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RESEARCH ARTICLES

Dear Reader,

We take great pleasure in welcoming you to the new issue of our ELT Research Journal with five high quality research papers. The journal aims to set up a highly qualified international academic platform for those involved in language education and teaching practices. The first article identifies and compares apology strategies employed in English by Turkish and Arab EFL students. The second paper focuses on the components of ideology by illustrating the construction of the Inventory of Ideological Components, which was developed by the researchers. The third article aims to investigate and explore native and non-native teachers' beliefs associated with factors affecting language anxiety and reflecting suggested solutions to this complicated notion. The fourth study investigates the major reasons behind the teachers' decision-making skills when departing from their pre-planned lesson plans and explores to what extent teachers' beliefs and practices of departure from lesson plans are in line with each other. The fifth paper examines the ESP courses across tourism faculties in Turkey by focusing on Hotel Management, Travel Management, and Tour Guidance Programmes to discover the association between employment needs across these programmes and English for Specific Purposes classes. The last study of the issue aims to investigate whether experience in field experience (FP) influences teacher self-efficacy in the Turkish pre-service teacher education context

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

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

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A Comparison of Arab and Turkish EFL Learners' Apology Strategies

Eda Çetin [a], Ali Öztüfekçi [b 1], Nihal Özdemir [c]

[a] *Yıldız Technical University, İstanbul, Turkey*
[b] *Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul, Turkey*
[c] *Cambridge University Press, Turkey*

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Abstract

The primary purpose of this study was to identify and compare apology strategies employed in English by Turkish and Arab EFL students. To this end, this research study further attempted to indicate the preferences of apology strategies used by both groups, making a comparison between Turkish EFL learners' and Arab EFL learners' responses in terms of frequency of using different types of apology strategies. To this end, data were collected through a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) which afforded insights into how both Arab and Turkish EFL learners adopt apology strategies in their pragmatic competence in the target language. Findings revealed that the most preferred strategy by both groups was reported to be that of Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) and that their linguistic repertoire is influenced by factors such as their proficiency level. Based on the findings of the study, further suggestions and implications are provided.

Keywords: speech acts; apology strategies; EFL; interlanguage pragmatics

Introduction

Interlanguage speakers (i.e., those of English as a foreign language speakers), irrespective of their proficiency levels, often encounter problems in communication due mostly to their limited knowledge of how speech acts are commonly performed in the target language.

[1] Corresponding author.
E-mail address: oztufekci.a@gmail.com

Such being the case, the current study aims to provide first-hand insights into Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP), which is comprised of two domains, namely, pragmatics and interlanguage. Bardovi-Harlig (2010) argues that pragmatics is the scientific study of all aspects of linguistic behaviour concerned with contextual meanings. It is the study of the speaker's meaning vis-a-vis the sentence meaning that bridges the gap between the language system and its use. To this end, Kasper and Rose (2002) describe interlanguage in association with the non-native speakers' ability to comprehend and perform acts in the target language and its relevant development. Therefore, the current study is an attempt to contribute to the relevant literature by investigating how the speech act of apology is used and performed by two different EFL learner groups.

Literature Review

Communicative Competence

According to Hymes (1972), communicative competence refers to the ability to use (utilize) grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations. In a similar fashion, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) described communicative competence as a combination of knowledge and skill needed for communication. On the contrary, Savignon (1972, 1983) highlighted the aspect of ability in her concept of communicative competence by describing it as 'the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors' (Savignon, 1972, p.8).

Canale and Swain (1980) asserted that the ability to communicate involves four different sub-competencies; grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic. Sociolinguistic competence could be defined as appropriateness of both meaning and form and embraces knowledge of dialects and language varieties, registers, natural and idiomatic expressions (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p.68). However, for non-native speakers of a language, each situation has a potential to be unfamiliar due to unknown sociolinguistic conventions (Shaw, 1992). In other words, one needs to know how to vary speech act strategies that are appropriate for situational or social variables in communication in addition to possessing linguistic and lexical knowledge (Harlow, 1990).

Speech Act of Apology

The term 'speech act' has been defined as a minimal unit of discourse, a basic unit of communication (Searle, 1969, p. 16). Speech acts are communicative activities, that is, the performance '.. of a certain act through words, e.g., requesting something, refusing, thanking, greeting someone, complementing, complaining' (Gass & Neu, 1996, p.1). Amongst speech

acts, apologies happen to be one of the most frequently employed strategies. Goffman (1971) claims apologies are remedial interchanges employed to re-establish social harmony following a real or virtual offensive act. To be precise, an apology is an indemnificatory statement used by a speaker to compensate for their harmful behaviour towards someone as is suggested by Bergman and Kasper (1991). Also, apologies are one of the essential and paramount social acts related to politeness (Deutschman, 2006). Through apologising, a speaker acknowledges that they have violated a social norm and that they are somehow partially involved in its cause (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) and they act politely 'both in the vernacular sense and in the more technical sense of paying attention to the addressee's face needs' (Holmes, 1990, p.156); thus, involving loss of face for the speaker and support for the listener accordingly.

To date, there have been many attempts to investigate the act of apology in discrete contexts and situations. Many of these studies have been conducted to compare native speakers and non-native English speakers in terms of how they utilise the act of apology. In a series of studies, Cohen and Olshtain (1985) set out to compare the use of apologies in Hebrew and English, whereby they came up with the apology act set consisting of five major apology strategies, i.e., 1) an expression of an apology/illocutionary force indicating devices(*I apologise, I'm sorry, Forgive me*), 2) an explanation or account (*the traffic was horrible*), 3) an acknowledgment of responsibility (*It's my fault/mistake*), 4) an offer of repair (*I'll pay for it*), and 5) a promise of forbearance (*It won't happen again*). Research shows that amongst these five strategies, Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) are the most central apology strategies in many of the so far examined world languages (e.g., Holmes, 1990; Robinson, 2004, Suszczynska, 1999). Drawing on this classification, there has been a growing interest within the relevant literature to compare apology strategies activated by different groups of participants. For instance, a study generated by Jung (2004) examined how Korean EFL learners performed L2 apology speech acts compared to native speakers of English as well as possible factors contributing to differences and similarities between the two groups. The relevant data were gleaned through two different (distinct) oral role-play situations. Upon finishing up the data analysis, the researcher reported that even advanced L2 learners did not have the required sociolinguistic nor did they have such sociocultural awareness so as to successfully perform the speech act of apology. More specifically, the non-native participating EFL learners differed from native speakers in terms of lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic appropriateness, all of which seemed to be resulting from variety of factors such as L1 transfer and interference, lack of appropriate L2 social norms and L2 linguistic forms to accomplish communicative intentions. Although there were some apparent similarities between the two

groups in their choice of strategy, there were still differences in terms of their linguistic choices. In a similar vein, Aydin (2013) operated research to identify and compare apology strategies used in Turkish, American English, and advanced non-native speakers of English in Turkey. The results of the study identified similarities shared by the advanced non-native speakers regarding their apologies in terms of general strategies and Turkish participants were relatively more indirect in their apologies compared to the Americans. In addition, non-native speakers rarely utilized intensifiers of the apologies despite the fact that they used cultural norms in terms of general strategies. In a similar vein, Tuncel (2011) compared the speech act realizations of 50 American and British native speakers of English who were prep-school and fourth-year learners at a university in Turkey. He discovered that learners transferred their norms into their L2 negatively in some specific situations. Both groups were observed to transfer Turkish sociopragmatic norms, fourth-year learners transferred Turkish norms in considerably more situations than prep-school learners. Furthermore, the interlanguage system of these American and British learners guided them to use divergent semantic formulas even though they had the same mother tongue and target language sociopragmatic norms. In another study, Cetin (2014) compared Turkish and Portuguese non-native students' use of speech act of apology to examine the cultural differences and find out whether pragmatic competence could be improved through teaching task-based pragmatics. The study results revealed major discrepancies across these cultures. Even though both Turkish and Portuguese have collectivistic cultures, it was scouted that there were variations in the use of speech act of apology with respect to individualistic-collectivistic tendencies.

Some authors have also explored the act of apology among distinct levels of English. For instance, İstifçi (2009) investigated the act of apology with subjects from two different levels of English to find out whether there are similarities and differences between these groups and whether they approach native speaker apology norms. 20 EFL learners at intermediate level, 20 EFL learners at advanced level and 5 native speakers participated in the study. Data were collected through a Discourse Completion Test that had 8 apology situations. To analyse the data, the responses given to the situations were categorised according to Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) apology speech act set. Results, in this regard, revealed both similarities and differences between the two groups - their L1 having an influence on their use of apologies, especially intermediate level subjects were reported to transfer native Turkish speaker norms into English.

Apology speech acts have been cross-culturally investigated mostly to gain insights into the similarities and differences between the languages. The relevant studies have, by and large,

been generated in situations where the participants learn the target language as their second and/or foreign language. What these studies have in common, as is specified by İstifçi (2009), is that the results, albeit multifaceted depending on the context, reveal that EFL learners employ language transfer from their L1, some of them approximate native speaker norms or some others use completely different formulas discrete from the formulas they utilise in their L1 or L2. Essentially, the act of apology was particularly selected for this study since it reflects cultural values.

Interlanguage pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) has been defined as 'the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p.3). In other words, ILP mainly studies how non-native speakers (NNS) make meaning of the target language and perform linguistic actions in this language, and how they develop L2 pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1992). According to Thomas (1983), L2 learners transfer the speech acts rules of their L1 into their L2, which may result in pragmalinguistic failure or in some other cases they may experience sociolinguistic failure due to their various perspectives about the appropriate linguistic behaviour. In the case of the present study, the decision whether or not to apologize and whether or not to offer an explanation for the mistake can be referred to as a sociopragmatic decision. On the other hand, if this mistake is regarded as a semantic formula in the speech act set of apologizing, it contains a rather pragmalinguistic choice (Kasper, 1992).

Methodology

Aim of the Study

The primary purpose of the current study is to identify and compare apology strategies used in English by Turkish and Arab EFL students. Originally, this research study further attempts to indicate the preferences of apology strategies performed by both groups, making a comparison between Turkish EFL learners' and Arab EFL learners' responses in terms of frequency of using different types of apology strategies. In line with the goal of the present study, the following questions were addressed:

1. What are the differences between the Turkish and Arab EFL learners in terms of using apology in English?
2. Is there any correlation between the level of English and the apology strategies of Turkish and Arab EFL learners?

Participants

Participants in the present study were 66 Turkish and 46 Arab students who enrolled in English language preparatory schools of one state and two private universities in Istanbul, Turkey in the fall term of 2019-2020 academic year. Since the number of the international students, especially Arab students, has increased in Turkey, having multinational classes in universities is a prevalent concern in the mentioned context. Therefore, the national variety of the participants was not selected specifically for the present study since the aforementioned participants were the official students at their universities and randomly distributed to their classes. Nevertheless, this random circumstance created an opportunity to get further insights into how apologetic strategies were performed by two groups of EFL learners with different L1 backgrounds and from different nationalities. Specifically, at the beginning of each preparatory school, students had taken the Preliminary English Test (PET) by Cambridge, the examination provides reliable assessment at the level above B1 (LevelB2) and the level below, Level A2 (UCLES, 2016). According to the results of PET exam, the participating students were placed to level groups in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) developed by Council of Europe.

From one of the private universities, 6 Turkish and 20 Arab students; from the other private university, 25 Turkish and 15 Arab students, and from the state university 35 Turkish and 6 Arab students responded to the survey. The age range of the students was between 17 and 20, and 60 of the participants were male while 52 was female. The native language of all the Turkish students is Turkish, and likewise Arabic is the native language of all the Arab participants in the study.

Data Collection Tool

The present study employs a qualitative approach to data collection and based on the purpose of the study a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) in English was provided to both groups to afford insights into how they adopt such strategies in their pragmatic competence in the target language. In the DCT, there exist eight apology situations which have already been used and validated by several studies e.g. Trosborg (1995), Sabaté i Dalmau and Curell i Gotor (2007), Beckwith & Deweale (2008). The primary reason to identify DCT as a data collection instrument is that the responses of participants indicate parallelism with other methods like role-plays. In addition, DCT can provide insights into what subjects think they would do in a certain situation, in the process revealing tendencies or penchants for certain formulations and routine behaviours (Sabaté i Dalmau and Curell i Gotor, 2007, p. 36).

The situations taking place in the DCT are as follows:

1. A university lecturer has not finished marking a student's essay (unfinished marking).

2. A student has forgotten to bring a lecturer's book that he/she borrowed (forgotten book).
3. The manager of a café is late to begin an interview with a candidate (late manager).
4. A waiter brings the wrong dish to a customer (wrong dish).
5. A student is late to meet a friend (late student).
6. A person hits a passenger on the bus by accident and breaks his/her laptop. (broken laptop)
7. An office worker offends a colleague during a meeting (offended colleague).
8. A person's bag falls onto another person on a bus (fallen bag).

With regard to the data collection process, the DCTs were given to the participants as handouts during their class hour, and they were expected to indicate the first answer they thought of to the questions. The participants were told not to share their insights with the other participants, and the researchers conducting the study supervised the participants during this phase in order to prevent such a situation. When the participants finalized responding to the situations in the DCT, they handed it to the researchers.

