	2.2246	1.31814
9	Distractors	2.2246	1.05345
10	Lack of motivation	2.0870	1.06352
11	Teacher's pronunciation	1.9783	1.07708
12	Complicated materials/tasks	1.8913	1.05806
13	Activity-instruction mismatch	1.7391	0.90662

Examining the table above, it can be inferred that language-related reasons i.e., unknown vocabulary, the lack of language proficiency, or practice come at the top of the CRs

made by the learners during the foreign language learning process. Material or task-related tasks, on the other hand, were considered as the least common causes of CRs.

Conclusion

In this investigation, the aim was to examine the potential causes underlying L2 learners' clarification requests and, accordingly, to develop a scale, which can be helpful in apprehending the most common and the least common causes of CRs in the language learning process. In this regard, written responses of university preparatory classroom learners studying in a state university in Turkey were gathered and analyzed to generate the items (statements) of the intended scale.

Having collected the data, the CRs scale, enclosing 20 statements, each representing a different cause for CRs, was formed and a pilot study was conducted to assess the reliability and the validity of the scale. In this sense, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), with the participation of 100 students, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), with the participation of 138 students, were performed respectively, and the CRs scale was determined to have two main factors; F1: language and learner-related factors, F2: concentration or motivation-related factors, consisting of 13 statements.

The application of the CRs scale revealed insightful findings embodying the prevalence of language-related factors as the primary drivers of CRs among learners. Factors such as unknown vocabulary, lack of proficiency, and insufficient listening practice emerged as key challenges faced by learners in their language learning journey. Teachers' pronunciation, complicated materials or tasks, and activity-instruction mismatch were perceived by the participants as the least common causes for CRs.

Overall, this study contributes to the ongoing discourse on corrective feedback in language learning by offering a nuanced understanding of the factors influencing learners' clarification requests. By addressing these factors in instructional planning and feedback provision, educators can create more supportive and conducive learning environments for L2 learners.

Limitations and Suggestions

Findings of the current study indicated that language and learner-related factors, as well as concentration or motivation-related factors, are the primary causes of CRs. However,

due to differences in educational systems or among individuals, the findings of this study may not be applicable in other situations. As a result, further research in various contexts, encompassing larger sample sizes, or the use of alternative data collection tools, may be required to fully understand the causes of CRs. Such extensive research would be extremely beneficial in better understanding this issue and increasing the quality of education in the language learning context.

The Conflict of Interest Statement

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

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The Research and Publication Ethics Statement

Data collection for this study was initiated after obtaining the ethical approval from the University's Social and Humanities Ethics Committee on 27.04.2022 with the reference number 2022/18.

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APPENDICES

A- *Clarification Requests (CRs) Scale (Turkish Version)*

Derste verilen talimatları (yönergeleri) anlamama sebebim...		asla	nadiren	bazen	sık sık	her zaman
1	… öğretmenimin telaffuzuna aşina olmamamdan dolayıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2	… yeterince dinleme pratiği (listening practice) yapmamış olmamdan kaynaklanmaktadır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3	… İngilizce dil yeterliğimden (İngilizcemin yeterli olmamasından) kaynaklanmaktadır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4	… derste kullanılan materyallerin ya da aktivitenin karmaşık olmasından dolayıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5	… dil öğretim sürecinde sahip olduğum endişeden dolayıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6	… verilen talimatların (yönergelerin) karmaşık dil yapısı içermesinden dolayıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7	… kurulan cümle içerisindeki ilgili kelimeyi bilmiyor oluşumdandır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8	… geçmişte dil öğrenme sürecinde yaşadığım olumsuz deneyimlerden kaynaklanmaktadır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9	… aktivite ile verilen talimatın (yönergenin) uyumsuz olmasından dolayıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10	… yaşadığım odaklanma probleminden kaynaklanmaktadır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11	… ders esnasında dikkatimi dağıtan etkenlerden dolayıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12	… derse ya da konuya karşı ilgisiz olmamdan kaynaklanmaktadır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13	… dil öğrenme sürecinde sahip olduğum motivasyon eksikliğinden kaynaklanmaktadır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

B- Clarification Requests (CRs) Scale (English Version)

The reason why I don't understand the instructions given in the lesson is …		never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
1	… because I am not familiar with my teacher's pronunciation.	1	2	3	4	5
2	… due to the fact that I have not done enough listening practice.	1	2	3	4	5
3	… due to my foreign language proficiency.	1	2	3	4	5
4	… due to the complexity of the materials or activity used in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
5	… because of the anxiety I have in the language learning process.	1	2	3	4	5
6	… because the given instructions contain a complex language structure.	1	2	3	4	5
7	… because I do not know the related word used in the given instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
8	… because of the negative experiences I have had in the language learning process in the past.	1	2	3	4	5
9	… because of the mismatch between given instruction and the activity.	1	2	3	4	5
10	… because of my concentration problem.	1	2	3	4	5
11	… because of the factors that distract me during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
12	… because I am not interested in the lesson or the subject.	1	2	3	4	5
13	… due to the lack of motivation I have in the language learning process.	1	2	3	4	5

English Language Education in Türkiye: Is It Enough to Survive in Globalization?

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Abstract

Globalization influences technology, economy, identity, culture, and language. While some communities adapt to globalization and its language, English, other communities struggle to keep their locality in globalization and consider the language of globalization as a threat to local cultures and languages. However, the goal of many communities in the global world is to learn and teach English as an international language to survive globalization. Based on the theories of globalization and Bourdieu's forms of capital, this study employs interviews to investigate the perspectives of ten English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers on the role of English in the global world and the English language education curriculum used in K-12 education in Türkiye. Results of the content analysis revealed that the participants consider English to be the language of globalization and a tool necessary to access resources in the global world. However, participants do not find the curriculum in Türkiye goal-oriented to present English as an international language and a linguistic tool providing access to different forms of capital available in globalization.

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English Language Education in Türkiye

Communities use English language education to integrate students and teachers into globalization and what their suggestions are for English as a foreign and second language (EFL) education (Council of Europe, 2020). In Türkiye, English is the first foreign language taught at the K-12 level and is compulsory in the second grade of primary school. The country's EFL curriculum is based on a communicative approach and student-centered learning (Kirkgoz, 2020; MEB, 2018; Yalcin & Demir, 2023). Since 2018, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) has been adopted in EFL education, which is grounded in an action-oriented approach, learner autonomy, self-assessment, and cultural diversity by bringing real-world tasks in teaching languages (Council of Europe, 2020: MEB, 2018). Based on the CEFR, the EFL curriculum in Türkiye aims to bring authentic materials related to students' daily lives into EFL classrooms to create meaningful learning contexts and by not only focusing on grammatical structures and linguistic functions of the language (Güneş & Taş, 2023; MEB, 2018).

However, because of discrepancies between education policies and pedagogy, short-term foreign language education policies, course materials, limited in-service teacher training, and crowded classrooms, EFL teachers often have to use grammar-translation method in teaching English to K-12 students (Aksoy, 2020; Güneş & Taş, 2023; Yalcin & Demir, 2023). Therefore, when graduating, K-12 students in the country often cannot communicate in English; thus, they cannot access various forms of capital available in globalization (Bourdieu, 1991; Bildik & Altun, 2022).

In addition, in Türkiye, the English language education curriculum does not explicitly define English as a global language and a tool to access globalization. The country's research studies also reveal contradictions between the ultimate goals of the EFL curriculum in Türkiye and its application at the K-12 level (Kirkgöz, 2020). Moreover, there is a shortage of research to explore to what extent the EFL curriculum in Türkiye presents English as the language of globalization, guides EFL teachers in the country in teaching English as a linguistic tool to access resources available in the global world and helps EFL learners be global citizens. Thus, based on the theories of globalization and Bourdieu's forms of capital, this study explores:

● What are K-12 EFL teachers' perspectives on linguistic globalization and the role of English as a global language?

●   To what extent does the EFL curriculum in Türkiye allow K-12 EFL teachers to teach English as a global language?

●   What are K-12 EFL teachers' suggestions for teaching English as a tool to access different forms of capital available in the global world?

Understanding Globalization to Shape English Language Education

Globalization is a process that (which) influences technology, economy, identity, culture, and language (Beck, 2018). Researchers define globalization as either a power to develop or a threat to local communities, cultures, and languages (Blommaert, 2010). For example, while some researchers define globalization as "the core of modern culture" (Chirimbu, 2011, p.657), other researchers emphasize that globalization is a kind of "Americanization" (Kubota, 2002, p.13).

Globalization affects communities differently because each community has its culture, identity, and language (Babaci-Wilhite, 2015). Some communities can adapt to globalization. However, communities often need help to keep their locality in globalization. The effort to stay local is not only for culture and identity but also for language. Communities are often eager to learn the current language of globalization, English (Özerk, 2013). However, some communities consider the language of globalization to threaten their local cultures and languages (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012). However, whatever the perceptions and expectations of communities on the language of globalization are, many communities aim to learn and teach English as the language of globalization to survive in globalization itself.

In the global world, an interaction across cultures, economy, politics, and languages between international and local communities is inevitable (Coupland, 2013). Since globalization is a broad area with all its dimensions as "a significant dimension of globalization" (Sonntag, 2003, p.121), this paper focuses on linguistic globalization, which is defined as English as a global language (Blommaert, 2010). Linguistic globalization is defined as "a reality" and "a possibility" (Sonntag, 2003) to use English as a global language as a "linguistic gate" (Shahed, 2013) to access different forms of capital available in the world. That is, English as a global language is a linguistic capital (i.e., ability to use a language in a particular context) to help individuals access the source of cultural capital (i.e., forms of knowledge, education, skills), social capital (i.e., being recognized and valued in a

society), economic capital (i.e., having a job in the international market), and symbolic capital (i.e., status or prestige) (Bourdieu, 1991; Shohamy, 2012).

Perspectives on English as a Global Language

The demand to be able to communicate in the global world makes English a tool to be used in globalization, which makes English an international language (Ryan, 2006). In the global world, English is used to access the products of globalization, such as information, knowledge, technology, economy, and communication. Thus, it is not surprising that the number of English speakers or learners as a second or foreign language is greater than the number of native English speakers around the world (Sinagatullin, 2009).

Considering English's prominence in globalization, it is inevitable for communities from different cultural backgrounds to have varied perceptions of English as a global language. On the one hand, some countries criticize English as a global language and its adverse effects on local languages, cultures, ideologies, and cultural identities (Ashraf et al., 2013; Gao, 2014; Yeh, 2013). On the other hand, some countries (e.g., Australia, India, and Bangladesh) perceive English as a linguistic tool for global communication to access global information, economy, communication, education, cultures, and languages (Davis, 2009; Kachru, 1992).

Similarly, some researchers support teaching English as a global language despite their perspective on English as part of linguistic imperialism. These researchers emphasize teaching English as a global language by integrating other cultures and languages in English language classrooms. To exemplify, Gao (2014) suggests accepting English as a global language and teaching English at schools by integrating various cultures in which it is spoken. Similarly, examining Taiwanese English language learners, Yeh (2013) also suggests learning world Englishes instead of teaching learners only standard British or American English, which, as Yeh (2013) states, makes EFL learners "less confident" and causes learners to have "uncertain identities" (p. 338). Finally, focusing on the relation between English as a global language and identity in South Korea, Sung and Park (2011) criticize English as "an emotional and financial burden on South Koreans" (p.2) and suggest teaching and learning World Englishes instead of standard British or American English in education.

To sum up, despite recognizing English as a global language to communicate and trade globally, some communities are criticizing English as a threat to local cultures,

identities, and languages. Two of the reasons to perceive English as a threat are, first, the belief that teaching and learning English may undervalue local languages and cultures, which in turn affect cultural and individual identities; second, recognizing English not as a global language but as a language of certain countries where English is used as a native language.

English Language Education Curriculum Used in Globalization

To teach EFL in globalization, it is essential to be able to present English as a tool to access resources that globalization presents (Bildik & Altun, 2022; OECD, 2020). To this end, in foreign language education, global issue-based curriculum (Omidvar & Sukumar, 2013), internationalized curriculum (Whitsed & Wright, 2013), learner-centered curriculum (de Segovia & Hardison, 2009), and technology-based curriculum (Menard-Warwick et al., 2013) have been designed and used in different countries. For example, through a global issue-based curriculum, global issues, such as globalization, poverty, environment, human and animal rights, and peace, are exercised in English language education classrooms to raise awareness of learners towards issues in globalization through English as a global language (Omidvar & Sukumar, 2013). Thus, English language learners are expected to relate global problems to their local culture, which aims to "promote tolerance and appreciation of different beliefs, cultures and backgrounds" (Omidvar & Sukumar, 2013, p.155).

Internationalized curriculum is also used in English language education to help learners "develop global perspectives, cultural independence, and achieve global competence" (Whitsed & Wright, 2013, p. 228). By integrating international topics into English language education, English is aimed to be taught beyond teaching a language but to involve a global community. Similarly, a learner-centered, global-issue-focused curriculum is applied in English language education primarily to raise learners' awareness of the importance of English as a global language (de Segovia & Hardison, 2009). A learner-centered curriculum "provides learners with more autonomy to cope with the dynamic process of globalization" (de Segovia & Hardison, 2009, p.155). Finally, technology-integrated English language education is suggested to foster intercultural awareness and provide opportunities for English language learners and teachers, especially for those who do not have a chance to travel abroad (Menard-Warwick et al., 2013). Therefore, designing curricula that integrate global issues and international cultural awareness is necessary for English language education to help English language learners use English as a linguistic tool to adapt to globalization and access various resources that globalization offers.

Method

Participants

Ten English language teachers working at the K-12 level in Türkiye were recruited as participants in the study. Research participants were selected based on their willingness and availability to be recruited for the study and their perspectives on English as the global language (Creswell, 2005). In selecting and recruiting the participants for the study, snowball sampling was first used to invite EFL teachers to the study. Second, for convenience sampling, a survey was applied to select EFL teachers working at the K-12 level who perceived English as a global language. In connection with the survey analysis, ten EFL teachers were recruited for the study (see Table 1).

Table 1. Profiles of the Participants

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	School (K-12)	Years of Experience
P1	Male	45	Middle school EFL teacher	12
P2	Female	32	High school EFL teacher	19
P3	Female	29	High school EFL teacher	8
P4	Male	38	Middle school EFL teacher	8
P5	Female	36	Primary school EFL teacher	10
P6	Male	43	Primary school EFL teacher	13
P7	Female	32	Primary school EFL teacher	6
P8	Male	34	Middle school EFL teacher	15
P9	Male	30	Primary school EFL teacher	9
P10	Female	30	High school EFL teacher	10

Data Collection Tools

The study adopts a qualitative approach. Semi-structured interviews were used as data sources. In pursuit of approval from the institutional review board, interviews were conducted with ten EFL teachers in Turkish and in the schools where the participants work. The interviews were audio-recorded and lasted between 60-90 minutes. The interview questions incorporated 1) the EFL teachers' perspectives on the role of English as a global language in the global world, 2) the curriculum and course materials used in EFL education in Türkiye, and to what extent these documents reflect English as the language of globalization, and 3) suggestions for teaching English as a global language at the K-12 level in Türkiye.

Data Analysis

Content analysis was applied to analyze the interview data (Krippendorff, 2018). First, data were read systematically, and line-by-line open coding was applied to identify specific concepts and codes. In pursuit of reaching code saturation with the repetition of similar codes, the initial codes were grouped and categorized. Considering the study's research questions, the codes were read multiple times to decide on themes (Creswell, 2005). Finally, three themes were decided upon through selective coding and presented as the study's findings. In data analysis, pen and paper, as well as mind-mapping software, were used. In addition, an independent researcher was requested to analyze a certain amount of data for validation. Inter-rater reliability was calculated by dividing the total number of agreements by the sum of the total number of disagreements on the codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As a result, 84% agreement was reached between the researcher and the independent co-rater.

Findings

EFL Teachers' Perspectives on English as the Language of Globalization

All participants perceive English as the language of the global world, not the language of specific countries where English is spoken as a native language. For example, P4 says:

> Today, English should not be considered only the language of the United States or the United Kingdom. Many people in different countries speak English for different purposes. So, we can say that English is now a global language.

Similarly, P9 considers English as a global language because of the necessity to have a common language to be used in the global world:

> In the global world, people have to communicate and understand each other about global issues. That is why there has to be a common language, English. Thus, English is the language people use worldwide.

In addition to the perspective on English as a global language, participants also believe that English is necessary to access diverse forms of capital available in globalization. For example, P1 states:

> Through English, we can access various resources that are available around the world. For example, my English knowledge has helped me to travel to different European countries for educational and tourism purposes. Similarly, as I know English, I can

communicate with people in different parts of the world since we all have a common language: English.

Here, the experience of P1 with English shows that English helped P1 accumulate cultural capital (i.e., education) and social capital (i.e., communicating with people) in the global world. Similarly, P2 stated that he uses English to earn money by tutoring; thus, he accumulates economic capital.

I have been teaching English since my university years. I have been teaching English to individuals at various levels and earning money. People need to know English to be a member of the global world, and they demand to learn it. As a tutor, I help them in learning English. In turn, I earn money.

EFL Curriculum and Materials to Teach English as a Global Language

All participants perceive English as a global language and believe that the knowledge of English helps accumulate different forms of capital available in the global world. However, the participants do not find the EFL curriculum in Türkiye as goal-oriented in presenting the role of English as the language of globalization. Moreover, participants believe that EFL course materials need to be more motivating for K-12 English language learners to learn English to access different global resources. For example, P3 states;

In Türkiye, the curriculum used in EFL education does not clearly define English as a global language. Instead, the curriculum presents English as content knowledge and a compulsory course that K-12 students must learn to complete their K-12 education.

Similarly, P5 does not find the EFL curriculum in Türkiye as goal-oriented to help EFL teachers teach English as the language of globalization;

The English language education curriculum in Türkiye is not explicit enough. For example, the curriculum does not define English as the language of the global world but as a foreign language. However, if English was defined as a global language in the curriculum, the instructional materials could also be prepared to teach English as a global language, not as a content subject or as a foreign language as we teach now.

In addition, participants do not find EFL course materials motivating or encouraging K-12 learners to learn English as a tool to access different resources that globalization offers. For example, P6 says;

Unfortunately, in Türkiye, course books used in English language classrooms often introduce the British accent of English as if it is the language of only the United Kingdom. English is presented with English spelling, and pictures are often from the United Kingdom. This limits students' perspectives on English and does not help motivate students to learn English as a global language used by people from different cultures.

Similarly, P8 states that coursebooks need to be more inclusive because they need to present English as used by people living in various communities. P8 mentions world Englishes and supports including world Englishes in English language education materials in Türkiye.

People from different countries all over the world use English. While using English, naturally, each community reflects its accent, language, and culture. That is why I believe the English coursebooks used in Türkiye do not sufficiently reflect this reality. Both English language education curricula and coursebooks focus on only certain accents of English.

Suggestions for Teaching English as a Global Language

Participants suggest preparing a goal-oriented English language education curriculum to teach English as the global world language. P10 states;

It is a fact that English is a global language, and in Türkiye, the English language education curriculum needs to be prepared based on this fact. The goal of the curriculum should be to define and offer to teach English as the global world language.

In addition, P7 suggests "explicitly stating the role of English in the curriculum as a linguistic tool to access resources in the global world." P7 adds;

English is a linguistic tool used worldwide to access education, earn money, meet people from different cultures, and travel. This role of English should explicitly be stated in the curriculum so that learners are aware that by learning English, they can access different resources that are internationally available.

In presenting English as a tool to access various forms of capital, curriculum and course materials used in English language education in Türkiye should also present and embrace various accents of English used by people from other countries, as P1 states;

Encapsulating various English accents in coursebooks used in English is essential. In this way, students can be aware of the countries where English is used. Students can also be aware that English does not represent only certain cultures where native speakers of English use English. Being aware of the world Englishes can motivate students to learn English and encourage them to use it even with different accents.

Discussion

This study employs a qualitative approach based on the theories of globalization and forms of capital. The study focuses on ten EFL teachers' perspectives on the role of English in the global world and the curriculum and course materials used in English language education in Türkiye. The study's findings show that EFL teachers in Türkiye perceive English as the language of globalization. The teachers also believe that English is a linguistic capital that helps learners access various forms of capital available globally. However, EFL teachers do not find materials used in EFL classrooms in Türkiye inclusive enough to represent English as a global language and a linguistic tool to access globalization.

A positive perception of English as a global language is required to create encouraging contexts to motivate English language learners to learn English in education (Ryan, 2006). However, some communities find their linguistic resources to be of meager value in globalization (Blommaert, 2010). Such underestimation demotivates local cultures towards learning and teaching English as a global language and reduces these communities' feelings of belonging worldwide (Wenger, 1998). In such communities, English is taught by integrating national and international cultures in English language education textbooks and designing English language education curricula considering the learners' needs to access resources in globalization.

To teach English as a global language, it is crucial not to associate English with only one geographical or cultural community (e.g., American) (Lamb, 2004). Similarly, comprising different cultures in English language education and going beyond rote learning of grammar help English learners understand English to be used in the global context and feel part of a worldwide culture (Shahed, 2013; Yihong et al., 2014).

In addition, cultural self-awareness and integrating local culture and languages facilitate the internalization of English because the learners' familiarity with their local cultures can contribute to designing culturally familiar environments in English language classrooms (Davis, 2009). For example, Alptekin (2006) found that adapting local culture and practices to the reading texts written in English facilitates Turkish EFL learners' reading comprehension in English. Similarly, Cheng (2012) found that integrating local culture in English language classrooms in Taiwan helped to provide familiar and motivating learning environments for English language learners and teachers. Wee (2014) analyzed the Singaporean English language education policy. It emphasized the requirement of cultural self-awareness by integrating local culture and practices in English language education, especially in a multicultural country.

Researchers also advocate integrating only local languages and cultures in English language education (e.g., Gandolfo, 2009; Imam, 2005). These researchers claim that integrating local languages and cultures in English language education helps learners and teachers think critically about the target language and culture and save local language and culture in linguistic globalization. For example, Gandolfo (2009) claims that using English as a medium in education is the main reason for undervaluing indigenous languages in Africa. The researcher suggests raising awareness towards the English language in education, emphasizing the importance of local languages, and claiming that it is a "myth" to consider "every important (consequential) thing is written in English" (Gandolfo, 2009, p.329). Thus, Gandolfo (2009) proposes teaching English in a knowledge-based construction where learners can use the local language and recognize their cultural identity.

Similarly, Imam (2005) argues for raising awareness of the English language in education in Bangladesh. At the same time, the researcher emphasizes the importance of the knowledge of the local language, which he explains as an initial step to adapting to globalization and signifies that "learning the national language is foundational to Bangladesh's global strategy" (Imam, 2005, p.483). Considering this, Imam (2005) also suggests re-designing strategies in English language education regarding locality; that is, the local language needs to be used in English language education to cover both local and global areas under the same dome.

In Türkiye, English learners are also often demotivated to speak English due to the fear of making mistakes related to pronunciation (Tekir, 2021). However, as the participants

of this study also state, including different accents of English used by people living in other countries in the global world can raise students' awareness of different accents of English and motivate them to use English without any fear (Babaci-Wilhite, 2015). Moreover, the research studies reveal that students learning various English accents have a good knowledge of other cultures and where English is used, positively influencing students' accumulation of cultural capital (Diouani, 2021).

Conclusion

Globalization is a process in which English goes beyond its national borders and has become an instrument to access the dimensions of this process. Communities in the global world are often required to use English as the language of globalization to communicate and access forms of capital. There are also different perceptions of English as a common language in globalization. While some communities consider English a cultural threat to locality and a danger to identity, others identify English as a tool for economic power, prestigious jobs, and international communication (Babaci-Wilhite, 2015). Despite various perceptions of English, communities accept that English is a global language and that it is necessary to learn and teach it to adapt to globalization (Blommaert, 2010).

In addition, adapting to globalization and accessing its dimensions often depend on English language education. Thus, understanding linguistic globalization can play a significant role in adapting to globalization through English language education. Knowing that English goes beyond standard American and British English and cultures is essential to teach English as a global language. This awareness may help design curricula for English language education in globalization and help teachers and students integrate other cultures into EFL classrooms.

Moreover, accepting English as a global language may bring global and local issues to English language classrooms, through which English language learners can discuss, think creatively and critically, tolerate other cultures, notice globalization through English language education, and adapt to the globalization process. Thus, comprehending globalization and English as a global language influences pedagogy and practice in English language education in various cultures. Therefore, communities, including Türkiye, need to understand globalization and perceive linguistic globalization as an instrument to access globalization, as a possible source of richness for locals, and as a process influencing the motivation,

perceptions, and identities of students and teachers who are the main participants of English language education.

However, teaching a global language through local languages in local contexts is open to discussion. Because using local languages in English language education may not go beyond the translation of languages, which is not enough, especially when adapting to globalization; in other words, excessive use of local languages in teaching English may hinder the awareness of cultural diversity. Thus, in linguistic globalization, English language education must be considered teaching not a language of specific countries where English is spoken as a native language but a language of globalization in which it is spoken among various cultures. Therefore, local languages may not be used as instruments to teach English as a global language. However, as a global language, English may enrich local cultures, languages, and communities. To achieve this, teachers must teach English as a global language, integrating linguistic and cultural diversity awareness in English language education. That is, instead of arguing that English threatens local culture and identity, it may be helpful to accept it as a possibility to develop a global identity, which can be achieved through English language education (Ryan, 2006).

Many researchers agree that integrating national and international cultures in English language education is helpful for teaching and learning English as a global language. Teaching varieties of English in English language classrooms and bringing varieties of cultures in which English is used as a global language can also help motivate English language learners and enhance their awareness and enthusiasm to learn English. Cultural awareness and cultural competence can be significant in English language classrooms. Providing cultural diversity in English language classrooms can avoid stereotyping and help achieve autonomy in knowing other cultures and languages (Shahid, 2013). Thus, integrating culture and raising cultural diversity awareness is vital to respecting other cultures in the globalized world and recognizing English as a global language in classroom pedagogy (Altan, 2017). Therefore, it is essential to train teachers to teach various cultures through English as a global language and design English language textbooks by integrating cultures of not only native but also non-native English-speaking countries.

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Interview Questions

Questions about Perspectives on English

1. How do you define the role of English in globalization?

2. How can English help access globalization?

3. What kind of resources are available in the world of English, and what may help students access them?

Questions about English Language Education in Türkiye

1. What do you think about Türkiye's English language education curriculum to access globalization?

2. Do you think English language course books in Türkiye are inclusive enough to help students understand globalization?

3. How do you think English language course books and curricula can be revised to raise more awareness of globalization and help students learn English as the language of globalization?

4. What are your suggestions for teaching English as the language of the global world?

5. What are your suggestions for raising students' awareness of English as a tool to access resources in the global world?

How Literate are Prospective English Teachers in Language Assessment? A Case Just Before Entering the Teaching Profession

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Abstract

Assessment is defined as 'an essential component of all learning and teaching endeavors'. Training prospective teachers in assessment is of primary importance in teacher education. This study employs a mixed methods design to uncover (a) how literate prospective English teachers in language assessment based on scenarios that include some instances of assessment applications, (b) how they perceive their knowledge of language assessment, and (c) how they apply their knowledge when developing language tests. Participants are the fourth-year prospective English teachers who took the course Testing and Evaluation in ELT. The data for the study were collected through open-ended questionnaires and scenarios designed to reflect how successfully the participants transferred their knowledge into practice. The results reveal that assessment courses fail to achieve their objectives in the practical sense. Additionally, the inability to obtain high levels of language assessment literacy might result from cognitive errors which individuals have developed throughout their education.

Introduction

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It is commonly agreed upon that assessment is vital to language teaching and learning practices (Ashraf & Zolfaghari, 2018). Whether its aim is the process, progress, or the product of learning, various assessment procedures are employed to provide data for all stakeholders regarding the success of those practices. To obtain reliable results from any test, one must be able to control the numerous variables that influence the test's quality and outcome. When all parties that play a significant role in assessment procedures are considered, classroom teachers have the most substantial role since they are typically the practitioners who prepare, administer, evaluate, and share the results. Therefore, it would be correct to assert that becoming competent as a practitioner requires amassing a substantial amount of knowledge that can be used to make sound, systematic decisions (Koh, 2011). Therefore, enhancing the assessment literacy of prospective and/or in-service teachers should be a priority.