Data Analysis

Data analysis of the current study is inspired by Olshtain & Cohen's (1983) classification of apologies. The collected data was analysed and classified in pursuant of the semantic formulas indicated in each response. The categorization of Cohen and Olshtain (1981) is as follows:

1) An expression of apology (Illocutionary Force Indicating Device IFID)
a) an expression of regret (e. g. I'm sorry)
b) an offer of apology (e.g. I apologize)
c) a request for forgiveness (e.g. excuse me, forgive me)
2) An offer of repair/redress (REPR) (e.g. I'll pay for your damage)
3) An explanation of an account (EXPL) (e.g. I missed the bus)
4) Acknowledging responsibility for the offense (RESP) (e.g. It's my fault)
5) A promise of forbearance (FORB) (e.g. I'll never forget it again)

Since the above list did not cover all the responses conducted from the DCT, one type of apology strategy that Tunçel (1999) added was also used:

6) DENL (denial of fault or offense) (e.g. I did not cause the accident. You parked your car on my way!)

Frequency of each semantic formula in responses were computed via SPSS, and Chi-square analysis was conducted to check whether there was a statistically significant difference between the used apology strategies of Turkish and Arabic students.

An iterative process of reading through the data collected through DCT was initiated by all of the researchers so as to thickly describe the data at hand as it is known to be usual to move back and forth between data collection, data analysis and data interpretation (Dörnyei, 2007). Having analysed the relevant data individually, we negotiated the final form of categories through peer debriefing, sharing our thoughts regarding the interpretation process in order to ensure validation as well as establish the credibility of the study (Spall, 1998). Detailed coding and analysis were performed until after it was perceived that no further useful categories would emerge within the data to avoid misinterpretation of any kind and to ensure trustworthiness (Seale, 1999). We also counted the frequency of emerging themes in order to determine the representativeness of each of the 8 categories. Overall inter-coder reliability was 90%.

Results

The aim of the present study was to investigate the speech act of EFL learners in terms of apology, and to examine whether there were any differences in the speech act of apology utilized by Turkish and Arab EFL learners.

Table 1 displays data derived from situation 1 where a professor has not finished reading a student's report, and the student asks for it.

Table 1: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 1*

	Nationality				
	Turkish		Arab		
Apology Strategies	N	%	Apl. Strg.	N	%
DENL	1	1,5	EXPL	23	50,0
EXPL	36	54,5	FORB	2	4,3
FORB	4	6,1	IFID A	6	13,0
IFID A	9	13,6	IFID B	6	13,0
IFID B	2	3,0	IFID C	2	4,3
IFID C	1	1,5	REPR	6	13,0
REPR	11	16,7	RESP	1	2,2
RESP	2	3,0			
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.553, p > .05

As Table 1 indicates that for the first situation, both Turkish and Arab learners used an explanation of an account (EXPL) (e.g. *I'm sorry, I didn't have much time*), which constituted more than 50% for the use of both nationalities. Turkish students also used an offer of repair/redress (REPR) 16.7% (e.g. *Sorry, I couldn't finish it, but in the break come with me so that I can read and give it to you*). On the other hand, Arab students equally (13%) used an expression of apology (Illocutionary Force Indicating Device IFID) in terms of regret (IFID A)

(e.g. *I'm so sorry*) and apology (IFID B) (e.g. *I apologise for this*), and REPR (e.g. *Sorry about this. Let me read it right now*). However, denial (DENL) was not preferred by Arab students unlike Turkish ones. When the frequency of formulas was compared within the two groups, a statistically significant difference was not found since p>.05.

Table 2 below displays the statistical data derived from situation 2 in which a student forgets about returning his/her professor's book on time, and the professor asks about it.

Table 2: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 2*

	Nationality				
	Turkish			Arab	
Formulas	N	%	Formulas	N	%
DENL	1	1,5	EXPL	15	32,6
EXPL	20	30,3	FORB	3	6,5
FORB	10	15,2	IFID A	13	28,3
IFID A	8	12,1	IFID B	6	13,0
IFID B	1	1,5	IFID C	1	2,2
IFID C	1	1,5	REPR	8	17,4
REPR	22	33,3			
RESP	3	4,5			
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.03, p < .05

As it is seen in Table 2 REPR formula (33.3%) was mostly preferred by Turkish learners for the situation they imagined themselves as students (e.g. *Let me bring it very quickly*.) Also, explaining the situation (EXPL) (30.3%) was a parallel preference within this situation (e.g. *Sorry, I was in a hurry*). For the same situation, Arab learners used EXPL (32.6%) the most (e.g. *I was almost late to school, so I forgot it*.) where IFID A (28.3%) followed their first preference (e.g. *I'm so sorry for this*.) Nevertheless, these learners did not choose to use DENL and acknowledging responsibility for the offense (RESP) (e.g. *It's my fault*) formulas like Turkish learners did. The findings of Situation 2 demonstrated that there was a statistically significant difference between Turkish and Arab learners for Situation 2 as the Chi-square values indicated p<.05.

Table 3 below demonstrates the statistical values of the data derived from the situation 3 in which a manager is late and makes an employee applicant wait.

Table 3: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 3*

Nationality					
Turkish			Arab		
Formulas	N	%	Formulas	N	%
EXPL	32	48,5	DENL	1	2,2
IFID A	21	31,8	EXPL	21	45,7
IFID B	4	6,1	IFID A	7	15,2
IFID C	1	1,5	IFID B	5	10,9
REPR	7	10,6	IFID C	2	4,3
RESP	1	1,5	REPR	7	15,2
			RESP	3	6,5
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.209, p > .05

In order to respond as a latecomer manager, Turkish learners mostly preferred to explain (EXPL) (48.5%) themselves for the waiting applicant (e.g. *I had a very important meeting*.) They also indicated some other semantic formulas like IFID A (31.8%) (e.g. *I'm very sorry*.) while some of them chose to save the situation by redressing (REPR) (10.6%) (e.g. *Let me buy you a cup of coffee*.) Arab learners chose to explain (EXPL) (45.7%) themselves (e.g. I had something to deal with) and used an expression of apology (IFID A) (15.2%) as well. In contrast to Turkish learners, one learner from Arab group preferred to deny (DENL) (2.2.%). Even though both groups of learners used a variety of semantic formulas, statistically they did not demonstrate any significant difference, p>.05.

Table 4 below demonstrates the statistical scores of the derived data from situation 4 where a waiter brings wrong food to the customer.

Table 4: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 4*

Nationality					
Turkish			Arab		
Formulas	N	%	Formulas	N	%
EXPL	3	4,5	EXPL	2	4,3
FORB	3	4,5	IFID A	9	19,6
IFID A	9	13,6	IFID B	2	4,3
IFID B	2	3,0	IFID C	5	10,9
IFID C	4	6,1	REPR	20	43,5
REPR	38	57,6	RESP	8	17,4
RESP	7	10,6			
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.473, p > .05

For Situation 4 both Turkish (57.6%) and Arab (43.5%) learners offered to change the dish and redress the situation (REPR) (e.g. *Let me change your food immediately; I will bring your order quickly*.) In the same manner, both groups made use of expression of regret (IFID

A) (respectively 13.6% and 19.6%) (e.g. *I'm so sorry sir; I'm very sorry*.) Unlike Arab students, Turkish subjects promised forbearance (FORB) (4.5%) (e.g. *I will be very careful next time*.) Chi-square values demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference between Turkish and Arab learners in terms of the accumulation of their responses for Situation 4, p>.05. Table 5 below presents the semantic formula preferences of the participants in situation 5 where a student is late to meet with a friend about their project.

Table 5: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 5*

	Nationality				
	Turkish			Arab	
Formulas	N	%	Formulas	N	%
DENL	3	4,5	DENL	2	4,3
EXPL	14	21,2	EXPL	10	21,7
FORB	7	10,6	FORB	2	4,3
IFID A	18	27,3	IFID A	15	32,6
IFID B	8	12,1	IFID B	3	6,5
IFID C	7	10,6	IFID C	5	10,9
REPR	8	12,1	REPR	4	8,7
RESP	1	1,5	RESP	5	10,9
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.410, p > .05

In this situation, both Turkish and Arab learners employed a wide variety of semantic formulas. IFID A was consistently preferred by Turkish students (27.3%) (e.g. *I am really sorry*.) followed by EXPL (21.2%) (e.g. *I couldn't leave home early*.) Likewise, the same preference order was employed by Arab learners, respectively (32.6% and 21.7%). In addition, for the first time both subject groups used all the apology strategies, but with different frequencies. The results indicated that statistically no significant difference was found between the groups within Situation 5, p>.05.

Table 6 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from situation 6 where a person hits a passenger on the bus by accident and breaks his/her laptop.

Table 6: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 6*

	Nationality				
	Turkish			Arab	
Formulas	N	%	Formulas	N	%
DENL	3	4,5	EXPL	1	2,2
EXPL	4	6,1	IFID A	12	26,1
IFID A	12	18,2	IFID B	3	6,5
IFID B	1	1,5	IFID C	2	4,3
REPR	44	66,7	REPR	28	60,9
RESP	2	3,0			
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.12, p > .05

When the findings are examined, it is seen that for Situation 6 most of the Turkish and Arab subjects employed REPR (respectively 66.7% and 60.9%) as semantic formula. Some Turkish learners responded as "*Let me buy a new computer; Let me pay you expenses*." while some Arab learners offered to repair it (e.g. *Let me repair it for you*.) In the same order, both subject groups displayed an expression of regret (IFID A) (respectively 18.2% and 26.1%) (e.g. *I am really sorry; I'm very sorry*.) Unlike Arab subjects, 2 of Turkish ones (3%) acknowledged the responsibility (RESP) (e.g. *It's all my fault*.) As Chi-square results indicate in spite of different rates of semantic formulas within the groups, there was no statistically significant difference, p>.05.

Table 7 below displays the statistical findings derived from the situation 7 in which an office worker offends a colleague during a meeting.

Table 7: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 7*

	Nationality				
	Turkish			Arab	
Formulas	N	%	Formulas	N	%
DENL	6	9,1	EXPL	4	8,7
EXPL	9	13,6	FORB	2	4,3
FORB	6	9,1	IFID A	23	50,0
IFID A	25	37,9	IFID B	9	19,6
IFID B	8	12,1	IFID C	4	8,7
IFID C	6	9,1	REPR	3	6,5
RESP	6	9,1	RESP	1	2,2
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.053, p > .05

In Situation 7, Turkish learners indicated a wide variety of semantic formulas as a response. Even though they mostly preferred IFID A (37.9%) as a strategy (e.g. *I am really sorry*.), some tried to explain (EXPL) (13.6%) the reason behind the behaviour (e.g. *I didn't notice that I made you sad*.) and apologise (IFID B) (12.1%). However, the response preferences followed in the same frequency as DENL (9.1%) (e.g. *I had a point*.), FORB (9.1%) (e.g. *It will never happen again*.), IFID C (9.1%) (e.g. *Please forgive me*.) and RESP (9.1%) (e.g. *I made a mistake*.) On the other hand, half of the Arab subjects employed IFID A (50%) as the strategy while 19.6% chose to offer an apology (IFID B) (e.g. *I apologize for the thing I did*.) The other Arab learners employed various semantic formulas like Turkish ones. Chi-square results revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between groups in terms of Situation 7, p>.05.

Table 8 below displays the data derived from situation 8 where a person's bag falls onto another person on a bus.

Table 8: *Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 8*

Nationality					
Turkish			Arab		
Formulas	N	%	Formulas	N	%
DENL	4	6,1	DENL	2	4,3
EXPL	7	10,6	EXPL	1	2,2
FORB	1	1,5	FORB	1	2,2
IFID A	32	48,5	IFID A	25	54,3
IFID B	9	13,6	IFID B	8	17,4
IFID C	2	3,0	IFID C	3	6,5
REPR	1	1,5	REPR	2	4,3
RESP	10	15,2	RESP	4	8,7
Total	66	100,0	Total	46	100,0

(Turkish vs. Arab) X^2=.563, p > .05

In this situation, both group subjects employed all the strategies, but with different frequency. Expressing regret (IFID A) was the most preferred strategy by Turkish learners (48.5%) (e.g. *I am really sorry*.) beside the other IFID types. Moreover, they used RESP (15.2%) as a semantic formula (e.g. *How can I fix my mistake?*) Explaining the situation (EXPL) was another preference by Turkish subjects (10.6%) (e.g. *I couldn't put my bag properly*.) while some chose to deny (DENL) (6.1%) (e.g. *It isn't my mistake*.) More than half of the Arab subjects (54.3%) preferred to express regret (IFID A) by saying "*I'm very sorry*." Following IFID A, they also employed other expressions of apology IFID B and IFID C (respectively 17.4% and 6.5%). 4 Arab learners (8.7%) acknowledge the responsibility of offense (RESP) (e.g. *This is my wrong*.) However, 4.3% denied (DENL) the fact that it was their bag which hit the other passenger (e.g. *It wasn't me; The bus was going so fast, I didn't do anything*.) When the chi-square values are considered, there is no significant difference among the two groups regarding Situation 8, p>.05.