The practical application of assessment knowledge is not devoid of problems or criticism. Thus, some researchers have attempted to identify the source where prospective teachers are expected to acquire the necessary knowledge. It can be stated that studies conducted on teacher preparation courses with regard to classroom assessment practices do not match the actual needs for classroom practice (Xu & Brown, 2016). What is taught in university assessment courses can be insufficient to prepare pre-service teachers for actual field assessment practices adequately. Researchers such as Jawhar and Subahi (2020), Graham (2005), and Beziat and Coleman (2015) specify that teachers have been unable to improve their assessment knowledge and skills sufficiently at the tertiary level; therefore, as Latif (2021) suggests, more attention should be paid to identify the assessment literacy of prospective language teachers in university contexts. As Latif (2021) states, the disparity and deficiencies between university education for language teachers and professional school teachers might be a serious concern.

There is a need to establish a link between theoretical considerations at universities and practical applications in classrooms (Coombe et al.,2020). To narrow the gap and increase the success rate of university assessment courses, Yan and Fan (2020) remark that trainers should consider contextual factors and develop realistic expectations about Language Assessment Literacy (LAL) development. In that way, it could be possible to claim that theories and skills might best be reflected in the assessment practices in classroom environments. Therefore, this study aims to explore the level of language assessment

literacies of preservice language teachers and to what extent they can reflect their language assessment literacies on assessment scenarios and test developments.

Throughout literature, it could be observed that many language education researchers have conducted studies on assessment literacy. Some of these researchers have aimed to define LAL. Among them, Mohebbi and Coombe (2020) state that "[it] includes skill in the procedures for evaluating language abilities, the ability to construct sound and suitable assessments, and, just as importantly, the understanding of appropriate mechanisms of feedback that assist learners to improve their target language and reach their short- and long-term goals" (p.1). In another study, Giraldo (2018) denotes that language assessment literacy consists of skills (instructional, design, measurement, and technological), knowledge (awareness of applied linguistics, theory and concepts, and context), and principles (awareness of and actions towards critical issues). From another perspective, Quilter and Gallini (2002) theorize assessment literacy as a fundamental factor affected by teachers' attitudes towards assessment. In contrast, Heitink, Kleij, Veldkamp, Schildkamp, and Kippers (2016), Wu, Zhang, and Liu (2021), and Davison (2019) consider it as an integral part of the assessment for learning practices. Stiggins (1995) points out that it covers knowing the purpose of the assessment, how it is administered, and developing the ability to identify the potential problems that could emerge throughout the assessment procedure and how to overcome those problems. That is, when teachers become assessment literate, they are equipped with the necessary knowledge and tools (Djoub, 2017) and become competent in applying the appropriate methodology in terms of preparation, administration, and dissemination of the results (Zulaiha, Mulyono & Ambarsari, 2020).

Some researchers also try to find answers to questions such as how to become literate in assessment. In this respect, Xu and Brown (2016) have developed a framework called 'Teacher Assessment Literacy in Practice (TALiP)' as a conceptual framework of assessment literacy. Likewise, Taylor (2013) enumerates that language assessment literacy comprises eight core components: knowledge of theory, technical skills, principles and concepts, language pedagogy, sociocultural values, local practice, personal beliefs and attitudes, and scores and decision-making. High competencies in these dimensions can indicate a high level of assessment literacy. By the same token, Lee and Butler (2020), who investigated several LAL models, conclude that to become LAL, one should develop adequate knowledge of theories related to LAL and the role of different contexts; in addition, individuals need

upgrade their practical skills regarding the development and interpretation of assessment; and finally, social consequences of assessment must be understood.

There are researchers such as Vogt, Tsagari, and Spanoudis (2020), Yan and Fan (2020), and Levi and Inbar-Lourie (2020) who focus on the role of contextual factors while trying to explain LAL. Yan and Fan (2020) and Yan, Zhang, and Fan (2018) argue that language assessment literacy has a social dimension and cooperative construct in which several stakeholders play a role. Therefore, Yan and Fan (2020) add that LAL is not merely accumulating knowledge and skills but an interactive process in which contextual and experiential factors act together. Similarly, Levi and Inbar-Lourie (2020) point out that LAL embraces generic, language-specific, and contextual factors. With reference to their research, Yan and Fan (2020) have developed 'an apprenticeship-based, experience-mediated model' of language assessment literacy development (p. 238), in which they examine the impact of assessment context and experience by highlighting the importance of collaborative and reflective assessment practices. Another LAL model has been developed by Davies (2008), which comprises components of knowledge, skills, and principles. In the same vein, Fulcher's (2012) LAL model consists of layers of context, principles, and practice, which provide evidence of the role of context. In this respect, it could be said that language assessment literacy is context-bound. As Coombe, Vafadar, and Mohebbi (2020) expound, various components of teacher assessment literacy are interrelated. Lee and Butler (2020) also acknowledge the interconnected construct of language assessment literacy and the role of primary stakeholders such as teachers. However, they criticize overlooking learners' role in language assessment procedures and argue "… the importance of incorporating learners' perspectives on language assessment in the conceptualization of LAL" (p.1099). Vogt, Tsagari, Csépes, Green, and Sifakis (2020) are among the few researchers who claim that learners are one of the main stakeholders in assessment procedures. Therefore, they should constitute a part of LAL.

There are a number of studies on the benefit of becoming literate in assessment in language classrooms. The findings from the research indicate that becoming assessment literate will contribute to the quality of the assessment procedures (Coombs, DeLuca, LaPointe-McEwan, & Chalas 2018). Gürsoy (2017), for example, signifies that when teachers cannot improve their assessment literacy levels, this will result in malpractices in language classrooms, significantly impacting the assessment quality. Gürsoy (2017) emphasizes that it is not sufficient for a teacher to know assessment; they have to develop

their competencies in assessment literacy and should know how to apply that knowledge for practical purposes if quality is the desired outcome. From a similar perspective, Latif (2021) points out that teachers can administer more comprehensive assessment practices when they have adequate assessment literacy. In addition, Boylu (2021) sees assessment literacy as one of the most fundamental factors affecting the evaluation of the success of foreign language teaching practices. That is, with the successful integration of assessment in teaching, an assessment-literate teacher can significantly contribute to the achievement levels of the students (McMillan, 2003).

As it is understood, assessment-literate language teachers in real classrooms who have improved their assessment literacies can contribute to achieving language teaching and learning goals in classrooms. However, when real classrooms are put in the center, there are various points of view by researchers. Researchers such as Alderson (2005), Stiggings (1991), Metler (2003), Ölmezer-Öztürk and Aydın (2019), Popham (2006), Rahman (2018), Yeşilçınar and Kartal (2020) argue that the situation in language classrooms is not at the desired level. In other words, as Sevimel-Şahin and Subaşı (2021) and Shim (2009) indicate, most teachers have problems applying their assessment knowledge to practice. Vogt and Tsagari (2014), Latif (2017), and Al-Bahlani (2019) have similar opinions and indicate the inadequacy of knowledge and understanding of assessment literacy of language teachers.

On the other hand, Watmani, Asadollahm, and Behin (2020) handle the problem relatively gently and indicate that language teachers are not unaware of all assessment procedures. Accordingly, they argue that teachers can choose the appropriate assessment methods and have developed an acceptable level of competence in using assessment results for decision-making. However, Watmai et al. (2020) add that language teachers need to be more knowledgeable in terms of other components of assessment literacy. That is, they know the basics but need help to ameliorate their literacy levels in a way that integrates all dimensions of assessment literacy. A parallel notion is held by Öz and Atay (2017) and Yeşilçınar and Kartal (2020), who say that although in-service teachers feel they have enough knowledge on assessments, they have difficulty putting them into practice in their classrooms. Their finding leads us to make a deduction: knowing something and putting it into practice are two sides of a coin, and when one has a problem, the other is inevitably stuck into that problem.

On the other hand, Vogt and Tsagari (2014) consider another dimension: familiarity with the assessment types by language teachers. They argue that language teachers tend to utilize the assessment types they are more familiar with from their previous experiences in practice than the others, such as informal or alternative assessment types. Another finding of Vogt and Tsagari's (2014) study is that language teachers who have taken part in their research complain about the quality of their education at universities. For them, their unsatisfactory assessment practices in classrooms result from inadequate training.

Some researchers approach the issue from a distinct perspective, too. For example, Hatipoğlu (2015), Hatipoğlu and Erçetin (2016), and Latif (2021), who have carried out a study on pre-service language teachers' assessment knowledge focus on the source of the problem by criticizing tertiary-level practices and add to the argument by quoting even at university level pre-service teachers obtain a limited amount of knowledge in terms their assessment literacy, which highlights the inadequacy of university courses on assessment and put it another way, the failure of the education in terms of attaining their objectives. Some researchers adopt a relatively positive standpoint. To exemplify, in their study, Zulaiha et al. (2020) argue that EFL teachers not only have a good amount of assessment knowledge. However, they are also good at putting the planning, implementation, monitoring, recording, and dissemination stages of assessment procedures into practice. However, even Zulaiha et al. (2020) question the quality of classroom assessment practices.

Considering the literature mentioned above review, this study investigates pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of their knowledge in testing and assessment practices. Another aim of the study is to determine how well pre-service teachers are ready to apply their testing and assessment knowledge in connection with given scenarios. Finally, it scrutinizes the consistency between pre-service language teachers' perceptions and their ability to apply their knowledge in different assessment settings. In this respect, the following research questions are formed:

1. How do pre-service English language teachers perceive their knowledge in testing and assessment practices?
2. How successful are the pre-service language teachers in applying their testing and assessment knowledge to different assessment (scenarios) contexts?
3. How competent are prospective teachers in developing achievement tests?

Method

This study employs a mixed-method study methodology to address the "how" questions it poses to understand the phenomenon of assessment literacy and knowledge of pre-service English teachers. The qualitative and quantitative data were collected and analyzed independently. After that, the findings were brought together, and interpretations were generated (McCrudden & Rapp, 2023). In this respect, as Creswell and Clark (2018) suggest, the current study employs a convergent concurrent mixed-method design.

Participants

This study was carried out in a state university with the participation of 57 pre-service teachers attending the English Language Teaching Department and taking the Testing and Evaluation course *in ELT*. Students were invited to take part in the study voluntarily. In the scope of this course, students are offered theoretical and practical aspects of language assessment and testing. During the course, they are introduced to the fundamental concepts for the first seven weeks. Then, they are requested to prepare a test using the knowledge they have attained during their studies, which include test specifications, the test, an answer key and a rationale in which they explain how they utilized their knowledge. All the participants were informed about the study and the procedure before consented. The participants were four-year preservice English teachers in the last semester of their university education. In addition to this course, they were doing their teaching practice in schools. Up to the study period, they had already taken some compulsory and elective courses such as Language Acquisition, Methods and Approaches in ELT, Teaching English Language Skills, and Materials Development. Thus, it would not be wrong to state that all participants were expected to have become competent enough not only in terms of language testing and assessment but also in language teaching.

Data Collection Tools and Procedure

In this study, the data were collected in three ways. Initially, reflection paper was used to collect data to diagnose participants' perceptions and knowledge regarding language testing and assessment. Then, a scenario-based assessment, adopted from Brown and Abeywickrama (2010) and comprising six scenarios, was administered to evaluate how successfully participants transferred their knowledge into practice. To this end, participants were asked to examine the scenarios regarding several fundamental assessment components

such as validity, reliability, authenticity, washback, and so on. Finally, participants were asked to prepare a language test with the given specifications.

In the study's first phase, participants were given five open-ended questions to discover their knowledge in testing and assessment practices in English language teaching and learning environments. In the first question, participants were asked to identify and interpret the contemporary testing tools and methods. The aim was to discover whether they still tended to accept the conventional ways of testing and assessment tools as dominant tools or not. In addition, they were asked to explain the tools and methods briefly to figure out their level of knowledge. The second question aimed to reveal the students' competence regarding their practical knowledge. With this aim, they were asked to indicate their views of the required qualifications and skills for ideal language testing. Then, the following question incorporated the role of technology in testing. Questions four and five were formed to seek out participants' self-awareness in language testing and their perceptions of areas with development potential concerning language testing in which they think they should improve themselves.

In the second phase, participants were given six scenarios adapted from Brown and Abeywickrama (2010, pp. 48-50) and designed to assess prospective teachers' knowledge of the key concepts and their applications in ELT settings. Each scenario had some powerful and weak sides in terms of essential principles of evaluation in language tests. Participants who had taken *Language Assessment and Testing* classes in the previous semester were supposed to accurately identify these six testing scenarios' strengths and weaknesses. In this vein, participants were asked to evaluate (low, medium, or high) the six scenarios according to the basic testing principles: reliability, validity, practicality, wash-back, and authenticity. Then, participants' papers were collected and graded by experts in terms of the accuracy of their answers. For each correct answer, participants were given one point. That is, for each scenario, a participant could get a grade between 0 and 5, and the maximum overall score they could get was 30. In this way, each participant's overall score was obtained at the end of the evaluation process, indicating their proficiency level in language assessment competencies.

In the third phase of the study, the participants were tasked with developing an achievement test to assess language skills and related subskills to be used in the schools during their practicums. In this way, it was aimed to give them a real sense of developing a

test for the target group. The tests were evaluated according to the test specifications given to the pre-service teachers. Ideally, participants were expected to prepare tests that were appropriately designed. That is, they were to develop valid and reliable tests that can be utilized in language classrooms efficiently. They were all expected to utilize authentic materials and texts and pay attention to the evaluation. Finally, pre-service teachers were assumed to attach the test specifications to their tests.

Data Analysis

Having completed the data collection part, participants' responses to open-ended questions were analyzed by carrying out (content) analysis. First, the students' responses were analyzed by two ELT experts, who prepared a report. Then, another expert checked the consistency of the data analysis. After that, the authors tried to reach a conclusion based on individual answers and scores and the participants' overall performance. They intended to explore a pattern that would have helped them to interpret the results and reach a conclusion. Since the analysis did not compromise any statistical or detailed content analyses, there was no need to make use of any data analysis software. So, all the calculations were made manually. According to the results obtained, the participants were grouped into four groups, and further analyses were performed by taking these four groups to determine whether they represented any unique characteristics.