Analysis of the Level of English and the Apology Strategies

In order to get further insights, the correlation between the English level of both Turkish and Arab learners and the semantic formula they preferred in each situation were analysed. For every situation, the frequency of the formulas was computed based on the foreign language level. Chi-square values were considered to examine whether there was any difference between the use of learners regarding their English level. For the Situation 1, it was discovered that there was a statistically significant difference between Turkish learners based on their levels, p<.05. While A2 level Turkish learners preferred to explain (EXPL) themselves the most, the other two levels, B1 and B2, chose to express an apology (IFID). Nevertheless, the same result was not observed for the Arab subjects since in each level they all preferred to explain

themselves (EXPL), p>.05. Table 9 presents the data collected from Situation 1 in which a university professor didn't return a student's essay as promised:

Table 9: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 1*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 1	DENL	1	0	0	1
		EXPL	25	8	3	36
		FORB	2	2	0	4
		IFID A	2	7	0	9
		IFID B	0	2	0	2
		IFID C	0	0	1	1
		REPR	3	6	2	11
		RESP	2	0	0	2
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 1	EXPL	2	7	14	23
		FORB	0	0	2	2
		IFID A	0	4	2	6
		IFID B	0	3	3	6
		IFID C	1	1	0	2
		REPR	3	1	2	6
		RESP	0	1	0	1
	Total		6	17	23	46

Table 10 below designates the data collected from Situation 2 in which a student forgets to return the book on time and Table 11 demonstrates the data derived from Situation 3 in which the manager of a café is late for the job interview with a student. For Situation 2 and 3 the level of English did not have any significant effect on the preference of semantic formula of the learners. Both Turkish and Arab learners in each level chose the same formula the most, which led to no discrepancy based on the level of English.

Table 10: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 2*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 2	DENL	0	1	0	1
		EXPL	13	6	1	20
		FORB	5	5	0	10
		IFID A	5	2	1	8
		IFID B	0	1	0	1
		IFID C	1	0	0	1
		REPR	8	10	4	22
		RESP	3	0	0	3
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 2	EXPL	1	7	7	15
		FORB	0	2	1	3
		IFID A	3	4	6	13
		IFID B	2	1	3	6
		IFID C	0	0	1	1
		REPR	0	3	5	8
	Total		6	17	23	46

Table 11: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 3*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 3	EXPL	19	10	3	32
		IFID A	8	12	1	21
		IFID B	2	2	0	4
		IFID C	1	0	0	1
		REPR	4	1	2	7
		RESP	1	0	0	1
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 3	DENL	0	0	1	1
		EXPL	3	9	9	21
		IFID A	0	2	5	7
		IFID B	2	1	2	5
		IFID C	0	0	2	2
		REPR	0	3	4	7
		RESP	1	2	0	3
	Total		6	17	23	46

The similar findings were observed for Situation 4 as well since most of the learners (Turkish ones 57.6% and Arabs 43.5%) employed REPR formula as a response within this situation. Likewise, learners from both nationalities in each level shared the same apology strategy for Situation 6 in which REPR was the most preferred formula. Thus, Chi-square values displayed that there was no statistically significant difference between the learners with reference to their level of English, $p>.05$.

Table 12 presents the data from Situation 4 in which a customer claims a waiter made a mistake with the order, and Table 13 indicates the data from situation 6 in which a passenger breaks another passenger's computer in a bus:

Table 12: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 4*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 4	EXPL	3	0	0	3
		FORB	0	3	0	3
		IFID A	4	5	0	9
		IFID B	1	1	0	2
		IFID C	2	2	0	4
		REPR	20	13	5	38
		RESP	5	1	1	7
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 4	EXPL	0	2	0	2
		IFID A	0	5	4	9
		IFID B	0	1	1	2
		IFID C	0	2	3	5
		REPR	2	5	13	20
		RESP	4	2	2	8
	Total		6	17	23	46

Table 13: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 6*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 6	DENL	2	1	0	3
		EXPL	0	4	0	4
		IFID A	4	6	2	12
		IFID B	1	0	0	1
		REPR	27	13	4	44
		RESP	1	1	0	2
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 6	EXPL	0	1	0	1
		IFID A	0	7	5	12
		IFID B	0	0	3	3
		IFID C	0	1	1	2
		REPR	6	8	14	28
	Total		6	17	23	46

On the other hand, the level difference demonstrated significance only for Arab learners in Situation 5 and 8, $p<.05$. For Situation 5, while B2 Arab learners chose to express regret (IFID A) the most, A1 level learners preferred IFID C and denying (DENL). Same subject group performed a similar semantic formula within Situation 8. B2 level Arab subjects preferred to express regret (IFID A) mostly whereas A2 level learners showed a variety of responses encapsulating denial (DENL), unlike B2 level. Table 14 below demonstrates the data obtained from Situation 5 in which a student is often late, and Table 15 shows the data derived from Situation 8 in which a passenger puts their bag in the rack, and it hits another passenger:

Table 14: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 5*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 5	DENL	2	0	1	3
		EXPL	9	3	2	14
		FORB	3	3	1	7
		IFID A	9	9	0	18
		IFID B	0	7	1	8
		IFID C	6	1	0	7
		REPR	5	2	1	8
		RESP	1	0	0	1
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 5	DENL	2	0	0	2
		EXPL	0	4	6	10
		FORB	0	2	0	2
		IFID A	0	5	10	15
		IFID B	0	0	3	3
		IFID C	3	1	1	5
		REPR	0	2	2	4
		RESP	1	3	1	5
	Total		6	17	23	46

Table 15: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 8*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 8	DENL	4	0	0	4
		EXPL	3	2	2	7
		FORB	0	0	1	1
		IFID A	16	15	1	32
		IFID B	3	5	1	9
		IFID C	2	0	0	2
		REPR	1	0	0	1
		RESP	6	3	1	10
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 8	DENL	2	0	0	2
		EXPL	0	1	0	1
		FORB	0	0	1	1
		IFID A	1	8	16	25
		IFID B	0	4	4	8
		IFID C	0	2	1	3
		REPR	0	1	1	2
		RESP	3	1	0	4
	Total		6	17	23	46

Table 16 below exhibits the data derived from situation 7 in which an employee in a company offends a colleague. Findings of Situation 7 displayed different outcomes compared to the other situations based on English proficiency level. Both Turkish and Arab learners reflected a difference among each other in terms of their English proficiency level. About Turkish learners, B1 and B2 level subjects focused on IFID A formula while A2 level responses demonstrated scattered order. Similar to Turkish learners, Arab subjects employed the same distribution regarding their responses to Situation 7. Chi-square values of this analysis indicated that for both nationalities, English proficiency level had a statistically significant effect on learners' responses, $p<.05$.

Table 16: *Correlation between the Level of English and Semantic Formulas in Situation 7*

Nationality			Level of English			Total
			A2	B1	B2	
Turkish	Situation 7	DENL	5	1	0	6
		EXPL	6	1	2	9
		FORB	4	2	0	6
		IFID A	7	14	4	25
		IFID B	2	6	0	8
		IFID C	5	1	0	6
		RESP	6	0	0	6
	Total		35	25	6	66
Arabic	Situation 7	EXPL	2	0	2	4
		FORB	0	2	0	2
		IFID A	0	6	17	23
		IFID B	1	8	0	9
		IFID C	3	0	1	4
		REPR	0	1	2	3
		RESP	0	0	1	1
	Total		6	17	23	46

Discussion and Conclusion

This study explored the speech act of apology of Turkish and Arab EFL learners studying in three different universities in Istanbul, Turkey. To gather data, participants were asked to respond to a DCT. The analysis of the data provided valuable insights on the use of apology speech act used by L2 learners from two different nationalities (Turkish and Arab) and with three different English language proficiency levels (A2, B1, and B2).

The first research question of the present study aimed to examine the differences between the Turkish and Arab EFL learners in terms of utilizing apologetic strategies in English. Although there were differences between the two groups corresponding to linguistic choices, they seem to have referred to similar strategies to apologise in situations 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8, which indicates that because both groups speak the target language as their foreign language, their linguistic repertoire is influenced by factors such as their proficiency level. In a similar vein, since both groups were EFL learners, other than proficiency level, their L1, cultural factors (i.e., how they apologise in their native language) as well as social norms were seen to have an impact on how they apologise in the target language, which is in line with a

body of relevant studies in the literature (e.g., Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, & Ross, 1996; Wouk, 2006, Dalmau & Gotor, 2007). This being so, it can be argued that due to the different sociocultural values that govern language use, preferences in the use of apology strategies vary across languages (Jung, 2004). Furthermore, even though initially the researchers referred to the speech act of apology set as suggested by Olshtain (1981), the data analysis revealed a further category which was observed to be that of denial. In situations 2 and 3, the subjects were seen to use the denial strategy (Tunçel, 1999) instead of apologising, which might be thought of as violating politeness (Deutschman, 2006). As such, it can be argued that the speech act of apologising encompasses politeness, exemplifying what Brown and Levinson call (1987) 'culturally stabilized interaction rituals with conventionalised formulae'(p.285).

With reference to the second research question focusing on the relationship between English proficiency and apology strategies, the findings reported that there were both similarities and differences in terms of how these groups responded to the situations. To this end, in almost all the given situations the most preferred strategy was that of IFID, which concurs with the previous studies within the relevant literature (e.g., Robinson, 2004; Suszczynska, 1999). In this regard, the students' ability to perform the speech act of apology in English was also seen to be affected by their respective English proficiency. This particular finding is consistent with İstifçi (2009) who discovered that advanced learners made more complex strategy combinations than learners at lower stages, claiming that students' apology realisations and selections expanded as they grew more proficient in English. To this end, in our study the B1 level students were reported to make more use of apology strategies and have a higher frequency of use of strategies than the A2 students. The strategy that was used (employed) less frequently by both groups is strategy 4, acknowledging responsibility for the offense which also supports the findings of previous studies on apology speech acts (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Olshtain, 1989). This strategy rarely occurs in communication since it is situation specific i.e., it is closely tied to the situation that determines whether it is necessary to acknowledge responsibility in different domains and situations. To this end, our findings reported that there was a statistically significant difference among Turkish learners in terms of which strategy they exert to apologise in given situations. While A2 level Turkish learners preferred to explain (EXPL) themselves the most, the other two levels, B1 and B2, chose to express an apology (IFID). This particular finding echoes Jung (2004) who examined how Korean EFL learners performed L2 apology speech acts compared to native speakers of English and found that such differences resulted from variety of factors such as L1 transfer and interference, lack of appropriate L2 social norms and L2 linguistic forms to accomplish

communicative intentions. However, Arab learners were reported to perform more EXPL, which might as well be related to the fact that the participating Arab learners were at a higher level of English; thus, proficiency affecting the speech act to be performed as is denoted by İstifçi (2009) and Jung (2004).

Overall, it can be argued that our findings illustrate how non-native speakers (NNS) make meaning of the target language and perform linguistic actions in this language, and how they develop L2 pragmatic knowledge accordingly (Kasper, 1992). There are obvious cross-cultural differences as well as certain proficiency-related differences, all of which indicate that EFL learners transfer the speech acts rules of their L1 into their L2 (Thomas, 1983).

The findings of the study have to be considered in the light of some limitations. First of all, despite the invaluable information and insight provided by the participants, the current study investigated A2, B1 and B2 level Turkish and Arab EFL learners. Considering the fact that speech act of apology shows significant distinctions across levels of English, future research could include A1, C1 and C2 level EFL learners. The number of the participants could be stated as another limitation of the study. Since the data were collected from 112 EFL learners, it is hard to generalize the findings of the study. To be able to make more reliable and valid conclusions, future research may encapsulate more participants in their studies.

Conclusion and Implications

Our study comparing the speech act of apology employed by two different groups of EFL learners is intended to contribute to the respective fields of interlanguage pragmatics and speech act studies, deepening our understanding of what factors are associated with how these two groups perform the speech act of apology. The main conclusion drawn from the study is that there emerge certain factors at play when it comes down to cross-cultural differences in relation with the speech act of apology. Such differences can be closely attributed to linguistic repertoires of both Turkish and Arab learners and their proficiency levels in English. This particular finding suggests that investigations and comparisons in the speech act of apology could further examine the processes of how EFL learners from different backgrounds and cultures perform such apologetic strategies and emphasize the importance of raising awareness of cross-cultural differences. Similarly, given that we are all now living in multilingual communities and monolingualism is no longer the norm, educators, course designers, material designers, and administration at schools should be more inclusive, laying a particular emphasis on how English classes are now full of students with different L1s and from different cultures. Therefore, there is paramount relevance to the literature focusing on cross-cultural differences and how these differences might influence the performance of apology. While acknowledging

potential individual differences, we argue that a theoretical model needs to consider the specific monolingual contexts in which there is now an increasing diversity taking place in EFL classrooms.

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Appendix A

DCT English version

The current survey aims to investigate apology strategies in Turkish and English. There are situations given below which possibly require apologies. You do not have to provide an apology if you feel like it is not appropriate. Please read the situations carefully and try to provide as closest respond as possible to your natural spoken respond to the situation. The first part requires you to provide some personal information. If you feel uncomfortable, you are not obliged to provide information. All responses will be kept anonymous.

Age: Gender: Native Language:
The level of English (if not a native speaker):
English Learning background (if not a native speaker)
Education: Current Class:

Situation 1
Imagine you are a university professor. You promised to return a student's essay today, but you haven't finished reading it. The student showed up and asked for the essay. What would you say to the student?