Results

First, Questions 1, 2, and 5 aimed at discovering their knowledge of contemporary testing tools (question 1), of other skills and qualifications necessary for ideal testing (question 2), and of the suggested areas for self-improvement (question 5) were analyzed. Findings revealed that 56 participants replied to question 1. It was seen that participants mentioned portfolios (n=50) as the most popular contemporary testing tool. It was followed by peer/self-assessment (n=28), performance tasks (n=20), projects (n=24), and grid testing (n=6) as the standard contemporary testing tools.

Analysis of participants' replies to the second question (What are the other required skills and competencies besides language skills to carry out ideal testing and evaluation?) showed that 39 out of 57 participants gave appropriate answers to this question. Accordingly, almost half of the participants knew that they needed to be able to prepare tests that accurately measured what they were supposed to measure. Acceptable tests meant

consistency over time and between different participants (validity and reliability, 39%). Moreover, they pointed out that a teacher needed to know their students before testing (knowing students, 13%) and had to abide by ethical codes (ethics, 17%). Another issue that came out was that a teacher needed to be able to prepare practical tests (practicality, 11%) and good answer keys (answer key, 7%). Besides, the other required skills were having enough content knowledge (content knowledge, 6%) and working together with their colleagues while preparing tests (collaboration, 7%).

Then, participants' self-evaluation of themselves regarding their self-awareness and level of knowledge in testing were examined in Question 4. When the data were investigated, it was seen that some students thought their self-efficacy levels were relatively high. They saw themselves as competent enough to prepare and administer proper tests. On the other hand, some other participants indicated that although they had studied testing previously, they did not believe that their competencies were not high enough to enable them to prepare and administer proper tests. Based on this finding, it could be stated that there are two major groups of participants regarding pre-service perceptions of their language testing and assessment knowledge. That is, it was possible to group participants into two distinct groups: competent and incompetent.

Participants' answers to Question 5 were examined in the final part of this phase. In this question, participants were asked to indicate areas where they thought they should improve their testing knowledge. 40 out of 57 participants replied to this question. Findings showed that almost half of the participants needed further training in testing and evaluation (51%). That is, although they had studied language testing for a semester and improved their knowledge, they did not feel secure enough to prepare tests for actual use in schools. Nine participants reflected they needed to improve their knowledge of testing four skills (19%). Since they were aware of the fact that productive skills were hard to manage in terms of testing. Four participants pointed out that they needed to improve their abilities to prepare tests suitable for their students' levels (9%). Another issue that had been argued by three students as a potential area for self-improvement was 'grading' (7%). A small number of participants considered themselves as incompetent in this area. Another three participants stated that they also needed to learn more about the alternative ways/instruments of assessment (6%). Finally, other areas suggested by participants were finding distractors (2%), giving feedback (2%), preparing answer keys (2%), and fairness (2%).

In respect to Research Question 1, not all participants have at least an average level of knowledge. In other words, participants know the basics of the language testing assessment at varying degrees but not at acceptable levels. In addition, they can classify discrete types of contemporary testing tools, name the required skills and qualifications, and identify their weak areas in language testing and assessment. However, only a limited number of participants can do it effectively. Moreover, according to findings obtained from Question 4, which focused on pre-service teachers' perceptions about their own language testing and assessment competencies, it was found that not all participants had perceived themselves similarly.

After completing the analysis of the open-ended questions, data from the scenarios were examined in the next step. In the first scenario, participants were supposed to evaluate a standardized multiple-choice proficiency test. The second scenario was a timed impromptu test of written English (TWE Test). Then, in the third scenario, they were asked to evaluate one-on-one oral interviews to assess overall production ability, whereas they were expected to rate a five-minute prepared oral presentation as the fourth one. In the fifth scenario, participants evaluated the scenario, which included multiple drafts of a three-page essay, which included a peer-reviewed one; finally, in the last one, they were supposed to grade a portfolio of materials collected throughout a course.

Table 1. Key Concepts: Application Activity

Scenario	Content
Scenario 1	Standardized multiple-choice proficiency test, no oral or written production. Students receive a report that includes a total score and subscores for listening, grammar, proofreading, and reading comprehension.
Scenario 2	Timed impromptu test of written English (TWE Test). Students receive a report listing one holistic score ranging between 0 and 6. No additional comment is provided.
Scenario 3	One-on-one oral interview to assess overall production ability. Students receive one holistic score ranging between 0 and 5. No additional comment is provided.
Scenario 4	Student gives a five-minute prepared oral presentation in class. Teacher evaluates by filling in a rating sheet indicating Student's success in delivery, rapport, pronunciation, grammar, and content. The teacher uses a presentation rubric which describes each performance factor at three levels of proficiency: Very Good, Good, and Needs Improvement. Students receive a copy of the rubric as part of the presentation.
Scenario 5	Student creates multiple drafts of a three-page essay. Early drafts are peer-reviewed. Student turns in a near-final version to the teacher. Teacher comments on grammatical/rhetorical errors only and returns it to student (no grade).
Scenario 6	Student assembles a portfolio of materials over a semester-long course. Teacher conferences with student on the portfolio at the end of the semester, assigning an overall grade.

Brown and Abeywickrama (2010, pp. 48-50)

This scenario-based evaluation was expected to identify whether participants' perceptions about their testing and evaluation competencies were consistent with their testing knowledge. However, before starting, participants were assigned to two previously identified groups. Thus, participants who had stated that they felt themselves competent formed the "Competent" group (n = 26), whereas the ones who felt incompetent (n =31) were in the "Incompetent" group. Table 2 shows the total mean scores of the groups.

Table 1. Mean scores for competent and incompetent groups

Group	N	Mean
Competent	26	12,81
Incompetent	31	12,55
Total	57	12,67

When the mean scores for the two groups were investigated, it was seen that there was no significant difference between the participants who felt competent enough and the ones who felt incompetent in terms of their overall scores from scenario-based assessment. Further analysis was conducted in terms of the mean scores of the groups for each scenario. Table 2 shows the mean scores for each scenario. When the findings were studied, it was seen that participants who felt more competent scored relatively higher than the ones in the incompetent group in scenarios 1, 2, and 3, whereas the incompetent group scored higher in scenario 4. Both groups had the same mean score for scenarios 5 and 6. However, apart from scenario 6, both groups scored lower than the average score (2.5) for each scenario, which was the cut-off point that was used to determine successful and unsuccessful participants. It was anticipated that the participants in the competent group would get more than 2.5 in each scenario, which was not the case. That is, all the participants scored lower than expected and eventually failed. With these findings, it would not be wrong to state that the data were inconclusive.

Table 3. Mean scores for each scenario

Group	N	Scenario 1 Mean	Scenario 2 Mean	Scenario 3 Mean	Scenario 4 Mean	Scenario 5 Mean	Scenario 6 Mean
Competent	26	2,04	1,31	2,54	2,22	1,65	3
Incompetent	31	1,94	1,29	2,19	2,48	1,65	3
Total	57	1,98	1,3	2,35	2,39	1,65	3

However, when the data were considered on an individual basis, an interesting finding was observed, which could be worth conducting further analyses. In this respect, it was found that not all participants in a group scored in the same way, which might have been the reason

for inconclusive findings. This finding provided a rationale to assume that more sophisticated grouping was needed. Because scores of individual participants indicated the existence of a more complicated pattern, it was seen that there were some mismatches within each group.

In the first group, the participants stated they felt competent enough to prepare a sound test. However, the problem was that although some participants felt competent, they scored lower than the average (15 points), which means they failed and did not know about the basics of testing. In more precise terms, those participants were unaware of their incompetency, which was interesting. On the other hand, in the same group, there were some other students whose perceptions matched their scores. That is, there were participants who felt competent enough to create a test and who were able to transfer it into practice since they scored higher than the average. That is, they were aware of their knowledge.

It was possible to see a similar pattern within the incompetent group. There were some students who felt incompetent in testing but scored higher than the average, which meant that although they had the basic knowledge regarding language testing, their self-perceptions were low in terms of confidence. This indicated the existence of a mismatch. Because those participants were supposed to be able to prepare a proper test. Moreover, it was also possible to find participants whose perceptions and scores matched in the incompetent group. That is, their competency and practice were consistent. Thus, based on this finding, participants were further regrouped into four categories in line with whether their perceptions and scores matched or not. Table 4 shows the scores for these four groups for each scenario.

Table 2. Individual-based scores for four groups

Group	Participants	Scenario 1 Score	Scenario 2 Score	Scenario 3 Score	Scenario 4 Score	Scenario 5 Score	Scenario 6 Score	Total Score
Competence Match	P34	4	4	3	2	3	4	20
	P14	3	1	3	5	3	4	19
	P7	3	2	3	2	2	5	17
	P13	2	2	4	3	1	5	17
	P28	2	0	4	3	4	4	17
	P32	2	2	3	3	2	4	16
	P53	3	2	2	3	3	3	16
Competence Mismatch	P17	1	1	2	2	0	3	9
	P26	1	1	3	2	0	2	9
	P27	0	0	3	2	3	1	9
	P56	1	1	2	2	1	1	8
	P49	2	2	3	0	0	0	7
	P51	1	2	2	1	0	0	6
	P14	0	0	3	2	0	0	5
Incompetence Mismatch	P5	3	2	3	4	0	4	16
	P35	4	2	1	3	2	4	16
	P45	3	3	2	3	2	3	16
	P54	3	2	2	3	3	3	16
	P12	2	1	3	3	1	5	15
	P47	3	2	4	2	1	3	15
	P11	1	2	2	3	3	3	14
Incompetent Match	P1	2	0	0	2	2	4	10
	P9	3	2	2	3	0	0	10
	P16	1	1	4	2	1	1	10
	P37	2	0	2	0	2	3	9
	P43	1	2	2	2	0	1	8
	P36	1	1	2	0	1	2	7
	P55	0	0	1	0	2	3	6

Having completed the analyses of the data obtained in the first two phases and grouped participants into four distinct categories, participants' sample tests were investigated. Only the tests by participants in these four categories were examined to see whether a pattern aligned with the groups. In the data collection phase, participants had been asked to create a test with specifications so their practical knowledge could be evaluated. First, a rubric was created, and the tests were graded. However, the data were not conclusive since participants were unable to provide original papers. They included either copy and paste style, superficial specifications, or unrelated ones that did not correspond to the questions prepared by the tester, that is, the participants. Some works were directly downloaded from the Internet and did not have relevant specifications. This made the interpretation of the papers impossible because they were not the real products of the participants. Thus, it would not be wrong to assume that participants performed poorly in this respect and provided unacceptable tests. This finding might indicate a lack of LAL since participants with higher levels of LAL are supposed to be skillful practitioners.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study explores teacher candidates' competency levels relating to their capabilities and self-perceptions of LAL. Additionally, it examines pre-service teachers' achievement levels in terms of realizing their LAL knowledge in various testing contexts. For these purposes, data are collected employing reflection papers in which diagnostic procedures to identify participants' LAL self-perceptions and knowledge are assessed, a test that encapsulates six assessment scenarios to evaluate how successfully pre-service teachers transfer their knowledge into different contexts, and finally, a task that incorporates test preparation with specifications to observe their abilities to apply their knowledge.

Responses to the open-ended questions are transcribed, and content analyses have been generated. This section aims to determine whether participants have an acceptable level of technical knowledge regarding test preparation and language assessment in general. Findings reveal that not all participants are able to perform as anticipated. Therefore, it could be mentioned that the participants have not fully attained the objectives of the testing course. In the literature, various researchers came up with similar findings. Graham (2005) and Jawhar and Subahi (2020) indicate that pre-service teachers are inefficient at improving their assessment knowledge during their university studies.

The investigation of open-ended questions also displays that many participants are aware of basic testing tools and can differentiate fundamental issues such as self-assessment or formative assessment tools. Accordingly, the level of success rate in terms of this question is not at the desired level. Less than half of the students can name the required skills and competencies for a successful test. This finding supports Sayyadi (2022), Gan and Lam (2020), and Vogt and Tsagari (2104), who reflect that at the tertiary level, teacher candidates fail to put their theoretical knowledge into practice due to various factors, one of which might be too much focus on theory and ignorance of practical aspects of assessment procedures. When the details are examined, it could be observed that only a small percentage of the participants are knowledgeable enough. These findings are partially supported by Quileste and Moreno (2020), who indicate that pre-service teachers have an acceptable level of knowledge in testing but require further improvement in certain areas, such as objective writing.

Findings demonstrate enough evidence to assume that teacher candidates are knowledgeable regarding fundamental aspects of language assessment procedures, such as

reliability and validity. Nevertheless, the finding fails to provide conclusive data to argue whether participants can identify the subdimensions of reliability and validity of a language test. Another issue that has been identified is that teacher candidates are unable to show acceptable levels of achievement in identifying the other aspects related to good language test preparation, such as practicality, ethical issues, content knowledge, and collaboration. In this respect, their highly low scores (the percentage drops as low as 7%) make their performances questionable. This finding is in line with what Kömür (2108), who examines the assessment awareness of pre-service teachers, states. Kömür (2108) argues that although pre-service teachers have a good amount of knowledge regarding skills and competencies in language assessment, but they need further training and practice opportunities. Therefore, based on this finding, it would not be wrong to state that the training given at the tertiary level on language testing is not sufficient to create such an effect on LAL at desired levels, and the testing curriculum needs enriching with the addition of innovative approaches and materials. This is in line with Triastuti (2020). He identifies that when it comes to practical applications of knowledge in teaching environments, pre-service teachers are unable to reflect what they know at acceptable levels. In the same vein, Sevimel-Şahin and Subaşı (2019), in their systematic review of the literature on LAL, state that in the pre-service teacher training area, the literature reveals the fact that at the tertiary level, too much emphasis on theory regarding LAL makes it difficult to bring out satisfactory outcomes in practice. So, as Berger (2023) suggests, there is a need to develop open and dynamic program designs. However, the findings of Giraldo and Quintero (2023) contradict these findings. Their exploratory action research reveals that it is possible to expand pre-service teachers' language assessment perceptions significantly within the tertiary level courses. In addition, El-Freihat (2021) asserts that years of experience play a great role in the practical application of knowledge. Yet, he also points out that the assessment courses in universities should be revised to meet the needs of pre-service teachers in this sense.