Situation 2
Imagine you are a student. You borrowed a book from one of your professors, but you forgot to return it on time. You went to a meeting with the professor and the professor asked for the book. What would you say to the professor?

Situation 3
Imagine you are the manager of a café. Today you have an interview with a student who wants to a job in the café. However, you are half an hour late for the interview because of a meeting. The student is waiting for you in the café. What would you say to the student?

Situation 4
Imagine you are a waiter in an expensive restaurant. A costumer ordered beef, but you brought chicken instead. The costumer mentions the mistake you made. What would you say to the costumer?

Situation 5

Imagine you are a student who is often late. Today you are late for a meeting with a friend you are working on an essay with. Your friend has been waiting for you for two hours. What would you say to your friend?

Situation 6
Imagine you were in a bus and you bumped into another passenger and broke his computer. What would you say to the passenger?

Situation 7
Imagine you are working for a company. You offended a colleague during a meeting. After the meeting the colleague you offended made a comment about the incident to you by stating that he was offended by your comment. What would you say to your colleague?

Situation 8
Imagine you are travelling on a bus. You put your bag in the rack, but it fell down and hit another passenger. What would you say to the passenger?

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Developing the Inventory of Ideological Components in Language Learning through Factor Analysis [1]

Ömer Gökhan Ulum [a 2], Dinçay Köksal [b]

[a] *Mersin University, Mersin, Turkey*
[b] *Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Canakkale, Turkey*

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Abstract

Specific ideologies may be transmitted to learners in foreign language settings through course books, teachers, curriculums, or any other related course components. The present paper focuses on the components of ideology by illustrating the construction of the Inventory of Ideological Components which was developed by the researchers. The first version of the 5-scale Likert type inventory which was comprised of 60 items was administered to 900 respondents at two state universities in Turkey in 2018-2019 academic year. Reduction and classification of the items were executed by factor analysis and reliability of the scale was measured. The overall results illustrated Cronbach's alpha reliability of .93 for the scale. Therefore, researchers in the related area may utilize the instrument to diagnose the ideological components being contained in language teaching curriculum and course books.

Keywords: teaching ideology; ideological components; Inventory of Ideological Components (IIC)

Introduction

Languages may possibly convey a particular ideology of a certain culture (Hamid, Mundy, Green, Lingard, & Verger, 2016). Stern (1983) highlights the cultural facet of language instruction in a three-dimensional phase: The foundational phase contains a group

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[2] Corresponding author.
E-mail address: omergokhanulum@gmail.com

of theories related to sociology (Giddens, Duneier, Appelbaum, & Carr, 2016), anthropology (Marcus & Fischer, 2014), linguistics (Akmajian, Farmer, Bickmore, Demers, & Harnish, 2017), and education (Wexler, 2017); the cultural dimension (Sharifian, 2014) of the target language is the core of the second phase, and the socio-cultural (Lantolf, Poehner, & Swain, 2018) component of the target language is the basis of the third phase. The association between culture and language strengthens the idea that language develops a kind of cultural adjustment− represented as acculturation (Baker, 2016; Gieve, 1999; Puente, 1997; Ellis, 1989) in which foreign language learners attain the new culture composed of new norms, values, and a different worldview (Puente, 1997; Van Zyl & Meiselman, 2015).

A common frame of cultural ingredients formed by Thompson (1990) structures the bigger picture and the compounds are represented as follows: (a) the hegemony of English language (Macedo, Dendrinos, & Gounari, 2015), (b) entertainment and consumerism (Martikainen, Woodhead, & Gauthier, 2016), (c) individual issues such as values, (d) health (physical and psychological), (e) social facets such as equality and education (Allen, 2016). Cultural meanings are initially assumed to represent specific values parallel to some certain political or social ideologies which might be reflected directly or indirectly and are generally called a hidden curriculum (Karim & Haq, 2014), the objective of which is to implicitly socialize learners by means of a particular perception of the world (Hunter & Cook, 2018; Tin, 2006). Thus, this paper aims to concern the ideological components by constituting a reliable instrument to identify the ideological ingredients which are encapsulated in language teaching curriculum.

Ideology Types

Ideologies cognitively shape the main social characteristics of individuals by framing their personalities, aims, missions, status, and resources (Whitty, 2017). There are a number of ideologies mentioned in the related literature. These ideologies are comprised of language ideology, cultural ideology, gender ideology, ecologism, religion, multiculturalism, and political ideologies such as liberalism, conservatism, socialism, anarchism, nationalism, and fascism (Ulum & Köksal, 2021; Ulum & Köksal, 2020; Ulum & Köksal, 2019).

Research on Ideology

Although numerous studies which intend to interpret ‘ideology’ term and its characteristics in general are identified (Eagleton, 2014; Mannheim, 2013; Mitchell, 2013; Žižek, 1989; Therborn, 1999; Van Dijk, 1998; Billig, 1991), there additionally exist studies

focusing on every ideology individually− as language ideology (Lippi-Green, 2012; Blommaert, 2010; Irvine, Gal, & Kroskrity, 2009; Simpson, 2003; Ricento, 2000; Woolard & Schieffelin, 1994; Woolard, 1992; Friedrich, 1989; Lippi-Green, 1994); cultural ideology (LeVine, 2014; Shkedi & Nisan, 2006; Fischer-Tiné, Fischer-Tiné, & Mann, 2004; Dobson, 1986; Taksa, 1992); gender ideology (Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Krueger, 2005; Lavee & Katz, 2002; Brewster & Padavic, 2000; Greenstein, 1996; Spanier, 1995; Spence, 1993); ecologism (Bakari, 2014; Luke, 2009; Goodman, 2009; Barcena, Ibarra, & Zubiaga, 2000); religion (Dollimore, 2010; Williams, 1996; Silberstein, 1993; Ingber, 1989); multiculturalism (Kallen, 1982; Moodley, 1983; Jakubowicz, 1981; Roberts & Clifton, 1982; Garza & Crawford, 2005; Kauff, Asbrock, Thörner, & Wagner, 2013; Stevens, Plaut, & Sanchez-Burks, 2008; Carlbom, 2004; Verkuyten, 2005); and political ideologies (Heywood, 2017; Ball, Dagger, & O'Neill, 2016; Baradat & Phillips, 2016; Vincent, 2009; Dawson, 2003; Eccleshall, Kenny, & Geoghegan, 1994; Bhaduri & Marglin, 1990; Macridis & Hulliung, 1989).

Methodology

Research design

The present study aimed at validating a self-report instrument which was designed to evaluate language learners' perception of ideological components by considering the interaction between language and ideology. There are 60 items in the Inventory of Ideological Components (IIC) which might be regarded as components of ideology. While responding to the items, informants are expected to refer to their understanding of the components of ideology. Respondents indicate the value for each item in a 5-point Likert type scale by considering these items' involvement in the target language teaching curriculum. To establish the scale, a list of ideological components was developed from the relevant literature and subjected to the scale reduction procedure of exploratory factor analysis (FA). As a comprehensive combination of relevant studies, the scale was named the Inventory of Ideological Components (IIC). Having scanned the related literature, numerous research papers, questionnaires, and inventories were examined for the development of the inventory items. The researchers and experts from the related departments came together and negotiated on the items of the inventory through brainstorming technique.

Setting

The present study was conducted at Schools of Foreign Languages at two state universities in Turkey during the spring term of 2018-2019 academic year.

Participants

The participants who were incorporated in this study consisted of a random sample of 900 prep-class students. To comply with university requirements, the students have to take a university exam. All the informants consented to the use of their responses for research purposes and they responded to the items in the scale anonymously. Though the statisticians could not reach a compromise on the number of respondents to be covered, a number of 900 informants seems to be highly satisfactory as the common trend is the larger the better. For instance, Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) state the need of a minimum of 300 respondents while Nunnally (1978) puts forward a 10 to 1 ratio.

Data collection tools

The first version of the 60-itemed IIC was developed by the researchers and administered to the respondents for reliability for the instrument along. Participants' responses were on a 5-scale Likert type inventory, ranging from 1 = 'Totally Disagree', 2 = 'Disagree', 3 = 'Undecided', 4 = 'Agree', and 5 = 'Totally Agree'. The items in the inventory primarily determined to disclose the values that are assumed to be embraced in foreign language learning curriculum. The inventory was developed through no prime source for the items, yet it was a mixture of the items referred in the related literature (Bershady, 2017; Butler, Volden, Dynes, & Shor, 2017; Fotopoulos, Karra, & Zagkos, 2017; Bovin, 2015; Chomsky, 2015; Curdt-Christiansen & Weninger, 2015; Björkman, 2014; Geertz, 2014; Addison, 2011; Tollefson, 2007; Liu, 2005; Duckitt, 2001; Brewster & Padavic, 2000; Wolsko, Park, Judd, & Wittenbrink, 2000; Freeden, 1998; Woolard, 1998; DeMaris & Longmore, 1996; Van Dijk, 1995; Dendrinos, 1992; Eagleton, 1991; Thompson, 1990; Berlin, 1988; Apple, 1979).

Validity and Reliability

To ensure validity, the items in the IIC were evaluated by a native English speaker colleague, who was employed as an Instructor of English at the Department School of Foreign Languages. The main reason to consult this native speaker was his previous experience in studying such issues as ideology, hegemony, culture, and language imperialism. The overall IIC was examined with regard to its content and face validities. As the items of the ICC inventory is based on ideological dimensions, it was considered to be

valid in content. Further, as the respondents had been previously taught about ideology and its types, they were aware of the related issue and it supplied the inventory with face validity. Further, Cronbach's Alpha was employed to discover the reliability of the scale. Responses from 900 participants were utilized in the analysis. The scale was found to be highly reliable as it can be observed from Table 1.

Table 1. *Reliability of the Scale*

Cronbach's Alpha	N
.934	900

Procedure

The informants spent an hour to complete the inventory. The copies of the IIC were distributed to the informants in school of foreign languages by the researchers. Prior to responding to the inventory, the students were informed about the related terms. Thus, they were all familiar with the aim of the study. Further, they were encouraged to employ their own comprehension of ideological components by considering the relation between language, ideology, and language as the tool of ideology. Within this frame, the students handled the 60 items in the IIC which might be considered as the components of ideology. In brief, the present study aimed at developing an inventory to evaluate the perception of ideological components where theoretical basis could be supplied for latent factors. Accordingly, the items in the target inventory were subjected to the scale reduction procedure of exploratory Factor Analysis.

Findings

Having formed a list of items for the inventory, a factor analysis was conducted in the following order. A pool consisting of 60 5-point Likert type items was initially developed to construct the scale. After the development of the 5-point Likert type item pool, the scale was administered to the respondents to conduct a factor analysis. Once the factor loadings connected with the scale were analyzed on a Principal Components Matrix, it was detected that the scale was composed of 7 factors. However, items a4, a5, h51, h52, and h53 were found to be problematic by the researchers as they either had a factor loading below .30 (Costello & Osborne, 2005) or similar loadings in multiple factors. These items were taken out and the analysis was operated again. In the second analysis, Chi-square results represented that the scale could be utilized ($X = 5094.998$, $df = 1121$, $p < .001$). By observing

the second analysis, one could clearly understand that all the items include factor loadings above .30 in 7 factors (Table 2).

Table 2. *Factor Loadings*

Factor 1	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**	**Factor 4**	**Factor 5**	**Factor 6**	**Factor 7**
e38	b9	c22	d27	i58	f47	a1
e39	b8	c23	d29	i59	f46	a2
e36	b10	c21	d28	i57	f45	a3
e40	b11	c20	d31	i56	f48	b6
e37	b7	c24	d26	i54	f44	
e35	b12	c19	d30	i55	f42	
e33	b16	c25		i60		
e34	b14					
e32	b17					
f41	b13					
f43	b15					
g50	b18					
g49						

Discussion and Conclusion

The exploratory factor analysis results represented an eight-component scale of the IIC, comprised of *General Social Constructs*, *Social Institutions*, *Group Relations*, *Group Constructs*, *Socio-cultural Values*, *Ideologies*, *Behavior Systems*, and *Personal Cognition*. As previously mentioned in the literature review, the ideology term necessitates the inclusion of a number of ruling ideas such as nationalism, religion, ethnicity, race, economy, gender, culture, history, and others. Accordingly, the given components in IIC refer to these common ideologies. The 'ideology' and 'language' terms have often existed together in recent cultural studies, sociolinguistics, and anthropology (Lee, 2017; Woolard & Schieffelin, 1994). Though the ideology concept is pervasive in the related literature, it is employed in different and frequently vague ways which restrict its value as an analytical term (Verschueren, 2012;

Vovelle, 2016). The basic vagueness derives from the fact that the ideology term does not provide criteria to differentiate between ideological (Boudon & Bourricaud, 2002) and non-ideological ideas (Levy, 1991). It is substantial to develop critical thinking skills in ESL and EFL classes based on distinct theories and perspectives (Ordem, 2017b). In addition, critical pedagogy in these language classes should be introduced and instructed and reinforced so that teachers and learners can develop a critical perspective towards ideological components as well (Ordem, 2017a). Having no such ability to make differentiations, the term cannot attain empirical relevance. Further, ideology related terms may be overlapped− as in ideology and hegemony (Mouffe, 2014). In the study, after conducting a deep literature review to discover ideological compounds, the researchers and experts from the related departments negotiated on the items of the inventory through brainstorming technique (Goldenberg & Wiley, 2011). Having composed a list of items for the inventory, a factor analysis was conducted accordingly (Thompson, 2004).