When the data related to participants' self-perception of their testing competencies have been inspected, it is seen that the findings provide enough evidence to support the previous findings of the current study. Accordingly, there are two main groups of participants in terms of their perceptions. On the one hand, there is a group of participants who think that they have obtained the necessary knowledge during their testing course and are competent enough to create suitable language tests. On the other hand, there is another group of participants who indicate that they have failed to improve their language testing competencies

throughout the testing course and, therefore, perceive themselves as incompetent in test preparation and administration. Similarly, Yan and Fan (2020) say that there are discrepancies at individual and group levels in terms of LAL profiles. In addition to these findings, the investigation of the data set also revealed that more than half of the participants feel the need for further training to improve their testing competencies after university education when they start teaching, which parallels the other studies in the literature. Fitriyah, Masitoh, and Widiati (2022) state that although teachers, both experienced and novice ones, indicate they have a good amount of knowledge about language assessment and testing, they still demand further in-service training. With reference to these findings, it could be argued that it is normal to see people with varying degrees of competencies, and individuals may or may not feel competent enough under normal conditions.

In the next stage, the results of the scenario-based test are evaluated to examine the consistency between what participants know and how they apply that knowledge. The assumption is that participants who feel competent enough would outscore in the test the ones who feel incompetent and must be able to get a score higher than the average. The highest score that one participant could get on the test is 5, which means that participants in the competent group should get at least 2.5. However, when the overall scores are examined between groups, it is seen that no significant difference exists. That is, all the participants are at the same level no matter what level of competence they have in terms of their LAL, and regardless of their perceptions, they all fail. This finding brings out the question of how participants can perceive their LAL levels as high but unable to transfer their knowledge into practice, which is supported by Gurmesa, Birbirs, Hussein, and Tsegaye (2022), who affirm that EFL teachers' assessment knowledge is not reflected in practical applications in classroom environments, which means the efficiency of testing courses offered at the tertiary level is questionable and may be unable to ensure the attainment of all its objectives by the pre-service teachers. It could be argued that from an orthodox point of view, pre-service teachers take certain courses throughout their education at university, and then they are expected to reflect their knowledge in practice when they start teaching at schools. It is inevitable to observe varying degrees of achievement levels in practice, but if the majority of pre-service teachers fail to prepare and administer language tests at acceptable levels, it means there is a paralogism.

If an individual cannot apply the knowledge he has acquired after successfully completing a course, then it might be possible to argue that the problem may stem from

practices at the tertiary level. In this respect, the success criteria and assessment and evaluation processes of the courses might become questionable. This finding is supported by Morrison and Sepulveda-Escobar (2022). They argue that to obtain reliable, valid, and authentic assessment products in foreign language classrooms, the efficiency of teacher education programs should be improved. Similarly, Muianga (2023) says that there is a need to redesign professional programs associating with assessment literacy to become more effective based on his study on teachers' conceptions of assessment. Beyond that, the testing course curriculum and syllabuses might need to be updated in a way that meets the changing conditions and requirements to ensure that pre-service teachers develop their LALs at acceptable levels by bringing the practical hands-on applications forward. Coombe, Vafadar, and Mohebbi (2020) contribute to this by expressing that training on assessment should evolve into long-term and sustainable applications in a way to include the whole professional life of the teacher. Moreover, these kinds of programs should be built upon the findings of recent research and consider the requirements of context time and contemporary demands by stakeholders.

The above findings reveal that there are inconsistencies between groups in terms of participants' competency levels and self-perceptions, which is supported by Elhussien and Khalil (2023), who argue that pre-service teachers are unable to make accurate decisions in terms of applying their knowledge and also they are unaware of their assessment abilities. In addition, it is seen that groups do not perform as anticipated. In this respect, findings from individual scrutiny reveal a distinct pattern in both groups. Reflection of the big picture there are inconsistencies within each group. In both competent and incompetent groups, there are participants whose perceptions match their performances. That is, participants in each group can be allocated into two sub-categories: match and mismatch, which divides all participants into quartiles. Participants in matching groups perform as expected. However, there is a significant problem in mismatch groups. The ones in the competent mismatch tend to underestimate their performances. Similarly, participants in the incompetent mismatch group overestimated their performances.

These findings provide a rationale for assuming there is a cognitive error. This finding is in line with Freund and Kasten (2012) and Hofer, Mraulak, Grinschgl, and Neubauer (2022), who states that people's performances and their self-estimation of abilities and intelligence have a mediocre correlation with each other. Indeed, this is what Kruger and Dunning (1999) propose in their study that people who get low marks on a given test tend to

overestimate their performances, whereas people with higher marks underestimate their performances. As Sanchez and Dunning (2018) state, a consistent pattern is observed between the actual and estimated performances, which is the case in this study. This connection is called the Dunning-Kruger Effect (DFE). Basically, people are not aware of to what extent they do not know a specific subject area, and this, in turn, results in the misapplication of appropriate strategies and negatively affects learning and performance. Coutinho, Thomas, Alsuwaidi, and Couchman (2021) argue that due to DKE, people cannot overcome their shortfalls in knowledge or skills, which could be interpreted as the source of greater problems that might stem from these deficits at later stages. Therefore, it could be quoted that at the individual level, the problems may result from individuals' cognitive biases regarding their performance perceptions. That is, the ineffectiveness of course design or the practices carried out by the lecturers might not be the only factors instigating participants' inadequacies. So, any future modification of the testing courses at the tertiary level should incorporate practices which aim at reducing cognitive error and DKE so that pre-service teachers can be equipped with better testing and assessment knowledge, which is a view also supported by Lee and Butler (2020), and Taylor (2013) who argue that among many stakeholders regarding LAL, learners (pre-service teachers) have a crucial role. Therefore, their perspectives need to be taken into consideration for better conceptualization of LAL.

In conclusion, based on the above-mentioned findings, it is concluded that pre-service language teachers fail to reflect what they have learned in assessment courses into practice, which makes the efficiency of assessment courses at the tertiary level questionable, which means assessment courses fail to achieve their objectives from practical considerations. Pre-service teachers know the basics of assessment procedures superficially but are unable to perform at an acceptable level regarding the other aspects of test preparation, such as creating collaborative tests, abiding by ethical codes, and assessing the content knowledge appropriately. These issues could be seen as the manifestation of low levels of LAL from both practical and theoretical perspectives. This study provides evidence regarding the problems mentioned above, too. Accordingly, in some measure, the source is the cognitive errors that pre-service teachers bear while self-evaluating their individual language assessment competencies. The intricated inconsistencies between pre-service teachers' self-perceptions of their LAL and their actual performances reveal the existence of the Dunnig-Kruger Effect, which may result in the selection of inaccurate strategies and/or paths in pre-service teachers' learning journey, and without overcoming this issue, it might not be

possible to create efficient programs. Considering these results, it would not be wrong to conclude that the assessment courses at tertiary levels need revising in a way that focuses on practical applications of theoretical knowledge and that is supported by interventions aiming to decrease the levels of cognitive errors of teacher candidates.

The current study is a case study, and the results are data-driven. It will evidently contribute to the field but is not free from some limitations. First, data are collected from a limited group of participants, and it is difficult to generalize the findings to other contexts. In addition, there is a risk of bias. Although participants have been informed about the ethical aspects and asked for their sincere responses, their personal opinions and perceptions may influence the results. Moreover, it is not possible to generate the same study with the same population, either. Even if it is possible, it is open to the recall bias.

For further studies, materializing an empirical study, which will be conducted with the participation of more participants from various contexts, could provide quantitative data that would promote more sound results. Additionally, researchers may focus on the role of cognitive errors in university-level courses on student achievement and motivation. It is also recommended that design studies focus on specific solutions for the entailing problems.

Declaration of Conflicting Interest

The Authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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A Systematic Review of Language Learning Applications in Language Education

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Abstract

This study covers MALL studies based on the use of a mobile application to teach or learn English. Based on the inclusion criteria, 26 studies from three different journals have been included in this study. The primary objective of this systematic analysis is to synthesize findings from quasi-experimental studies carried out between 2017 and 2022 in terms of the connection between the use of mobile language learning applications and language learning outcomes. The journals that have been selected to conduct the review are CALL Journal, Language Learning and Technology Journal, and ReCALL Journal. The preferred journals, due to their nature, aim at publishing articles only related to technology and language teaching.

Keywords: Language learning apps; Mobile learning; Systematic review

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Introduction

Due to the ever-growing number of studies that have been conducted on the use of technology and mobile devices in educational settings, a multitude of fields have been suggested by the literature to investigate technology and language teaching; among these fields, researchers have primarily focused on Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). However, given that MALL has been the subject of so many other studies, there is also a need for a systematic review of MALL studies in various contexts.

Khan et al., (2003) explain systematic review as follows:

"A review earns the adjective systematic if it is based on a clearly formulated question, identifies relevant studies, appraises their quality and summarizes the evidence by use of explicit methodology. It is the explicit and systematic approach that distinguishes systematic reviews from traditional reviews and commentaries" (Khan et al., 2003).

Regarding the motives provided above, this systematic literature review (SLR) aims to evaluate and combine research articles on mobile applications in ESL and EFL environments between the years 2017 to 2022 and synthesize their findings. Three research questions have been outlined as follows:

1. What are trends and methodologies in terms of language learning applications and language teaching and learning environments?

2. What language skills and sub-skills are focused on in the use of mobile learning applications?

3. To what extent are mobile learning apps effective in learning?

Methodology

This literature review provides the results of a systematic analysis of three large-scale journals based on language learning and technology, which are CALL, Language Learning and Technology, and ReCALL, published between 2017 and 2022. The review has been conducted within the framework offered by Khan et al. (2003); following the five steps as presented below:

"Step 1: Framing questions for the review" (Khan et al., 2003).

As previously mentioned, the research questions were formed prior to the study in order to conduct the review. Prior to forming the questions, the review sought to determine the use of mobile applications in language learning and teaching environments and state their effectiveness in language teaching and learning. This indicates why it is important to emphasize that "The problems to be addressed by the review should be specified as clear, unambiguous and structured questions before beginning the review work" (Khan et al., 2003).

"Step 2: Identifying relevant work" (Khan et al., 2003).

In order to find pertinent work, three journals have been selected since, according to Kartal (2020), "They are indexed in the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) and they solely publish articles on the use of technology in language learning." The databases of the three journals have been searched using the keywords "mobile applications," "app," and "applications." After carefully combining and analyzing the articles included in each journal— CALL, ReCALL, and Language Learning and Technology—26 articles were identified as relevant work for this systematic review. The distribution of the articles in each journal is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Number of studies conducted based on years and journals

	CALL	ReCALL	LLT	f
2017	2	0	1	4
2018	3	0	0	3
2019	2	2	0	4
2020	3	1	2	6
2021	2	1	0	3
2022	6	0	1	7
Total	18	4	4	26

"Step 3: Assessing the quality of studies" (Khan et al.2003).

In order to assess the quality of the studies, the inclusion and exclusion criteria have been set by adopting and adapting from the reviews done by (Rajendran & Yunus, 2021) and Kartal (2020). Articles have been included or excluded based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria as in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria for the systematic review

Criterion	Inclusion Criterion	Exclusion Criterion
Context	Educational Context	Non-educational context, personal use of apps mainly for joy
Focus of study	The use of mobile language learning applications	The use of computers, websites, mobile communication such as text messages or calls
Devices	Mobile, iPads, tablets	Computers, laptops
Field of study	Quantitative, experimental studies on language learning applications	Literature reviews, theoretical frameworks, non-experimental studies, or discussion papers
Publishers	CALL, ReCALL and Language Learning Technology journals	Other journals and databases
Year of publication	From 2017 to the end of 2022	Before 2017 and after 2022

"Step 4: Summarizing the evidence" (Khan et al., 2003).

Following the inclusion and exclusion criteria, 26 articles have been selected from the three journals as is above. After analyzing the articles, they are tabularized based on publication years, scopes, skills and results as in the Table 3 below.

Table 3. Summary of the articles included in the systematic review

	Participations& Context	Method(s)	Skill(s)	Application(s)	Results
Sun, Lin,You, Shen, Qi & Luo (2017)	72 young, first grade EFL learners in China	Quasi-experimental	Speaking	Papa (Social networking app)	Greater gains in fluency in experimental group
Liakin, Cardoso & Liakina (2017)	27 university students of French language learners	Mixed-methods	Speaking (Pronunciation)	A TTS application	Positive results in experimental groups
Chen, Carger &Smith (2017)	5 Young learners aged 9-13 in data collection/ 2 of 5 included in data analysis	Instrumental case study	Writing	Penultimate (a handwriting app)	Great improvement on the language production, support/elaboration. The focus dimension is the same
Zhou, Li &Li (2018)	84 university students taking an EAP course	Mixed-Method	All skills	An EAP app and WeChat	Provide sources connected to lessons

					-opportunities for communication as additional support
Eubanks, Yeh & Tseng (2018)	24 second-grade students enrolled in the Mandarin Chinese program	Mixed-Method	Writing	iPad recording app), the Book Creator App	Writing barriers decreased the writing ability improved.
Rachels & Rockinson-Szapkiw (2018)	187 students age ranged 7 to 10 years learning Spanish as a foreign language	Quantitative	All skills	DuoLingo	No significant difference in students' achievement or in academic self-efficacy between the use of the app and the traditional classroom
Cheng, Cheng & Yung (2019)	46 grade 5 students learning EFL in Taiwan	Quasi-experimental	Vocabulary	EVLAPP-SRLM a vocabulary learning app designed by researchers	Significantly greater learning performance and motivation
Zhonggen, Ying, Zhichun & Wentao (2019)	340 university students learning EFL in China	Mixed-methods	All skills	A mobile tool named 'College English IV' by researchers	Improved learning outcomes Lower cognitive load
Chen, Liu & Huang (2019)	20 university students learning EFL	Mixed Methods	Vocabulary	MEVLA-GF and MEVLA-GNF a vocabulary learning app designed by researchers with/without game related functions	Positive correlation between involvement and dependence on gamified functions and vocabulary learning performance
Loewen et al. (2019)	9 individuals from Michigan State University learning Turkish	Mixed-methods	All skills	DuoLingo	Improvement on L2 measures, and positive, moderate correlation between the time spent on Duolingo and learning gains.
Gonzalez (2020)	52 Spanish university students learning EFL	Quasi-experimental	Speaking (Pronunciation)	English File Pronunciation APP	Substantial improvements in the learners' perception and production of target language. No significant difference for every sound or in every task.
Yeh & Tseng (2020)	52 university students in Taiwan learning EFL	Quasi-experimental	All Skills and Multimodal Literacy	AR App	Positive effect on multimodal literacy.

Hanson & Brown (2020)	62 university students learning Spanish as a foreign language	Mixed-methods	Vocabulary	Anki	A positive relationship between the time spent on the app and performance at the end of the semester.
Lee & Park (2020)	40 university students learning EFL	Mixed-methods	All Skills	AR App	App supported language learning in the affective, cognitive, and social domains.
Fang et al. (2020)	66 university students learning EFL	Quasi-experimental	Vocabulary, Grammar and Speaking	a mobile-supported TBLT application	The mobile-supported outperformed the vocabulary and conversation comprehension tests but there was no significant difference in grammar test.
Tai & Chen (2020)	49 adolescents in Taiwan learning EFL	Quasi-experimental	Vocabulary	AR app	-The VR app contextualized vocabulary learning -enhanced learner engagement through real-time interactivity and feedback.
Botero et al. (2021)	52 university students learning French as a foreign language	Quasi-experimental	All Skills	Duolingo	Training and scaffolding for self-regulation is beneficial in a voluntary out of class MALL context.
Li et al. (2021)	291 Chinese EFL learners	Quantitative	Vocabulary	Baicizhan (a digital game-based vocabulary learning app)	Positive effect on concentration and motivation
Li & Hafner (2021)	85 Chinese EFL learners	Experimental	Vocabulary	Zhimi (a mobile app based on vocabulary learning)	The mobile app promoted greater gains than physical word cards.
Yi-chen Chen (2022)	33 Taiwanese university students	Mixed-methods	Public Speaking	Orai App VirtualSpeech App	No significant difference in Orai App / A significant decrease in anxiety level with the VR app
Zhu, Zhang & Li (2022)	55 Chinese university students	Mixed-methods	Speaking	B612 selfie app	A positive role in promoting students' segmental production and raising their articulatory awareness.

					A significant decrease in speaking anxiety.
Jao et al. (2022)	26 university students in Taiwan	Mixed-methods	Speaking	Mofunshow (a video dubbing app)	improved speaking ability, in terms of accuracy and fluency.
Shi and Tsai (2022)	80 students aged 16-17 in Taiwan	Mixed-methods	Vocabulary	Simplemind mapping app	Useful at vocabulary learning. It also improved word consciousness and word retention.
Quan et al. (2022)	18 pre-university intermediate learners	Mixed-methods	Vocabulary	APIC and AKWIC Concordance apps	Comparison of the two apps suggested that PIC is more advantageous than KWIC in learners' target language use.
Hwang et al. (2022)	43 EFL students aged 11-12 in Taiwan	Mixed-methods	Speaking	Smart UEnglish App	Learning achievement is higher. Leaners reported increased motivation.
Tai (2022)	49 Taiwanese seventh grade learners	Mixed-methods	Listening	VR app	Better listening comprehension with VR app and more motivating.

"Step 5: Interpreting Findings" (Khan et al., 2003)"

As for the final step of interpreting findings, the findings of the review have been presented and discussed following the research questions and relevant comments and suggestions have been put forward in discussion and conclusions parts.

Findings and Discussion

This study has investigated 26 research articles on language learning applications and their effectiveness on language learning published in main three journals which are CALL, ReCALL and Language Learning and Technology. The findings have been presented in the flow of research questions and discussions have followed them.

Research Question 1: What are trends and methodologies in terms of language learning applications and language teaching and learning environments?

The distribution of the settings in which the research has been conducted is shown in Table 4 below. Trends and techniques have been evaluated in relation to the first research question.

Table 4. Setting of studies

Setting	ƒ (%)
University (undergraduate and graduate)	13 (50%)
Primary and Elementary Schools	8 (30%)
Other (Adults, private courses)	5 (20%)

The majority of research on language learning applications and language learners has been conducted in university settings, as Table 4 above makes evident; studies conducted in primary and elementary schools have trailed behind them by a percentage of 30, and studies conducted with adults and in private courses account for 20% of all studies on the subject. Table 4 also makes clear that no studies have been done on secondary schools and language learning applications, despite the assumption that teenagers use mobile devices extensively. This systematic review highlights the need for studies conducted in secondary school settings.

Following the setting of studies, methodology of the studies in the selected journals has been presented below in Table 5.

Table 5. Methodology of the studies

Methodology	ƒ (%)
(Quasi) Experimental	10 (38%)
Mixed-methods	14(54%)
Instrumental (Case Study)	1(4%)
Quantitative	1(4%)

As is clear from Table 5 above, most of the studies conducted on language learning applications include mixed-methods studies which include both experimental and quantitative studies with attitude or perception surveys because of the nature of such studies. The rest of the studies are only quasi-experimental studies with a percentage of 38. There is only one study which is regarded as an instrumental study conducted with young learners and only one study regarding the perceptions of learners on the use of a vocabulary application with 291 participants. Following the distribution of studies based on settings and methodologies, the skills and sub-skills they cover have been presented and discussed as the answer to the second research question.

Research Question 2: What language skills and sub-skills are focused in the use of mobile learning applications?

In order to answer the second research question, the studies included in this systematic review have been grouped according to the skills and sub-skills of the language learning applications the studies have focused on.

Table 6. Skills and sub-skills the studies have focused on

Skills and Sub-skills	f
Reading	0
Writing	2
Listening	1
Speaking	9
Grammar	1
Vocabulary	9
All-Skills	7

Table 5 makes it evident that the majority of the studies have been conducted in the areas of vocabulary, speaking, and covering all skills. Burston and Arispe (2022) state that over 40% of experimental studies have primarily focused on vocabulary acquisition; this systematic review appears to corroborate their assertion, as 35% of the included studies address vocabulary applications; when these are combined with applications covering all skills, this rate appears to be nearly equal to what Burston and Arispe (2022) stressed.

As with vocabulary applications, speaking is the other skill that is primarily focused on with a percentage of 35. However, this analysis has shown that there is only one experimental study covering listening skills published in the referred journals, while there are no publications on the reading skill, which appears to be a requirement to test the efficacy of such applications.

Research question 3: To what extent are mobile learning apps effective in learning?

In order to answer the final research question, the results of the studies have been presented in accordance with the skills they cover as mentioned above. The following table, Table 7, presents the effectiveness of the language learning applications in accordance with the language skills they focus.

Table 7. Effects of the language learning applications in accordance with skills

Skills and Sub-Skills	No Significant Difference (*f*)	Positive Effect (*f*)	Negative Effects (*f*)
All Skills	(1) in students' Spanish achievement or in academic self-efficacy between Duolingo® and traditional face-to-face instruction.	(6) Improvements in learning outcomes, communication skills, multimodal literacy, self-efficacy beliefs	(1) Cognitive loads of students were lower
Vocabulary	(0)	(9) Improvements in learning outcomes including performance, concentration, and motivation	(0)
Speaking	(0)	(9) Improvements in outcomes especially on fluency, pronunciation, and self-efficacy	(0)
Writing	(1) No difference in focused dimension	(2) Improvements in production, organization skills and lowering writing barriers	(0)
Listening	(0)	(1) Better listening comprehension and recall together with increased motivation	
Grammar	(1) No difference in test	(0)	(0)

Table 7 illustrates that the majority of the studies have reported positive outcomes, particularly in learning outcomes, self-efficacy beliefs, pronunciation, and other areas. However, this review has also shown that, despite the small number of studies on grammar and language learning applications, there is no significant effect on grammar learning from the use of language learning applications; additionally, one study found no significant impact on learners' academic achievements when using the language learning application DuoLingo.

In addition, the studies regarding the use of language learning applications on writing skills have revealed that the applications have a positive effect on learners' production and lowering their writing barriers while they have no effect in focused dimension compared to traditional face-to-face teaching. Overall, it may be commented that based on this systematic review, the use of language learning applications has a positive effect on learning outcomes while they have a few shortcomings which may be compensated by combining in-class face-to-face teaching with the use of language learning applications.

Conclusion

This study has been carried out as a systematic review of three journals: Language Learning and Technology, ReCALL, and CALL. All these journals have been indexed in SSCI and are intended to publish articles in the field of language education and technology. The articles have been chosen based on their experimental nature, including the use of language learning applications. The results of this study indicate that there are very few studies addressing the effectiveness of language learning applications aimed at the acquisition of reading skills and that the number of studies addressing vocabulary and speaking skills is much higher than that of listening, grammar, and writing. Finally, this study has also revealed that the use of language learning applications in educational contexts mostly have a positive effect on learners and learning outcomes especially based on lowering their barriers, self-efficacy beliefs, concentration and motivation.

This study has been conducted as a systematic review, and as for the further research, can be turned into a meta-analysis including the statistics it reveals. Besides, since this study is only limited to three journals, it may be expanded to further research by including other databases and conference papers to reveal more comprehensive results.

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A Review of Studies on Emergency Remote Teaching to Learners of EFL during the Pandemic

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Abstract

With the emergence of Covid-19, education, business, trade, tourism, health sectors and other parts of the life have undergone a tremendous change. Countries were caught up unprepared by this new normal lifestyle. Because of the measures inflicted during the pandemic, English language courses have been modulated via emergency remote teaching (ERT) through specific online platforms such as Zoom, Google Hang outs, WhatsApp.

Objective: The aim of this study is to review worldwide ERT took part in 2020 in terms of benefits and challenges and make suggestions based on the analyzed studies.

Method: A content analysis of 18 articles published in 2020 using qualitative or quantitative methods with student participants found by using search engines, journal websites such as Journal of European Association for Computer Assisted Learning (EUROCALL), Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), and British Journal of Education Technology (BJET), databases such as ERIC, SAGE, JSTOR, Goggle Scholar and analyzed by setting, participants, implemented methods and results within this principled review.

Results: Most of the studies were conducted in Indonesia and used qualitative research methods. Their aim was to survey student attitudes, beliefs and suggestions on ERT benefits and challenges and their perceptions about the online platforms they were instructed.

Conclusion: After reviewing the studies, it is found that students are mostly willing to attend e-classes, face benefits such as saving time, money, and practicality, and obstacles related to less interaction, technical problems, and networking problems needed to be handled within time.

Keywords: Online teaching; Emergency remote teaching; ELT; Covid-19 pandemic

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Introduction

On 12 March 2020, COVID-19 was declared a global pandemic. Several measures, such as lockdowns and social distancing, were mandated and had an undeniable impact on education in terms of teaching techniques and methodologies, assessments, psychological states of teachers and students, and their social life. Teachers around the world had to adapt their teaching methods and education settings to the changing circumstances quickly because countries were not ready for such an unexpected incident. The second academic term was spent making necessary adaptations across various countries. Throughout the pandemic, the education of almost 300 million students was interrupted by 2020, and their future education rights were threatened (Afrin, 2020). ERT was offered as a temporary alternative solution by the governments to continue their education. Online teaching took part via several platforms and applications in countries through video conferences, learning management systems and mobile apps. These platforms mentioned in the collected studies are Google classroom learning management, Cisco WebEx meeting video conferencing, Zoom, Google Meeting, Hangout, WhatsApp, Line, Regular LiVE, Unpad, Skype, YouTube, Instagram, Facebook, Moodle LMS, online blogs, Blackboard, Learn, Discord (Abel, 2020; Almusharraf& Khahro, 2020; Altan, 2020; Amin& Sundari, 2020; Danmash,2020; Destianingsih& Satria, 2020; Famularsih, 2020; Krishnapatria, 2020; Krishnan, 2020; Nugroho& Atmajo, 2020; Sujarwo et al., 2020).

In that difficult period, various information and communications technology (ICT) companies supported the schools free of charge. Microsoft offered its premium version free for six months, Zoom increased the video conference limit in several countries such as Japan, the USA, China, and Italy as they proposed so. In addition, Google introduced the recording of corporate video meetings and conferences of up to 250 people to G Suite for educational use. (Molla, 2020 as cited in Basilia and Kvavadze, 2020). Keeping in touch with students and updating them about the latest news were realized by using apps such as Telegram, WhatsApp groups (Ami& Sundari, 2020; Nugroho and Atmajo, 2020). However, there were some inequalities in terms of accessing the internet, affording computers, and students' physical setting problems rising from their socioeconomic statuses. Researchers have studied the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on daily routines, economic situations, physical and mental health, as well as education and sporting as academic activities (Clabaugh et. al,2021; Moore et. al., 2022; Smith et. al. 2022 cited in Linnes et. al. 2022). Since these inequalities might have created efficacy problems, they naturally required solutions from governments to include all students to the ERT. The pandemic's negative impact on university students varied depending on their

socioeconomic situations. There might have been social and technical infrastructure inequalities such as access to ICT tools as all learning took place remotely and online (Linnes et. al. 2022). In their study conducted to find out students' learning loss disparities during Covid-19 pandemic, Dorn et al. (2020) reported that white students had delays of 4 8 months while Black and Hispanic students had six to twelve months of delay. The report highlights that Black and Hispanic students are significantly more likely to have had no live contact with teachers and less consistent live instruction during the pandemic, which exacerbates existing educational disparities. As for the pre-pandemic time, minority students claimed that they were suffering from distractions and family obligations (Clement, 2016), and the pandemic further increased their disability because of the inflicted pandemic measures (Dorn et. al., 2020; Linnes et. al. 2022).

Thus, it can be inferred that closures of the schools may have raised educational problems for kids having such disadvantages (Ferri et al., 2020). The World Bank's Education Global Practice (2020) stated that prolonged school closures could create the problem of learning loss, which would lead to a loss of "human capital" and "economic opportunities" in the future. In addition, problems such as infrastructure issues, connection problems like slow internet and lack of internet access, and insufficient technological skills of teachers or students created disruptions in the conduct of distance education and training processes. (Alvarez, 2020; Mathew & Iloanya, 2016; Lynch, 2020 as cited in Toquero, 2021). In Netherlands, these inequalities and hindrances have caused a big learning gap among students. In Ghana, this gap is more visible because there are more inequalities among the students because of socioeconomic factors. Malaysia experienced similar impediments as well (Ferri et al., 2020). Yousuf, (2020) cited in Ferri et al., (2020) stated that governments must provide solutions to these impediments, such as developing teachers' interactive learning skills through online workshops and conferences, as well as supplying technical support for infrastructure problems and students' delivery problems in order to provide an effective teaching and learning process during the lockdown.