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Component Loadings

	RC 1	**RC 2**	**RC 3**	**RC 4**	**RC 5**	**RC 6**	**RC 7**
a1	-0,028	-0,011	0,214	0,012	0,008	0,032	0,788
a2	0,071	-0,002	0,105	-0,016	-0,037	-0,021	0,763
a3	-0,078	0,026	0,203	0,034	-0,001	0,05	0,81
b10	0,146	0,674	0,023	0,156	0,04	0,26	0,088
b11	0,095	0,668	-0,016	0,197	0,082	0,265	0,044
b12	0,205	0,628	-0,001	0,046	0,122	0,07	0,014
b13	-0,046	0,504	0,003	0,007	0,225	0,164	0,18
b14	0,32	0,574	-0,004	0,073	0,091	0,028	-0,069
b15	-0,025	0,487	0,041	0,14	0,09	0,178	0,316
b16	0,246	0,621	-0,019	0,105	0,14	-0,017	-0,053
b17	0,039	0,546	0,011	0,128	0,161	0,024	0,135
b18	0,113	0,455	0,137	0,114	0,06	0,121	0,007
b6	-0,19	0,248	0,051	0,061	0,061	0,171	0,378
b7	0,294	0,647	-0,016	0,057	0,053	-0,001	-0,113
b8	0,279	0,74	-0,037	0,083	0,064	0,046	-0,103
b9	0,206	0,746	0,005	0,094	0,041	0,141	-0,029
c19	-0,028	0,006	0,769	0,011	0,047	0,03	0,074

c20	-0,085	-0,001	0,844	0,009	0,025	0,084	0,102
c21	-0,052	0,038	0,847	0,054	-0,003	0,052	0,116
c22	-0,035	-0,006	0,88	0,058	0,025	0,044	0,065
c23	-0,04	0,038	0,877	0,013	-0,03	0,075	0,054
c24	-0,094	0,017	0,811	0,035	-0,001	0,097	0,082
c25	-0,053	0,014	0,733	0,116	0,022	0,076	0,109
d26	0,142	0,193	0,157	0,675	0,123	0,098	0,029
d27	0,249	0,241	0,043	0,811	0,094	0,044	0,025
d28	0,312	0,189	0,013	0,788	0,099	0,018	-0,015
d29	0,257	0,183	0,026	0,791	0,104	0,056	0,037
d30	0,148	0,06	0,058	0,627	0,067	0,178	0,012
d31	0,244	0,128	0,047	0,731	0,16	0,079	0,031
e32	0,638	0,123	0,011	0,291	0,193	0,024	-0,059
e33	0,77	0,135	-0,07	0,213	0,146	0,058	-0,08
e34	0,768	0,197	-0,112	0,175	0,114	0,045	-0,072
e35	0,775	0,169	-0,078	0,129	0,169	0,093	-0,021
e36	0,806	0,149	-0,069	0,103	0,158	0,125	-0,039
e37	0,783	0,146	-0,052	0,136	0,197	0,116	0,021
e38	0,832	0,146	-0,051	0,135	0,121	0,132	0,022
e39	0,83	0,17	-0,063	0,112	0,129	0,113	0,006
e40	0,784	0,188	-0,064	0,082	0,14	0,128	0,031
f41	0,619	0,112	0,011	0,108	0,114	0,315	0,016
f42	0,201	0,192	0,061	0,033	0,069	0,554	0,12
f43	0,553	0,177	-0,026	0,151	0,152	0,331	0,057
f44	0,426	0,205	0,019	0,13	0,076	0,563	0,091
f45	0,329	0,155	0,023	0,117	0,088	0,662	0,04
f46	0,234	0,166	0,098	0,064	0,185	0,677	-0,018
f47	0,147	0,121	0,167	0,131	0,135	0,713	-0,006
f48	-0,025	0,118	0,131	0,036	0,179	0,652	0,022
g49	0,502	0,191	-0,021	0,175	0,268	0,043	-0,071
g50	0,552	0,167	0,002	0,137	0,282	0,086	-0,08
i54	0,385	0,144	0,021	0,099	0,603	0,157	-0,044
i55	0,041	0,094	0,106	0,035	0,566	0,312	0,031
i56	0,284	0,191	0,018	0,102	0,689	0,102	0,017
i57	0,299	0,144	0,008	0,156	0,718	0,094	0,003
i58	0,25	0,118	0,009	0,098	0,747	0,15	0,044
i59	0,306	0,164	0,046	0,063	0,734	0,124	0,015
i60	0,155	0,113	-0,056	0,119	0,533	-0,001	-0,02

Appendix 2

Inventory of Ideological Components (IIC)

The scale includes 55 items under two dimensions− social and cognitive. Respond to the items considering to what extent each ideological component is/should be included in EFL education (including EFL textbooks).

The following ideological components are/should be included in EFL education (including EFL textbooks).	**Totally Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Totally Agree**
1. Social Dimension					
1.1. General Social Constructs					
1. Democracy	1	2	3	4	5
2. Republicanism	1	2	3	4	5
3. Monarchy	1	2	3	4	5
1.2. Social Institutions					
4. Political Institutions (e.g. political parties)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Educational Institutions (e.g. schools)	1	2	3	4	5
6. Medical Institutions (e.g. hospitals)	1	2	3	4	5
7. Security Institutions (e.g. police, military)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Judicial Institutions (e.g. judiciary)	1	2	3	4	5
9. Political Institutions (e.g. banks)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Economy Institutions (e.g. TV channels)	1	2	3	4	5
11. Religious Institutions (e.g. mosques, churches)	1	2	3	4	5
12. Charities (e.g. UNICEF)	1	2	3	4	5
13. Government Institutions (e.g. parliament)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Family Institutions (e.g. parents and children)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Organizations (e.g. organization of retired)	1	2	3	4	5
16. Ethnic and Cultural Groups (e.g. Americans, Africans)	1	2	3	4	5
1.3. Group Relations (Sensitivity and awareness)					
17. Handicapped people	1	2	3	4	5
18. National differences	1	2	3	4	5
19. Ethnic origin	1	2	3	4	5
20. Gender	1	2	3	4	5
21. Religion	1	2	3	4	5
22. Political diversities	1	2	3	4	5
23. Age diversities	1	2	3	4	5
1.4. Group Constructs					
24. Identity (national/cultural)	1	2	3	4	5

25. Missions	1	2	3	4	5
26. Goals	1	2	3	4	5
27. Principles	1	2	3	4	5
28. Social status	1	2	3	4	5
29. Standards	1	2	3	4	5
2. Cognitive Dimension					
2.1. Social Cognition					
2.1.1. Socio-cultural Values					
30. Intelligence/general knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
31. Honesty	1	2	3	4	5
32. Equality	1	2	3	4	5
33. Value judgment	1	2	3	4	5
34. Morals	1	2	3	4	5
35. Social principles	1	2	3	4	5
36. Social justice	1	2	3	4	5
37. Social solidarity	1	2	3	4	5
38. Social unity	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.2. Ideologies	1	2	3	4	5
39. Ethics (e.g. right and wrong behaviors)	1	2	3	4	5
40. Politics (e.g. democracy)	1	2	3	4	5
41. Knowledge (e.g. nature of true knowledge)	1	2	3	4	5
42. Law (e.g. legislation)	1	2	3	4	5
43. Economy (e.g. wealth distribution)	1	2	3	4	5
44. Gender (e.g. social roles of women and men)	1	2	3	4	5
45. Race (e.g. representing races)	1	2	3	4	5
46. Religion (e.g. imposing a particular religion)	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.3. Behavior Systems					
47. Affirmative attitudes	1	2	3	4	5
48. Multiculturalism	1	2	3	4	5
2.2. Personal Cognition					
49. Personal values (e.g. personal preferences of social values)	1	2	3	4	5
50. Physical values (e.g. beauty)	1	2	3	4	5
51. Interpersonal values (e.g. teamwork)	1	2	3	4	5
52. Psychological values (e.g. determination)	1	2	3	4	5
53. Personal ideologies (e.g. personal interpretation of group ideologies)	1	2	3	4	5
54. Personal attitudes/behaviors	1	2	3	4	5
55. Personal knowledge (e.g. experiences)	1	2	3	4	5

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How Is Anxiety Perceived? Reflections from Native and Non-native Instructors in Higher Education [1]

Esma Şenel [a 2]

[a] *Beykent University, İstanbul, Turkey*

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Abstract

It is a well-known fact that language anxiety is one of the biggest challenges in the language learning process. It is frequently observed when teaching speaking and writing skills. Although there is a growing interest in examining the potential reasons and possible solutions to this concept, there are not many studies that have investigated the beliefs of native and non-native EFL instructors at the tertiary level. To fill this gap and contribute to the related literature, this study investigated and explored native and non-native teachers' beliefs associated with factors affecting language anxiety and reflecting suggested solutions to this complicated notion. The study was generated with 21 EFL instructors at a prep school of a foundation university in Turkey. Semi-structured interviews and open-ended questions were employed to collect the data. The qualitative data were analyzed by means of the content analysis method to obtain the results. The findings of the study indicated that there is not a significant difference between native and non-native teachers' beliefs in terms of language anxiety in productive skills. On the other hand, native teachers believe that learners have more trouble with writing than speaking skills whereas non-native teachers have the opposite perception. It is suggested that providing constructive feedback and building up a rapport between teachers and learners will help overcome language anxiety in productive skills.

Keywords: Language anxiety, EFL, writing apprehension, speaking anxiety

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[2] Corresponding author.
E-mail address: esmasenel@gmail.com

Introduction

English has become a global language with rapid advancements in technology. This globalization necessitates communicating proficiently in written and spoken language. However, learning a foreign language is a complex process which brings along distinct problems and individual differences such as learners' beliefs, attitudes, motivation, expectations, and affective states (Aydın, 2008). Anxiety is one of the challenging problems that foreign language learners experience when they are introduced to a new language. As an affective state, language anxiety is considered as a block hindering achievement and quality of the process in foreign language development. As the focus of this study, foreign language anxiety appears to be a significant variable that affects the language learning process to a great extent.

Literature Review

Anxiety is defined as an uncomfortable emotional state in which one perceives danger, feels powerless, and experiences tension in the face of an expected danger (Blau, 1955). Several attempts have been made to define and classify language anxiety. To a greater extent, language anxiety is a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). It is defined by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) as a fear which occurs in situations that require the use of language by an individual who is not properly competent in a foreign language.

Anxiety can be categorized into three distinguished types: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is considered as an aspect of personality and a more permanent disposition to be anxious (Scovel, 1978). State anxiety, on the other hand, is a kind of apprehension experienced at a specific moment as a reaction to a particular situation (Spileberger, 1983). Lastly, situation-specific anxiety is linked to apprehension that is unique to particular situations and events (Ellis, 1994). With regard to these definitions, trait anxiety is steady whereas state anxiety is restricted to anxiety-provoking factors (Horwitz, 2001). As an affective factor, foreign language anxiety is discrete from trait and state anxiety and it aligns with situation-specific anxiety (Aydın, 2008; Ellis, 2012). There are three kinds of foreign language anxiety under this category: fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension, and test anxiety. Fear of negative evaluation is experienced when foreign language learners feel incompetent in making the proper social impression and it is an

apprehension towards evaluations by others and avoidance of evaluative situations (Aydın, 2008). Communication apprehension is associated with the fear of communicating with others even though the learner has mature thoughts and ideas (Aydın, 2018). Finally, test anxiety, an apprehension towards academic evaluation, is a fear of failing in tests and an unpleasant experience held either consciously or unconsciously by learners in various situations (Horwitz & Young, 1991). Gardner (1985) notes that all kinds of anxiety would not dominate foreign language learning, however, "a construct of anxiety which is not general but instead is specific to the language acquisition context is related to second language achievement" (p.34). Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's theory of foreign language anxiety has been challenged by opposing perspectives. Sparks and Ganschow (1995) claim that anxiety should not be discussed without inferring a cause. In other words, foreign language anxiety should be considered as a result rather than a cause (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991, 1995). Horwitz (2000), argued against Sparks and Ganschow's theory, stating that they were not able to explain the reason why successful and advanced learners declared anxiety in the learning process. Both theorists, in fact, have not completely refused the views they had claimed.

Foreign language anxiety may have a close relationship with the affective filter hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1982). According to the researcher, the ultimate benefits of comprehensible input rely upon the learners' positive feelings and an unthreatened environment. If these conditions are not provided, then the learners' affective filter is raised and prevents the input from being acquired and processed. On the other hand, if the affective filter is lowered, the comprehensible input that the learners are exposed to will contribute more efficiently to absorb a new language. In other words, the hypothesis suggests that the language block may be decreased by encouraging interest, providing a relaxed and anxiety-free atmosphere, which hints that our pedagogical aims should not only include comprehensible input, the substantiality is to provide an encouraging environment of a low filter (Huang, 2012)

When four language skills are considered, speaking and writing skills are most influenced by anxiety (Atay & Kurt, 2006; Sutarsyah, 2017). However, research on second or foreign language speaking anxiety has dominated the related literature (Horwitz et al., 1986; Philips, 1992; Ellis, 1994; Woodrow, 2006). As a result of this, the development of instruments was designed to measure speaking-related items. The most well-known of these instruments was the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986) which deals mainly with anxiety over spoken communication. Young (1991) noted that learners who fear of making verbal mistakes do not participate in activities in the class. This implication is close to Koch

and Terrell (1991) who indicated that speaking in public is a factor triggering foreign language anxiety. In the same vein, Ay (2010) argues that students who are expected to speak without previous preparation experience anxiety most. Lastly, Price (1991) specifies that fear of making pronunciation errors is another source of language anxiety.

Returning briefly to writing anxiety, trends in anxiety demanded a shift of a neglected and unexplored area. Recognition of the existence and significance of writing apprehension has been a prominent result of extensive research on interpersonal communication (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999). Daly and Miller (1975) coined the term writing apprehension referring to discomfort with writing tasks. Daly (1985) remarks that people's dispositional feelings about composing are closely related to writing apprehension, indicating that willingness to engage in writing tasks is far more important than having that skill or competence. Writing provokes a kind of writer's block among EFL learners despite being the most private and self-controlling of four language skills (Leki, 1999). A broader perspective has been adopted by Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert (1999) who argue that anxiety in second language writing stems from low writing-related self-esteem, negative attitudes towards the writing task, and fear of negative evaluation. This view is supported by Kurt and Atay (2007) who highlight that learners feel stressed and helpless since they are required to complete the task alone. The level of anxiety also determines the quality of the written product among learners. The lower their anxiety is, the better their written tasks (Hassan, 2001).

When considering research related to speaking and writing anxiety in the Turkish EFL context, the number of studies is too limited. Students in Turkey have to study English in primary, secondary, and higher education. From this standpoint, foreign language anxiety is a crucial concern, and a promising research area needed to be investigated in depth. Due to the limited number of studies, it is not possible to draw a general conclusion with reference to foreign language anxiety in the Turkish context. Thus, the aim of this study to investigate the native and non-native teachers' beliefs of language anxiety.

Research questions

With regard to these concerns, this qualitative study examines the following research questions:

1. Are there any differences between native and non-native teachers' beliefs of language anxiety when teaching productive skills?
2. What are the causes of speaking and writing anxiety?

3. What are the possible solutions to overcome speaking and writing anxiety?

Method

The current study adopted a qualitative research design to obtain an in-depth analysis of the problem from the perspectives of participants. Qualitative research comprises a collection of empirical materials such as interviews, case studies, artifacts, introspection, and life stories that help define problematic areas in individual's lives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). The most distinctive feature of this method is that qualitative design lets researchers analyze the subject matter from the viewpoints of their participants and understand the meanings and interpretations that they attribute to objects, behaviors, or events (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2020). Thus, this study is built on qualitative research design to examine native and non-native teachers' beliefs of language anxiety, causes of writing and speaking anxiety, and suggestions to cope with language anxiety in productive skills.

Participants

The participants of this study encapsulate 21 EFL instructors working at a foundation university. 12 of the participants are non-native teachers and 9 of them are native teachers. From the non-native group, 5 of the participants are female and 7 of the participants are male. In the native group, 4 participants are female and 5 participants are male. When all participants are classified in terms of their experiences, 38% of participants have almost five years of experience, 29% of the participants have experience between five and ten years, and lastly, 33% of participants have more than ten years of experience.

Instruments

An online open-ended questionnaire was employed to obtain demographic information about participants and semi-structured interviews were established to obtain relevant information in correspondence to the views of participants.

Data collection procedures

The data were collected in fall term in 2019. In the first stage of the study, the researcher identified the study group on a voluntary basis and took the consent of the participants before conducting the research. Participants who were willing to be involved in the study were sent an online open-ended questionnaire to gather demographic and background information in

association with the beliefs about teaching productive skills. Participants were requested to have an online interview when they were available. The interview was conducted on an online platform. The interview questions were reflected without any interventions and in an unbiased manner. The researcher consulted three experts from the field to determine whether the interview questions reflected the purpose and problems of the research. It was a significant phase of the research for the credibility of the study. Qualitative data from semi-structured interviews and the open-ended questionnaire were analyzed by means of content analysis method to gain a detailed understanding of the problem and to capture the complexities of the phenomenon. The basic process in content analysis is to gather similar data within the framework of certain concepts and themes and to organize and interpret them in a way that the reader can understand (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2006) and the main purpose in content analysis is to reach concepts and relationships that can interpret the collected data. Therefore, the researcher transcribed recordings and coded the data. Subsequent to determining the relevant phrases in the highlighted sentences, the codes are clustered to analyze the data consistently. The participants who belong to the native teachers' group were represented as ‘‘NP’’ and non-native participants were represented as ‘’P’’.

Findings And Discussion

The findings obtained from open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews revealed four main themes as follows:

1. Beliefs of productive skills
2. Problems encountered when teaching productive skills
3. Reasons for speaking and writing anxiety
4. Suggestions for overcoming anxiety

The participants’ views were combined with codes and related themes and they are separately presented in tables. The codes are listed according to frequency. Direct quotations of participants are also represented when analyzing the data.

Beliefs of Productive Skills

Table 1

Native and Non-Native Teachers Beliefs of Productive Skills

Native Teachers	**Non-Native Teachers**
Translation (7)	Producing incorrect forms (10)
Frustration (6)	Unwillingness (9)
Reluctance (6)	Not paying attention to feedbacks (7)
Being weak at expressing opinions (5)	Inadequate self-confidence (6)
Ignore feedbacks (4)	Inadequate vocabulary development (3)
Making mistakes (4)	Feeling uncomfortable (3)
Having troubles (3)	Translation (2)

Table 1 presents the findings which incorporate the beliefs of participants in terms of speaking and writing skills. As can be noticed from the table, the most cited belief is trying to translate everything in the natives' group (n=7) and producing incorrect forms in the non-natives' group (n=10). Direct quotations from both groups are presented below.

''They have difficulties in producing sentences both in written and spoken. I believe that this is a result of not paying enough attention on reading and listening.'' (P3)

''There are always typical grammatical mistakes in their papers although they have been warned about them a lot of times. In terms of speaking productiveness, they hardly ever try to make up grammatically correct and fluent sentences.'' (P7)

''These are the skills that the students are the weakest at because they are always trying to translate every piece of information and this damages the flow.'' (NP2)

''They want to get prepared even for speaking classes. Their mobile dictionaries are always active and they are addicted to translating everything even proverbs and idioms.''(NP4)

From these excerpts, it can be implied that students have a common problem with productive skills and they are not good enough in written or spoken communication. They are producing incorrect forms and translation is one of the obstacles inhibiting their language development. It is encouraging to compare this figure with that found by Tavakoli, et.al (2014) who reported that translation is not an influential strategy to redound the ability and achievement in productive skills.

Other indicators denoted by participants in the native teachers' group are frustration (n=6), reluctance (n=6), ignoring feedbacks (n=4), making mistakes (n=4), and having troubles (n=3). In the non-native teachers' groups, other problems are unwillingness (n=9), not paying attention to feedbacks (n=7), inadequate self-confidence (n=6), inadequate vocabulary development

(n=3), feeling uncomfortable, and (n= 3), translation. It is somewhat surprising that while translation is the most cited belief in the native teachers' group, it is the least cited belief in the non-native teachers' group. Sample direct quotations from the participants are presented as follows:

''In general, I believe that my students have lots of trouble with their writing and speaking skills. Grammar is a difficulty.'' (NP3)

''They are reluctant to produce anything.''(NP9)

''They feel frustrated when speaking in front of their peers and when they have to write second drafts.''(NP6)

''They are not willing to participate in speaking activities. They do not want to write so they do not regularly attend writing classes.'' (P2).

''They do not care about written or oral feedbacks I provided.'' (P11)

''Lack of motivation and self-confidence are the biggest obstacles my students have had in productive skills.'' (P6)

''Their vocabulary development is really low. That's why they have difficulty in producing something regarding their levels.''(P8)

The findings identified in these responses indicate that teachers in native and non-native teachers' groups perceive that students have difficulty in productive skills and there are different factors and reasons affecting this process.

Problems Encountered When Teaching Productive Skills

Table 2

Problems participants encountered whilst teaching speaking and writing skills

Native Teachers	**Non-Native Teachers**
Lack of motivation (6)	Anxiety (9)
Anxiety (7)	Lack of motivation (8)
Fear of making mistakes (6)	Fear of making mistakes (7)
Feeling bored (5)	Lack of self-confidence (5)
Feeling shy (4)	Not willing to participate (5)
Indifference (2)	Trying to use complicated chunks (4)

Table 2 presents the findings regarding problems encountered when teaching productive skills. It is apparent from this table that the most cited problem in the native teachers' group is anxiety (n=7). Interestingly, the most cited problem in the non-native teachers' group is also anxiety (n=9). Direct quotations from the participants are as follows:

''The biggest problem with speaking is anxiety. Especially girls are really shy and feeling anxious in speaking activities.'' (NP1)

''I think they have speaking anxiety mostly because they do not have enough practice and they do not have enough cause for using it outside of a classroom.'' (NP7)

''I think they have anxiety because of pronunciation worries for speaking and they do not enjoy writing in their own language so English is more worrisome (NP5)

''Most of them have a high level of anxiety. Most probably, the biggest reason is their age. When they are adults, they are afraid of making mistakes in front of others. When they speak or write, they want to say or write everything grammatically perfect.'' (P4)

''Almost all students in the classroom feel worried when they are supposed to speak and write in the target language. Talking in front of their peers causes anxiety for some students.''(P9)

''They are very anxious and they have fear of making mistakes or using the wrong word.''(P1)

It can therefore be assumed from these excerpts that anxiety is one of the most challenging problems whilst teaching speaking and writing skills. It may be considered as a kind of apprehension which blocks language teaching and learning. It is encouraging to compare this result with those observed in earlier studies (Kara, Ayaz, & Dündar, 2017). The first question in this study sought to determine if there was any distinction between native and non-native teachers' beliefs of language anxiety. The comments above illustrate that native and non-native teachers have similar beliefs related to language anxiety when teaching speaking and writing skills.

Other problems designated by participants in the native teachers' group are lack of motivation (n=6), fear of making mistakes (n=6), feeling bored (n=5), feeling shy (n=4), and indifference (n=2). In the non-native teachers' group, other important problems are lack of motivation (n=8), fear of making mistakes (n=7), lack of self-confidence (n=5), not willing to participate (n=5), and trying to use complicated chunks (n=4). Sample direct quotations from the participants are presented as follows:

''They are trembling with fear and they always think that they are going to produce something wrong.'' (NP4)

''Sometimes they think that writing is boring. They don't see speaking as important or real work.'' (NP9)

''Some are quite shy and seem embarrassed for contributing.''(NP2)

''Their motivation is so low especially when they are writing. They are unwilling to attend writing classes.'' (P3)

''I think they are afraid of making mistakes and they have lack of self-confidence.''(P7)

''They want to produce complex sentences even though they don't know how to organize ideas. They just focus on fluency, not accuracy.'' (P12)

The most interesting aspect of this data is that the frequency of the second and third most cited problems are in the same order in both groups. This finding may also suggest that native and non-native teachers have similar perceptions concerning the problems encountered when teaching productive skills.

Reasons for Speaking and Writing Anxiety

Table 3

Reasons for speaking and writing anxiety

Native Teachers	**Non-Native Teachers**
Unwillingness (8)	Fear of making mistakes (9)
Fear of negative judgment (7)	Lack of self-confidence (8)
Fear of negative evaluation (6)	Lack of preparation (7)
Fear of failure (5)	Feeling stressed (6)
Not revising (5)	Prejudice (5)
Feeling shy (4)	Unwillingness (5)
Age (1)	Lack of vocabulary knowledge (4)
	Age (2)

Table 3 presents findings regarding the reasons for speaking and writing anxiety. From the table above we can see that the most cited reason in the native teachers' group is unwillingness (n=8) whereas it is fear of mistakes (n=9) in the non-native teachers' group. Sample statements from both groups are as follows:

''The indifference or unwillingness to speak and write in English makes learners more anxious and worried.'' (NP6)

''They are not willing to complete any speaking activity or writing portfolio. That's why their anxiety is triggered by unwillingness.''(NP3)

''Lack of vocabulary knowledge leads them to fear of making mistakes. When they are feared of making mistakes, their anxiety level increases.''(P6)

''Some of them feel worried and anxious in speaking and writing activities. This may result from not having enough language background and fear of making mistakes.''(P8)

According to these data, we can infer that unwillingness and fear of making mistakes may be considered as the most striking anxiety-provoking factors. Having a moderate level of motivation and self-confidence might help decrease language anxiety and overcome language barriers that anxiety triggers. Consistent with the literature, findings of this research revealed that participants who reported fear of making mistakes and unwillingness are sources of foreign language anxiety (Aydın, 2008; Liu & Jackson, 2008).