Besides the challenges, there have been several advantages of remote teaching such as saving time and money. Information is accessible with a single click on the searching engines, so teachers can provide whatever they want to teach or demonstrate during the virtual classes. Education has taken place anytime, anywhere comfortably via synchronous and asynchronous digital tools. Moreover, online learning provides flexible and effective atmosphere, and makes the students self-directed and self-disciplined individuals (Afrin, 2020; Ferri et al., 2020;

Ferrah& al- Bakyr, 2020). Thus, it is vital to analyze problems and advantages of remote education so as to contribute to the needs of this process and guide the education stakeholders to supply solutions. With this regard, the aim of this manuscript is to analyze how remote teaching education during the pandemic took place in the world by considering its effectiveness via students' experiences, perceptions and attitudes by means of related studies in the field of English language teaching (ELT). Moreover, its purpose is to find advantages and disadvantages of ERT that took place during the pandemic and make suggestions to experienced impediments process depending on the results of the studies.

Problem of the Study

In the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic, the global education system has faced significant challenges, including disruptions in teaching techniques, assessments, and the social and psychological well-being of teachers and students. The sudden shift to ERT has brought about a wide range of platforms and applications for online learning. However, this transition has also revealed inequalities in internet access, technological resources, and learners' socioeconomic statuses, leading to potential disparities in educational outcomes. Furthermore, while ERT offers advantages such as flexibility and cost-effectiveness, it also poses challenges related to infrastructure, connectivity, technical skills, as well as students' physical and psychological health. Therefore, there is a need to critically examine the effectiveness of ERT, and analyze students' experiences, perceptions, and attitudes towards remote education not only in other fields, but also in ELT. By identifying the advantages and disadvantages of ERT during the pandemic, this study aims to provide insights and recommendations for addressing the challenges encountered in the implementation of remote teaching and learning.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in addressing the urgent need to understand the effectiveness and impact of ERT in ELT during the COVID-19 pandemic. This global phenomenon has disrupted traditional educational practices, and created urgency to meet the demand for new methods, techniques, implementations, and practices through the use of technology. By conducting a principled review of previous studies, this research aims to provide valuable insights into the platforms used during ERT process, their effectiveness, the advantages and disadvantages experienced by English language students, and students' attitudes and suggestions regarding efficiency and effectiveness of ERT. The findings of this study can contribute to the field of ELT by informing educators, policymakers, and institutions

about the efficiency and effectiveness, and the implications of ERT process for future teaching practices. The analysis of different platforms used during ERT, and their effectiveness can help identify the most suitable and efficient tools for online English language instruction. Additionally, understanding the disadvantages and challenges faced by students during the ERT process can guide the development of strategies to mitigate these issues and enhance the quality of remote teaching. Moreover, exploring students' attitudes, beliefs, and suggestions can provide valuable insights into their learning experiences and inform instructional design and support mechanisms. In conclusion, this study has the potential to contribute to the ongoing discourse on remote teaching in ELT and provide valuable recommendations for effective implementation of ERT in future emergency situations or blended learning scenarios.

Aim of the Study

Unexpected COVID-19 pandemic declared in 2020 had a tremendous impact on education and English language teaching across the world. The entire lifestyle of people from business to education has become upside down in the name of "The New Normal". In the field of education, this sudden transformation, not only in other fields but also in ELT, may have caused some impediments that need to be addressed in the following years. During this ERT process, the ICT dominated ELT and learning so as to carry on teaching and learning effectively via some applications or platforms. However, to what extent has it been effective and what kind of advantages and disadvantages has been experienced awakens curiosity in the globe (Abel, 2020). With this regard, this study, a systematic review of previous studies conducted in ELT on ERT during the pandemic, aims to shed a light on the effectiveness and efficiency of ERT by evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of the ERT process, students' attitudes and perceptions towards ERT, and seeks relevant suggestions by examining related studies through these questions:

1. Which platforms have been used during ERT process in the world?

2. Which platforms were more effective?

3. What were the disadvantages of ERT for English language students at primary schools, high schools or universities during the pandemic?

4. What were the advantages of ERT for English language students at primary schools, high schools or universities during the pandemic?

5. What were students' attitudes, beliefs and suggestions on ERT?

Method

Data Collection

All the relevant studies published during the Covid-19 pandemic with titles containing the terms 'online learning/teaching,' 'digital learning,' 'e-learning,' 'emergency remote teaching,' 'distance learning,' or 'virtual learning,' related to 'English language teaching,' 'English language learning classes,' or 'English language learning courses' were searched. Despite the differences between these learning concepts, they were considered relevant for this study, which examines any teaching and learning practice mediated by technology in a remote setting. A total of 18 papers met the inclusion criteria for this research, which focused on the source (academic journals), the nature (empirical), and the topic (remote teaching and learning practices during the Covid 19 pandemic in ELT) of the studies.

By considering the criteria mentioned above, data collection started with creating an overall list of key terms related to the main theme in order to find all relevant studies. Articles indexed in search engines, journal websites covering studies on technology based language teaching and learning such as Journal of European Association for Computer Assisted Learning (EUROCALL), Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), and British Journal of Education Technology (BJET), databases such as ERIC, SAGE, JSTOR, Google Scholar and digital libraries were searched and identified by using the keywords "Online teaching, emergency remote teaching, ELT, the COVID-19 pandemic, 2020, virtual learning "ESL/EFL/ELT". As a result of this search, 57 articles which were mostly conducted in Eastern countries were collected by the researcher. Publication year of the studies, their objectives, research question(s), their methods (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods), their contexts (country, target language, university, high school, private courses), participant features (age, number), type of remote ELT course(s) (blended, remote), data collection instruments, and findings of the studies were identified by the content analysis method (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000) in the text of every empirical study in the dataset. After identifying the collected articles, those within the scope of this study in terms of study type, year, and context were selected. The studies included in this principled literature review are the ones which were conducted between 2020 and 2021 on ERT in the field of ELT. Besides, the studies within the content of this literature review were researched among the ones conducted with student participants of either university, high school or primary school. The eliminated studies regarding these features were:

- not conducted with students but the teachers.

- not related either with ELT, English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL).

- literature review manuscripts.

Although the studies on ERT during the pandemic were analyzed carefully, there may be potential methodological limitations in this study. There may have been missed or neglected studies as the researcher might not completely track and analyze all relevant research papers for this kind of review. If some relevant research is excluded by mistake because of methodological limitations, the researcher apologizes for the inconvenience.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed after a large collection of articles had been generated, and an initial review had been carried out, all studies that met the inclusion criteria were then fully reviewed for archiving. For the overall review, in order to arrange information from each of the reviewed articles, data forms were organized by means of previous classification forms (Sözbilir & Kutu, Yaşar, 2008). These forms include sub-dimensions such as country, setting, year of publication, research design, number of articles, participants, data collection tools and results. Changes were made to the forms when necessary. The number of studies allocated after the scrutiny, and the publication year of the articles integrated in this study are as follows.

Table 1. Publication year of the studies

Publication Year	Number of the studies in this review
2020	18

As it is seen in Table 1, all the studies in this study within remote education process in ELT during the COVID- 19 pandemic were conducted in 2020.

Table 2. Context and number of the conducted studies

Study Context	Number of studies
University	17
High School	1

Table 2 shows that among eighteen reviewed studies related to ELT through ERT, most of them took place only in university settings. One study was conducted in high school setting and students were chosen from different high schools randomly.

Research Design

The primary research method used in this study is a systematic literature review. This review aims to answer the research questions presented in the study and to provide a comprehensive understanding of the adaptations in ELT over a specific period by organizing and synthesizing relevant content. Now that ERT has been a new concept in education, understanding this recent concept is best achieved by analysing all related data by delving into its "variables, causes, and impacts" (İnal, 2022, p: 30). A systematic literature review makes it possible to thoroughly examine the related literature in detail. Thus, this method is ideal for ensuring that all available research is taken into consideration. This review incorporates qualitative elements, making it a qualitative systematic review (Snyder, 2019 cited in İnal, 2022). As Bogdan and Biklen (1998 cited in İnal, 2022) convey, qualitative research is used to understand people's behaviours and experiences. This research focuses on understanding the ERT period in ELT throughout the world and is deeply connected to English language learners' experiences during that time. To structure the research systematically, a detailed search strategy was employed to gather the sample, followed by qualitative content analysis to synthesize the findings, and address the research questions by answering them based on the related data (İnal, 2022, p: 30). Selecting the studies for this review, all kinds of research designs were accepted as a selection criterion. Based on the information provided, I have summarized the research designs used in the reviewed studies from Table 3:

Table 3. Research methodologies of the research articles

Qualitative	5
Quantitative	2
Mixed	4
Descriptive	
- Qualitative	3
- Quantitative	4

Quantitative studies: There are six quantitative studies included in the review. These studies primarily used questionnaires or surveys to gather data. The number of participants in these studies ranged from 56 to 197.

Qualitative studies: The table demonstrates eight qualitative studies included in the review. These studies mainly collected data through interviews, focusing on students' perceptions, experiences, and perspectives related to ERT.

Mixed methods studies: The table demonstrates four mixed methods studies included in the review. These studies aimed to investigate the challenges of ERT and students' attitudes towards the ERT process. They combined both qualitative and quantitative research methods and administered a questionnaire as a data collection instrument.

Descriptive research design: Some studies, both qualitative and quantitative, utilized a descriptive research design. These studies aimed to provide a detailed description of the ERT process, challenges, students' needs, preferences, and experiences. Based on the available information, it seems that the reviewed studies employed various research designs to examine different aspects of ERT and students' experiences.

Table 4. Study Setting, participants, topic and research design

Country	Number of students	Topics of the articles	Research design
Bangladesh	60	Virtual EFL Classes during COVID-19 in Bangladesh: Pros and cons of ERT with Possible Solutions at Tertiary Level	Qualitative
Belgrade Serbia	52	Online Language Teaching and Learning: Anglistics Students' Perspectives on the New Educational Environment Imposed by the Covid-19 Outbreak.	Qualitative
Indonesia	140	EFL Students' Preferences on Digital Platforms During ERT: Video Conference, LMS, or Messenger Application	Descriptive Quantitative
Indonesia	71	Digital learning of English Beyond Classroom: EFL Learners' Perception and Teaching Activities.	Descriptive Qualitative
Indonesia	35	Students' Experiences on Using Online Learning Applications Due to Covid-19 in English Classroom.	Descriptive Qualitative
Indonesia	110	English Learning Strategies of Using Application in Online Class: An ERT during Covid- 19 Pandemic	Mixed

Indonesia	56	From 'Lockdown' to 'Letdown': Students' Perceptions about e-Learning amid the Covid-19 Outbreak	Descriptive Quantitative
Indonesia	116	Investigating students' needs for effective English Online Learning during Covid-19 for Polbeng Students	Descriptive Quantitative
India	181	ELT through the Internet at Post Covid-19 Age in India: Views and Attitudes	Mixed
Italy	19	Digital Learning in Foreign Language Teacher Training in Higher Education: A case Study	Descriptive Quantitative
Malaysia	55	Challenges of Learning English in the 21st Century: Online vs. Traditional During Covid	Mixed
Mumbai	100	Utilization of Information Technology in Online Classroom for English Language Learning.	Quantitative
Palestine	197	Online Learning for EFL Students in Palestinian Universities during Corona Pandemic: Advantages, challenges and solutions.	Quantitative
Pakistan	100	Impact of Virtual Teaching on ESL Learners' Attitudes under COVID-19 Circumstances at Post-Graduate Level in Pakistan	Mixed
Saudi Arabia	12	Students' satisfaction with online learning experiences	Qualitative
Saudi Arabia	283	'I Couldn't Join the Session': Benefits and Challenges of Blended Learning amid COVID-19 from EFL Students	Qualitative
Türkiye	118 pre-service EFL teachers	Sustaining Language Skills Development of Pre-Service EFL Teachers despite the COVID-19 Interruption: A Case of Emergency Distance Education	Descriptive Qualitative
Türkiye	81	Backstage Story of a Successful Online Course Experience	Qualitative

Results and Discussion

EFL related articles within the scope of ERT are listed first in chronological order and then the ones before 2020 were eliminated. The rest of the identified articles were discussed according to possible common themes. After reviewing all the collected studies on ERT in the field of ELT, it was found that the most researched international topics on ERT during the COVID-19 pandemic were based on analyzing students' experiences, perceptions, and perspectives of the ERT process while learning English and English teaching practices at

university. The second most searched topic focused on the advantages and disadvantages of ERT in learning English or ELT practices, examining the needs and attitudes of students towards ERT environments and process. After detecting the needs, possible solutions for a better implementation during the pandemic are suggested by the authors. In evaluating research designs, all research methodologies are clearly specified in the research articles. Majority of the studies listed in Table 3 and 4 employed only qualitative research methods, reflecting the inherent focus of qualitative design on understanding complex, contextual, and nuanced aspects of educational phenomena (Creswell, 2014), explaining and commenting on experiences, collecting novel information, and acquiring insights and comprehension without preconceived notions such as ERT. It is noteworthy to indicate that qualitative research commences from instinctive knowledge, targets gaining a deeper understanding of the researched phenomenon, and has more subjectivity. (Cilic, 2020: 42 cited in Dzogovic& Bajrami, 2023). Therefore, it can be inferred these studies conducted in Table 3 and 4 within the scope of this study may have more subjective nature and deeper understanding about ERT process regarding with the quantitative or mixed ones. The second most preferred research design is quantitative. As table 4 demonstrates, half of the quantitative studies were conducted in Indonesia, reflecting a significant focus on understanding the impact of ERT in this region. The Indonesian studies predominantly employed descriptive quantitative methods to explore students' preferences, perceptions, and needs during the ERT period. In contrast, Italy and Palestine each contributed a single quantitative study that investigated digital learning in higher education and the broader challenges and solutions for online learning during the pandemic, respectively. The sole study from Mumbai by Parab (2020) utilized a statistical survey to examine the utilization and impact of information technology on accentual pattern improvement before and after teaching specific English words in online English language learning. This indicates a divergence in methodology aimed at capturing measurable outcomes. Variety in geographical focus and research design provides a comprehensive understanding of the ERT experiences and outcomes during the COVID-19 pandemic. Furthermore, the prevalence of qualitative studies, particularly from Indonesia, underscores the region's emphasis on exploring in-depth, descriptive insights into English Language Teaching (ELT) practices and their contextual applications.