With respect to the second research question, it was discovered that other reasons that have been stated by participants in the native teachers' group are fear of negative judgment (n=7), fear of negative evaluation (n=6), fear of failure (n=5), not revising (n=5), feeling shy (n=4), and age (n=1). Reasons that have been expressed by participants in the non-native teachers' group are lack of self-confidence (n=8), lack of preparation (n=7), feeling stressed (n=6), prejudice (n=5), unwillingness (n=5), lack of vocabulary knowledge (n=4), and age (n=2). It seems possible that there are slight discrepancies between native and non-native teachers related to causes of problems when teaching productive skills. The number of reasons provided by the non-native teachers is higher than the ones stated by native teachers to some degree. However, there are slight differences between the two groups related to the beliefs of reasons triggering speaking and writing anxiety. It is difficult to explain this result, but it might be related to the cultural background or experience of participants. Sample statements from participants are presented as follows:

''Judgment among peers is a big problem in a classroom setting.''(NP3)

''Negative evaluation both from teacher's and classmates' side causes some troubles.''(NP8)

''I think because of fear of failure and shyness. Being evaluated in front of a large audience, sometimes hostile, makes the students feel anxious. In my context, boys never accept to be laughed at in front of girls' classmates.''(NP1)

''Students do not have the habit of revising any subject. When they leave school, education finishes for them.''(NP7)

Actually, in the speaking class most people are happy to talk. However, Some students a reluctant to participate. They are either introvert, shy or anxious. For the writing class most student hate writing expression. They find it difficult and causes anxiety and boredom.''(NP5)

''They don't have enough self-confidence to express their feelings and ideas. This is especially true for speaking classes. They are more self-confident when they write.''(P11)

''Students don't revise what they have learned regularly. This is a serious problem for all language skills, especially for writing lessons. They seldom write their second drafts.''(P7)

''Students sometimes stay silent and not participate in class because their minds are filled with unwanted and stressful thoughts.''(P4)

''They have negative attitudes towards learning a foreign language. One of the reasons that kill their productivity is prejudice towards English.''(P2)

''The problem of not having enough vocabulary knowledge that help them to produce content writing or speaking.'' (P9)

It can be inferred from these excerpts that not having enough self-confidence, self-esteem, and being shy may be considered as possible factors triggering anxiety among language learners. This finding is in accordance with recent studies indicating that language anxiety causes learners to have lower self-confidence and self-esteem when they produce a piece of work (Kayaoğlu & Sağlamel, 2013; Okay & Balçıkanlı, 2017).

Suggestions for Overcoming Anxiety

Table 4

Possible solutions for speaking and writing anxiety

Native Teachers	**Non-Native Teachers**
Building up a rapport with learners (8)	Creating a peaceful environment (9)
Not focusing on mistakes (7)	Practice more (8)
Exposure to language outside the class (6)	Giving constructive feedback (7)
Paying more attention to learners' interests (5)	Preparing more effective lessons (6)
More games and fun activities (5)	Encouraging to read more (4)
Promoting pair/group work (3)	Encouraging to take risks (4)
Use humor (2)	Using technology (2)
Practicing self-talk (2)	

Table 4 provides an overview of the findings with respect to solutions to overcome language anxiety. As can be distinguished from the table, the most common solution is constituting a rapport with learners in the natives' group (n=8) and creating a peaceful environment in the non-natives' group (n=9). Direct quotations from the participants are as follows:

''Create a comfortable environment and try to maintain good relationships with all students. They need to feel valued.''(NP2)

''Creating an environment that helps students progress and a friendlier education system that supports the relationship between teachers and learners.''(NP5)

''Providing learners a friendly and warm learning atmosphere would be a potential solution to relieve their anxious mood and enhance their learning.''(P3)

''Provide a safe and peaceful learning environment where students feel comfortable and learn better.''(P6)

The aim of the third question in this research was to identify possible solutions and suggestions to overcome speaking and writing anxiety. From these statements, we can infer that creating an environment where students feel peaceful, safe, and less stressful; building up a rapport between teacher and learners may enhance and support students' learning in a positive way and might be regarded as substantial factors to decrease speaking and writing anxiety among students. This finding broadly supports the work of other studies in this area linking language anxiety and less stressful language learning conditions (Tekşan, Mutlu, & Çinpolat, 2019; Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Horwitz et al. 1986). In accordance with the present results, these studies have demonstrated that a less stressful learning atmosphere and expressing worries freely make it possible to reduce language anxiety.

Concerning the third research question, other solutions suggested by the participants in the native teachers' group are not focusing on mistakes (n=7), exposure to the language outside the class (n=6), paying more attention to learners' interests (n=5), more games and fun activities (n=5), promoting pair/group work (n=3), use humor (n=2), and practicing self-talk (n=2). Solutions that have been suggested by the participants in the non-native teachers' group are practice more (n=8), giving constructive feedback (n=7), preparing more effective lessons (n=6), encouraging to read more (n=4), encouraging to take risks (n=4), and using technology (n=2). The variety of suggestions may stem from participants' cultural background, level of education, experience, and age. Direct quotations from the participants are as follows:

''They need a system based on encouraging more despite making lots of mistakes. Explicit correction makes learners focus more on mistakes rather than their success.''(NP1)

''The biggest challenge for language learners is that they don't have a chance to practice what they have learned out of class. They can be supported by online activities and have an opportunity to practice at home.''(NP9)

''Exercises better tailored to students interest with more interesting and unusual contexts will help a great deal.''(NP4)

''Set learners to practice again and again by making colorful lesson plans in writing classes and set learners to practice their talk at home before coming to class.''(P5)

''Ungraded writing assignments with constructive feedback and draft writing through gradual check may be useful to handle with language anxiety. The audio-visual materials offering self-recording and repeating may also work.''(P8)

''As an instructor, I believe that it will be really helpful to make our lesson plans more effective by considering the factors of learning styles, their needs and motivation in order to encourage them to take part in their learning.''(P12)

It can be inferred from these statements effective teaching strategies that allow learners to study and practice both in and outside of the classroom, activities that incorporate interesting subjects drawing learners' attention might be regarded as significant concerns to avoid speaking and writing anxiety. This finding was also reported by Aydın (2008) who demonstrated that teachers needed to utilize effective strategies to scaffold their learners.

Conclusion

The main goal of the current study was to determine native and non-native teachers' beliefs concerning factors which affect language anxiety and proposing effective solutions to this problem. One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is that speaking and writing are problematic areas to teach from the teachers' aspect, and adverse skills to acquire from the learners' aspect. The reasons that make this learning process very complicated are mainly fear of making mistakes and unwillingness among language learners. Having low insufficient self-confidence, not boosting self-esteem, and being shy are other important factors that cause learners to feel more anxious when they are speaking or writing. The most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that speaking and writing anxiety may be avoided with some smooth solutions. Providing learners with a supportive, non-threatening learning environment, maintaining good relationships, and helping them feel less stressed might be listed as possible solutions. In addition to this, teachers' effective strategies and preparing more interesting content may be included to cope with language anxiety. These findings have significant implications for the understanding of how speaking and writing anxiety arouse and are prevented in the learning process, and the insights gained from this study may be of assistance to realize the important factors and solutions to consider when encountered in a negative situation during teaching and learning. In accordance with most studies, the present research is not without its limitations. When interpreting the results, it should be considered that the data was collected from only one university, thus the generalizability of the findings is limited to this context. Further research in this field would be of great help in conducting more comprehensive research with more participants and a valid questionnaire administered to both learners and teachers.

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Exploring EFL Teachers' Decision-Making Skills: Departure from Lesson Plans

Serhat Başar [a 1]

[a] *İzmir Institute of Technology, İzmir, Turkey*

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Abstract

This qualitative study primarily investigates the major reasons behind the teachers' decision-making skills when departing from their pre-planned lesson plans. This study also aims to explore to what extent teachers' beliefs and practices of departure from lesson plans are in line with each other. Data were collected through multiple sources including pre-interviews, observations, and post-interviews. Four tertiary level EFL teachers whose teaching experience was ranging from one to three were interviewed initially for the underlying beliefs related to departure from lesson plans. Then they were observed to examine how they depart from their lesson plans. Finally, they were interviewed again in terms of reflective thinking upon observation findings. The findings of the study indicated that four major categorical reasons influenced the teachers' deviation from their pre-determined lesson plans. These reasons were mainly related to academic concerns, affective factors, classroom management, and timing. The study also revealed that the teachers' underlying belief systems had a significant role in shaping what they did in their classes, which was examined individually for each participant. Based on these findings, some possible implications corresponding to curriculum and lesson plan design were discussed within the social constructivist theory and humanistic approach.

Keywords: Decision-making skills; departure from lesson plans; lesson plan; teacher beliefs; teacher practices

[1] Corresponding author.
E-mail address: serhatbasar@iyte.edu.tr

Introduction

There has been an increase in recent studies examining teacher beliefs in the field of language teaching. The reason for its significance in language teaching is that teacher beliefs can have a long-term influence on teachers' instructional practices in their classes (Crawley & Salyer, 1995). Also, beliefs can be a more effective component than knowledge in terms of shaping teachers' behavior and their decision-making processes regarding task organization and definition (Nespor, 1987). The reason why beliefs have profound influence on teacher practices could be attributed to its complex nature that is based on previous experiences, personalized and context-sensitive perspectives, and attitudes (Farrell & Lim, 2005). Another substantial aspect of teacher belief studies is the discrepancies occurring between teacher beliefs and practices, which constitutes a term that may also be defined as 'divergence, inconsistency, mismatch and incongruence' (Borg & Phipps, 2009, p.380).

Studies on teacher beliefs can be encapsulated within several categories comprising the pre-service language teacher cognition, in-service language teacher cognition, teacher cognition in grammar teaching, and teacher cognition in literacy instruction (Borg, 2006). Based on this categorization of literature, it is possible to suggest that study of teachers' beliefs has a limited scope that is in need of broader research areas. One of these research areas is teachers' beliefs on the curriculum that they have to implement at their institutions. The evidence from the studies conducted on teacher approaches to curriculum indicates that various approaches to curriculum implementation yield some results that are different from one another. Differences in the implementations of the curriculum may influence teachers, students, and the curriculum itself, and the curriculum is likely to turn into a different learned or taught curriculum compared to its original formal version as a result of these changes in the implementation (Randolph, Duffy, & Mattingly, 2007; Shawer, Gilmore, & Banks-Joseph, 2008). Considering this aspect of curriculum implementation, Shawer (2010) concludes that curriculum approaches of teachers affect their professional development, students' learning, and motivation. This distinction made upon the diversity of teaching outcomes regarding teachers' beliefs indicates that language teachers go through a process of decision-making on various components of teaching incorporating material selection, activities, and approaches (Brumfit & Rossner, 1992). With respect to the relationship between beliefs and language teachers' decision-making skills, it seems that beliefs can shape the decisions made by teachers.

Considering teacher beliefs and practices in language teaching, lesson plans also embrace a profoundly significant role in offering a framework to facilitate the teaching process by aiming to achieve the learning objectives (Vdovina & Gaibisso, 2013). Lesson plans help teachers make a connection between what is required in the curriculum and what is taught in the classroom (Lee, Chen, & Khum, 2009). Teachers are mostly responsible for developing lesson plans in accordance with the pedagogical objectives of the lesson and student needs and interests, which makes lesson planning a challenging process. In this sense, teachers are expected to have adequate critical thinking skills for the design and implementation of the lesson plans (Setyono, 2016).

As this study examined the main reasons and beliefs behind the departures from lesson plans, one of the main focuses was on the reasons or principles urging language teachers to depart from their pre-determined lesson plans. The other focus was on the teachers' beliefs about these departures and how these departures influenced their teaching. Based on this rationale, the current study was conducted to find answers to the following research questions:

1.) What are the major reasons behind the teachers' decisions to depart from their pre-planned lesson plans?

2.) To what extent are teacher beliefs and practices of departure from lesson plans in line with each other through these decision-making processes?

Theoretical Framework

Social constructivist approach

Language teachers contemplate a considerable number of factors to decide on departures. These factors can be examined within the framework of relationships between teachers and students as a vehicle for critical empowerment (Vygotsky, 1962; Van Der Veer & Valsiner, 1991; Freire & Macedo, 1995; Valsiner, 1995; Freire, 1998). The social constructivist approach underlines the significance of the fact that individual and social processes of knowledge construction are not independent of each other (Palincsar, 1998). This view is also supported by Carlson (1999) since the nature of the structure surrounding the dialogue and the level of thinking found in the dialogue trigger construction of decisions made by teachers and students. Another factor is the process of reflective thinking that language teachers go through. Reflective thinking does not constitute the ideas that come to one's mind by chance without any successive thoughts since it is based upon some existing thoughts (Dewey, 1933). In the

same vein, Richardson (1997) argues that social constructivism is a phenomenon that leads to the creation of understandings with the interaction of what individuals believe and what they come across in the context they learn and teach. These ideas specified within the social constructivist framework can establish a basis for the decision-making processes of teachers and how they decide to deviate from their lesson plans by considering the contextual factors.