The research sample sizes range from 12 to 283. Studies with small sample sizes of 12 to 81 are half of the collected research in this study, making up 50% of the total articles. The smallest sample size recorded is the one with participants enrolled in a Level 1 or Level 2 intensive English course during the COVID-19 pandemic at the College of Applied Studies

and Community Service, King Saud University. Its data is collected through individual interviews and focus groups during a six-week span. Conversely, the second most common sample size range is between 100 and 283, representing 50% of the articles. Except from two of the smaller-scale studies in this study typically involve qualitative methods focusing on participants' and perspectives, whereas majority of the studies with sample sizes between 100 and 283 primarily use quantitative or mixed methods with numerical data. The largest sample size recorded is 283, gathered through an online survey from higher education students in a quantitative study.

Finally, this study does not intend to include and analyze every single article related to the mentioned titles. Instead, the purpose is to select specific articles that represent various research directions and cover a wide range of topics. The focus is on providing examples that showcase different areas of research rather than conducting a comprehensive analysis of each individual article. The research questions are answered in the light of the selected studies from Table 4 accordingly:

Which platforms have been used during ERT process in the world and which of them were more effective according to students?

Krishan et. al. (2020) designed research to explore how learners perceive the process of learning English through free online resources compared to traditional methods during the Covid- 19 pandemic. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were utilized in this study. A total of twenty-five international pre-elementary intensive English students participated in the research. The findings indicate that learners view free online resources as valuable tools for improving their English proficiency, particularly in the areas of reading, conversation, and vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, these resources contribute to the cultivation of a conducive learning environment and facilitate the development of constructive attitudes among learners. The use of free online resources not only motivates learners but also enhances their analytical and critical thinking abilities. Furthermore, it fosters social interaction among teachers, learners, peers, and other participants, thereby promoting an engaging learning experience. In their study where they used descriptive quantitative research design, Amin and Sundari (2020) searched for students' preferences and perceptions of online platforms through a closed ended survey which was developed based on the criteria of CALL evaluation by Jamieson et al. (2013). The survey included criteria such as language learner potential, learning focus, positive impact and learning fit, authenticity, and practicality. The findings of the study

indicate that Google Classroom, Cisco WebEx Meeting, and WhatsApp were highly favoured by students as they fulfilled all the criteria in the survey. WhatsApp received the highest score (51%) for delivering materials, indicating its effectiveness in this aspect. Google Classroom, on the other hand, received the highest percentage for displaying language exercises. Approximately half of the participants found the digital tools used during ERT to be beneficial and to have potential for language learning. Regarding the meaning focus criterion, WhatsApp ranked first in terms of content material learnability with 48%, while Google Classroom received the highest score (57%) for following directions and instructions easily. In terms of learner fit criterion, WhatsApp ranked the highest for learning style (24%) and preferences (31%) scores. Overall, both WhatsApp and Google Classroom ranked at the top by students in terms of the six criteria, with percentages ranging from the 70s% to the 90s%. Google Classroom and WhatsApp scored the highest (over 90%) in terms of language learning facility, ability to focus on meaning, and authenticity. WhatsApp was also the most preferred platform (88%) in terms of practicality, positive effect, focusing on meaning, and learner fit. However, despite the positive experiences and perceptions of learning through these digital tools, none of the platforms had a positive effect on every participant in the group, resulting in lower scores for Cisco WebEx Meeting, Google Classroom, and WhatsApp (73%, 74%, and 79%, respectively). This suggests that while there were overall positive experiences, individual preferences and experiences varied among the participants. It is noteworthy that the participants seemed to prefer face-to-face learning over the online systems used throughout ERT, although they still enjoyed learning through these digital tools. The study indicates that ERT was perceived as a positive alternative to face-to-face education during the temporary conditions created by the Covid- 19 pandemic lockdowns taking place in 2020, and related social distancing measures. The participants' perceptions of English learning through digital learning activities during the 2020 were generally positive. However, the participants expressed concerns about the item "learners are comfortable using digital devices beyond the classroom," which the writers Nugroho and Atmajo (2020, p. 228) interpreted as indicating a high workload for the participants. Overall, this study highlights the preferences and perceptions of students regarding different online platforms used during ERT, indicating the strengths and weaknesses of each platform as perceived by the participants. It also sheds light on the participants' concerns about the workload associated with digital learning beyond the classroom and their overall preference for face-to-face learning. As it was found out after the pandemic that, Ng and Ng (2022) observed children were significantly impacted by the pandemic, facing temporary closures of daycare centers and schools, online homeschooling, restricted access to

recreational facilities, and other limitations, which justifies students' preference for face-to-face learning (Cost et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020 cited in Ng and Ng, 2022). They experienced social isolation from peers, teachers, extended family, and the community, increasing the risk of mental health issues such as anxiety and depression (de Laia Almeida, Rego, Teixerira, Moreira, 2022 cited in Ng and Ng, 2022). Additionally, the disruption of daily routines due to school closures led many children to spend more time on computers, iPhones, or watching television, with insufficient physical activity (Breidokiené et al., 2022; Dunton, Do and Wang, 2020 cited in Ng and Ng, 2022). Previous studies have shown that excessive screen time negatively affects children's cognitive and socio-emotional development (Domingues-Montanari,2016; Grechyna, 2020 cited in Ng and Ng, 2022) and is linked to sleep disruption (Falbe et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2022), further harming their physical and psychological health (Arufe-Giráldez, 2022 cited in Ng and Ng, 2022). These challenges highlight the importance of face-to-face learning, as it provides essential social interaction and structured routines that support children's overall well being. Additionally, the researchers underscore participants' concerns about the workload associated with digital learning beyond the classroom, as the increased screen time and lack of physical activity can contribute to both cognitive and emotional difficulties.

Three different studies conducted by Famularsih (2020), Shahzad et al. (2020), and Afrin (2020) focus on students' attitudes and experiences with online learning and its pros and cons. Famularsih (2020) conducted a study with students and used qualitative research design with semi-structured interviews. The findings suggest that most of the students perceive learning English through online activities from apps as effective and efficient. However, they also mentioned experiencing hardships during the ERT process. The specific challenges faced by students are likely to be addressed in the advantages and challenges section of this ERT study. Shahzad et al. (2020) utilized a mixed research design to survey students' attitudes towards virtual learning. The study revealed that virtual learning had a positive impact on students' language learning. However, it also highlighted several drawbacks associated with the process, such as technology-related problems and insufficient interaction. These challenges likely affected the overall experience of the students. Afrin (2020) conducted interviews with 60 students in an EFL course in his study with qualitative research design. The study concluded that online teaching is considered a viable and valuable alternative to face-to-face teaching. This suggests that students perceived online teaching as a positive approach for language learning. These studies provide insights into students' perspectives on online learning. While

students generally acknowledge the effectiveness and efficiency of online activities and virtual learning, they also face challenges and drawbacks. These challenges may include difficulties related with technology use or access, lack of interaction, and the need to adapt to a different learning environment. Despite these challenges, students recognize the potential of online teaching as an alternative to traditional face-to-face instruction.

Overall, the studies reveal that learners generally perceive online resources as valuable tools for improving their English proficiency. These resources, particularly in the areas of reading, conversation, and vocabulary acquisition, contribute to a conducive learning environment and foster positive attitudes among learners. Online platforms such as Google Classroom and WhatsApp are favored by students due to their effectiveness in delivering materials, displaying language exercises, and accommodating different learning styles and preferences. However, it is noted that individual preferences and experiences vary among participants, and some students still express a preference for face-to-face learning. Despite the positive perceptions of online learning, challenges such as technology-related issues and insufficient interaction are mentioned. Nevertheless, students recognize online teaching as a viable and valuable alternative to traditional instruction, especially during emergency situations like lockdowns in the Covid-19 pandemic. The studies emphasize the strengths and weaknesses of different online platforms and shed light on students' preferences and concerns in the context of ERT and virtual learning. To sum up, online learning is viewed positively by students but comes with its own set of challenges that need to be addressed for optimal effectiveness.

Advantages, disadvantages of ERT in learning English or ELT practices examining the needs and attitudes of students towards ERT environments and process.

The related research conducted during 2020 in ELT, focusing on students' attitudes and experiences with online learning informs us that ERT has a positive impact on implementing language teaching or English teaching practices via online platforms (Afrin, 2020; Amin&Sundari, 2020; Famularsih,2020; Nugroho&Atmajo, 2020). The study conducted by Danmash (2020) aimed to examine the advantages and difficulties associated with blended learning, which is the combination of online and face to face teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic from the perspective of EFL students. Participants in the study underwent both traditional face-to-face teaching and virtual synchronous classes for a duration of seven weeks. These classes were part of an intensive English course at either level 1 or level 2, and the

participants were expected to attend nine hours of classes each week. Qualitative data were gathered through two focus group sessions and one-on-one interviews with twelve students enrolled in a general intensive English course at King Saud University over a six-week period. The findings indicate that blended learning had several benefits for EFL students. It supported their writing skills and encouraged them to conduct online research. Blended learning also accommodated their individual circumstances and proved to be cost-effective. However, the study also identified various challenges faced by EFL students. These challenges included technological issues, shortcomings in instructor performance, difficulties with online assessments, students' attitudes toward online learning and limited resources, as well as decisions made by the university council. The study concludes by providing recommendations to capitalize on the identified benefits of blended learning, and to address the challenges encountered when teaching English in an EFL context. Famularsih (2020) conducted a study using semi-structured interviews with students. The findings suggest that most of the students perceive learning English through online activities from apps as effective and efficient. However, they also mentioned experiencing technological and interactional hardships during the ERT process. Shahzad et al. (2020) utilized a mixed research design to survey students' attitudes towards virtual learning. The study revealed that virtual learning had a positive impact on students' language learning. However, it also highlighted several drawbacks associated with the process, such as technology-related problems and insufficient interaction. These challenges likely affected the overall experience of the students. Carlon (2020) conducted a study to explore students' perceptions of the effectiveness of emergency remote education implemented within the Community of Inquiry framework. After the course concluded, students were asked to complete the Community of Inquiry Survey Instrument, which assessed their perceptions of the teaching, social, and cognitive presence within the course. The results indicate that students perceived all three types of presence as effectively implemented, with social presence scoring the lowest, which can be stated as a disadvantage. Afrin (2020) conducted interviews with 60 students in an EFL course. The study concluded that online teaching is considered a viable and valuable alternative to face to-face teaching. This suggests that students perceived online teaching as a positive approach for language learning. Overall, these studies provide insights into students' perspectives on online learning. While students generally acknowledge the effectiveness and efficiency of online activities and virtual learning, they also face challenges and drawbacks. Despite these challenges, students recognize the potential of online teaching as an alternative to traditional face-to-face instruction. The related research conducted during 2020 in ELT suggests that ERT has a positive impact on implementing language teaching or

English teaching practices via online platforms. Students perceive online activities as effective and efficient, although they also face challenges during the ERT process. Virtual learning is found to have a positive impact on language learning, but it is associated with drawbacks such as technology-related issues, limited interaction, and the need to adapt to a different learning environment. Blended learning, as explored in the study by Danmash (2020) offers benefits such as supporting writing skills and accommodating individual circumstances, but it also presents challenges such as technological problems and limited resources. The study by Carlon (2020) reveals that students perceive teaching, social, and cognitive presence as effectively implemented, with social presence being the lowest. On the whole, students view online teaching as a valuable alternative to face-to-face instruction, although they encounter challenges and adjustments in the online learning environment. Evaluating these findings can be valuable for institutions planning to develop and implement blended or fully online courses in higher education in the future.

Conclusion and Suggestions for Future Research

As we see from table 3 and 4, most of the studies were conducted through qualitative research design to seek for needs, experiences, perspectives, perceptions of students during online teaching. It is clearly observed that ERT is perceived as a savior during the pandemic times offering different facilities such as saving time, money, creating a comfortable environment by a single access to any kind of activity and information anytime anywhere and most of all carrying on learning and teaching. However, still face to face learning in a physical environment is preferred as ERT lacks enough interaction. In terms of academic success on the other hand, only one study, conducted by Parab (2020), argued that the success of specific linguistic abilities, such as pronunciation and writing, through ERT using mobile technology was achieved via a statistical survey conducted before and after teaching, resulting in significant success. Besides the attitudes, needs, advantages and challenges, more studies searching for the success of digital learning should be conducted by implementing assessments of language abilities before and after ERT with an experimental and control group. Moreover, as it is seen in Table 2, most of the studies collected and analyzed within this study integrate universities but did not entail elementary school kids learning English language through ERT. Among the reviewed research, it is seen that only one study is conducted with high school students. More studies should also be conducted with high school students, as they are preparing for university entrance exams, and some will prefer to have a profession related to English language. Finally, governments need to work on finding solutions emerging from the

aforementioned problems, such as students lacking internet access, materials and resources, and schools had better work on removing technical problems, such as audio and video quality problems, system problems and others. Findings of the studies summarized in this principled review can be valuable feedback for institutions planning to develop and implement blended or fully online courses in the field of ELT in the future.

The successful advancement of our education system relies on the integration of online resources alongside traditional methods. However, achieving this requires several actions to be taken across various areas, including education policy, curriculum planning, professional development, infrastructure, community engagement, and access. It's important to recognize that implementing this approach is not as simple as providing computers and internet connectivity. The key concern is how the education system as a whole can effectively incorporate technology into teaching and learning, seamlessly blending both aspects (Younesi& Khan, 2020). This viewpoint is supported by Kozma's (2005) research, which emphasizes that introducing technology into schools is not a quick solution for enhancing student learning. The real challenge lies in establishing consistent connections between student learning and ICT. Students need to approach technology as an intellectual partner and focus their learning efforts in conjunction with the use of technology.

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