Humanistic approach

Teaching with the perspective of the humanistic approach embodies a person-oriented framework that can help teachers to unlock students' natural curiosity and establish self-confidence among students (Rogers, 1995). Moreover, a great deal of attention has been given to affective factors with the rise of the humanistic approach in language learning since 'the emotional side of human behaviour' is a necessary component of language teaching and learning process. (Brown, 1994, p.135). These affective factors encompass feelings, moods, emotions, self-confidence, attitudes, and most importantly motivation (Krashen, 1982). Affective states of students have a key role in determining their both long-term and short-term learning experience (Ellis, 1994). As language teaching implications that are in line with the humanistic approach value students' feelings and emotions, these implications aim to enhance cognitive processes such as memory and perception by considering the influence of emotions and feelings on these cognitive processes (Parkinson, Totterdell, Briner & Reynolds, 1996). Regarding this framework, teachers' beliefs and practices might be shaped with the consideration of affective factors, which may lead to decisions to initiate departures from pre-planned lesson plans. As these human-related feelings do not fall apart from the context where learning and teaching occur, teachers can tend to adapt their practices in accordance with these affective states.

Literature Review

Designing lesson plans and implementing these plans in a real classroom makes it necessary to consider many factors that might have an effect on the process. In this sense, developing appropriate lesson plans is a complicated process since teachers should have information about the target group, teaching context, students' needs, interests, characteristics as well as their proficiency level (Sahin-Taskin, 2017). While teaching in the class and following the lesson plan, teachers try to maintain the flow of the lesson to comply with the plan and encourage student participation to achieve learning objectives (Paoletti & Fele, 2004). Some deviations initiated by students or teachers may appear while conducting the lesson plan.

Reactions to these deviations can be performed in a variety of ways. Teachers may leave the ongoing task and deal with the deviation stemming from a student (Li, 2013). Teachers can also resort to irony to imply that what is initiated by the student is a departure, or they use this departure as a chance to remind the learning goal (Waring, Reddington, & Tadic, 2016).

Departure from the lesson plan is one of the situations in which language teachers can make a decision. A departure from a pre-determined lesson plan can occur when a teacher who has a particular plan and steps in his or her mind has to change the flow of the lesson in case of unexpected adversities experienced in the class environment (Ulichny, 1996). Unlike the case stated by Ulichny (1996), the reasons for departure may also be driven from teachers' beliefs irrespective of the difficulty or easiness of the tasks, which means divergence from pre-planned lesson plans can occur in various conditions. Likewise, Richards (1998) stated that on-the-spot modification of the pre-planned activities provides teachers to make the activities more interesting and engaging to involve students in the activities. In a similar case, decisions that are made to depart from planned lessons can be due to students' affective states or teacher-oriented factors such as lack of material, which results in making unanticipated decisions (Smith, 1996). According to Smith (1996), the reason why teachers depart from their pre-planned lessons can be attributed to the interactions between their pedagogical choices and contextual factors including instructional setting and students.

Limited research studies conducted on decision-making skills of language teachers regarding departure from lesson plans have mostly focused on teachers' beliefs concerning departures, their practices of departures in the class, and the reasons triggering diverges from pre-determined lesson plans. Another issue that is considered to be significant is the institutional influence in the decisions made by language teachers. The study generated by Osam and Balbay (2004) investigated the decision-making skills of cooperating teachers and student teachers of English in a Turkish context by exploring seven student teachers and four cooperating teachers at a public school during their practicum. Results indicated that the main reasons leading teachers to diverge from their lesson plans were timing, classroom management, discipline problems, motivation, physical conditions, and language skills, which changed between student teachers and cooperating teachers. In addition, Osam and Balbay (2004) stated that both cooperating and student teachers violated their lesson plans which were based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The reason why they departed from their plans and paid more attention to accuracy, rote-learning, and teacher-centeredness was related to their language learning experience imposed by their national and local institutions.

Another study conducted by Sougari (2011) explored the student teachers' decision-making skills about lesson planning and the impact of the practicum on these decisions. 99 EFL student teachers in a state university in Greece were examined with questionnaires. The data collected via questionnaires demonstrated that there were some discrepancies between what student teachers believed and what they did during decision-making processes. Besides, the reasons for departures stated in the pre-lesson questionnaire and post-lesson questionnaire were distinct in that learner involvement was highlighted in the former one. However, time constraints, discipline, and learner motivation were among the most prioritized reasons for why they departed from their lesson plans in the latter one. The reasons for teaching out of a pre-determined lesson plan were also indicated by Bailey (1996). These were common interests in a specific topic, teaching to the moment by some amendments, furthering the lesson by a procedural change, accommodating students' learning styles, promoting the students' involvement, and preventing more verbal students from dominating the class.

Differing from the studies mentioned above, Waring, Reddington, and Tadic (2016) conducted a conversation analysis based on the videotaped data of two ESL teachers. In this analysis, Waring et al. (2016) revealed how these teachers managed to maintain control when the learners started a departure in the classroom. Focusing on the strategies such as ironic teasing and reminding the learning goal employed by the teachers to redirect the departure to the learning point, Waring et al. (2016) remark that effective use of these control mechanisms enhances the classroom management and preserves the rights of learners who are relatively quiet. However, the reasons behind these departures or perceptions of the teachers towards these departures are not considered in this study, which hinders having a more comprehensive look at incidents of departure and the probability to use these departures for pedagogical purposes.

Considering the limited number of the studies and lack of variety in the scope of these studies, there is a need for more studies that might reveal the underlying factors behind the reality of departures. There are few studies revealing that departures take place because of several factors (Bailey, 1996; Osam & Balbay, 2004; Sougari, 2011), and some studies lack the underlying reasons behind departures by focusing on how departures occur (Waring et al., 2016). As departures are the incidents that frequently happen in language classrooms, there is a need for more comprehensive studies focusing on why departures take place, how teachers perceive these departures, and how these departures are utilised by teachers to be integrated

into the pedagogical and curricular objectives, which might lead to a betterment in learner engagement and affectively more plausible classroom atmosphere.

Methodology

Setting and participants

The participants for this study were four female EFL teachers from the preparatory school of an English-medium university in Turkey. Their teaching experience was ranging from two to three. All of the participants were required to teach for 24 lesson hours in a week. As all of them were advisor teachers, which means they have an extra responsibility to be the academic advisor of their classes. Most of the scheduled teaching hours were allocated for their classes. At this institution, as each year is separated into four academic tracks, the number of lessons that these teachers use to perform changes from 16 to 24 depending on the track. The lessons instructed by the participants were namely main course, reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The proficiency level of the students ranged from elementary to intermediate. Each class had approximately 20 students including international learners. These students were expected to reach an adequate English proficiency level to be qualified for their English-medium departments. Participants had a pre-planned curriculum to follow; however, they were free to adopt any approaches to teach the target subjects, which allowed them to make changes in their daily or weekly lesson plans. All participants were informed about the procedures of the study, and they were given an informed consent form informing about their rights throughout the study.

Table 1: Participants' background information (Pseudonyms were used for the participants)

Name	Taught level	Year of experience	Education
Aysu	Intermediate	3	• B.A. Translation and Interpretation • M.A. American Literature
Beril	Intermediate	2	• B.A. Translation and Interpretation • M.A. Sociology
Candan	Intermediate	3	• B.A. ELT • M.A. ELT
Dilek	Intermediate	2	• B.A. ELT • M.A. ELT

Research Design and Instrumentation

As two main concepts (beliefs and practices) were taken into consideration to establish a comprehensive overview of what language teachers thought and did, qualitative research

techniques were conducted to obtain data for what language teachers perceived about their teaching practices including decision-making, designing lesson plans and deviations from lesson plans, and to what extent they could implement these beliefs in real classroom environments. For this reason, a qualitative case study was adopted considering the inseparable aspect of the case and context boundaries (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2018). Two qualitative research instruments were employed: semi-structured interviews and unstructured observations.

Pre-observation semi-structured interview was the primary phase of the instrumentation. It was conducted before observation sessions started. The participants were interviewed individually at the institution where they worked. It took approximately 15 minutes. This instrument also enabled me to establish a relationship with interviewees by developing a good rapport for the quality of data (Saldana & Omasta, 2018). This interview was conducted to shed light on language teachers' initial beliefs, theoretical background affecting their teaching methodologies and expectations. The focus of this data collection tool was to explore what they did in class to implement their teaching goals, how they evaluated the outcomes, specifically how they decide to depart from pre-determined lesson plans.

One lesson of each participant was observed without any pre-prepared scale to reflect what happened in class more comprehensively and analytically. Before the session started, the participants were asked to share their weekly and daily lesson plans. What they planned to teach was noted down to be able to notice any departures during the observation. The data was collected in two categories which were descriptive and analytical. The overall flow of the lesson was described, and incidents related to departure from the lesson plan were noted down and analyzed briefly within an analytical category. Furthermore, the lessons were audio-recorded for further analysis. The main purpose of these unstructured observation sessions was to note down the situations in which participants performed inconsistently associated with their previous explanations in the interview. These inconsistencies were used to detect other potential reasons for departure form lesson plans, and the differences between beliefs and practices were examined in detail.

Post-observation semi-structured interview (30 minutes) was the final step of the instrumentation. It was targeted to the participants the day after the observation sessions ended. It was semi-structured to provide participants with the freedom to evaluate themselves within their own perspectives. They were also ensured some transcribed instructions that occurred in the class intending to help the participants recall what had happened and why they preferred it,

which also provided a chance to conduct member-checking. Furthermore, it enabled participants to have an active role in the research rather than being passive objects by making meaning out of their experiences (Seidman, 2006). The participants were expected to reflect upon their behaviours in the class, departures, and the reasons behind these departures. Furthermore, as this interview allowed me to compare the previous interview and observation, it was beneficial to reach a more holistic position to deal with the data yielded through the triangulation of these instrumentation sources.

Data analysis

With reference to the analysis of data, all interviews and observation recordings were transcribed using *Transcribe.* Firstly, an inductive approach was implemented for all qualitative data sources (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Silverman, 1993). Each data source was analysed by means of within-case analysis (Patton, 1990), and a descriptive coding strategy was employed to name the words, phrases, and sentences emerging as codes (Saldana, 2014). All recurring patterns and notions utilized by the participants were noted down. For the pre-interview transcripts, the main focus was on the utterances concerning the participants' beliefs about their teaching practices and departure from lesson plans. For each participant, related segments were noted down on the chart prepared for 4 participants. Field notes taken during the observation sessions supported the transcriptions of the observation sessions. All departures were analysed and possible categorical reasons for departure were marked considering the context they occurred. Besides, all consistencies and discrepancies were noted on the table prepared for beliefs and practices. Transcripts of the last interview conducted after observation sessions were analysed, and each reason stated by the participants for the departures was marked to be matched with the categories that emerged from observation notes. As all data sources and stages of analysis were triangulated to provide reliability and validity for the data, an iterative analysis manner was used, which means categories were viable to change based on new patterns emerging from data. (Dörnyei, 2007). At the end of the analysis of each stage, all data sources were analysed together to reach a more common theorizing of the themes, and relationships between the participants' beliefs and practices were noted.

Findings

The analysis of teachers' beliefs, practices, and their observed departures from lesson plans indicated that what the participants believed and what they did in their lessons were in line with each other. Four over-arching themes emerged from the data to explain the reasons

behind the teachers' decision to depart from the lesson plan: affective factors, academic needs, classroom management, and timing. Also, the data illustrated that each participant's beliefs and practices were aligned with each other, which is displayed individually in the second section of the findings.

Reasons for departure from lesson plans

The analysis of teachers' beliefs and practices highlighted four themes which can be regarded as major reasons urging the participants to do some changes in their lesson plans during the lessons.

Affective factors

Affective factors determine the proportion of language learners' input and intake. The affective factors incorporate certain emotions, such as motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, and so on in the process of acquiring a second language (Ni, 2012). Beliefs regarding affective concerns influenced the decisions made for departure.

Analysis of some incidents in the class yielded a series of reasons which can be related to affective factors encouraging the participants to depart from their pre-determined lesson plans. One of the participants (Dilek) extended the time allocated for the movie trailer, which was not embodied in her plan. During the post-observation interview session, she stated that she made students continue to watch the trailer because she realized that it had drawn her students' attention. In the second case, Beril started a discussion based on YouTube channels. When she was asked for the reason, she expressed that she had selected that topic to catch the students' attention and to make them feel more relaxed before starting the next task. Also, at the beginning of this lesson, Beril decided to depart from her lesson plan by stating that:

> *After the previous writing lesson, I had two options for them. Scenario writing and video-watching/acting. They did in-class writing, so I didn't want to tire them and I chose the second one.* (Beril, Interview 2)

This decision made by Beril designates that she considered her students' affective state as a reason for departure. Candan also departed from her expected lesson plan in order to motivate her students during the lesson. She started to give some information about an upcoming extra-curricular event, which excited students. After a brief discussion, Candan proceeded to follow her plan. Finally, Dilek was expected to work on worksheets that she had prepared for past modals, but she decided not to hand them out. During the post-interview, she stated that:

> *It was the last lesson. We were all tired and that final activity would be challenging for us. So, I decided to work on it the following day*. (Dilek, Interview 2)

Academic needs

What students needed and how much more they could learn influenced the way teachers made decisions about the flow of the lesson. Teaching beliefs of teachers had an substantial role in changing the scheduled activities. What teachers believe in terms of academic goals can lead to departures stemming from these beliefs.

> *I prefer to focus on the content not structure even if our material is about grammar. Vocabulary and discussion opportunities are more important to make them speak* (Candan, Interview 1)

In the first interview, Candan focused on her belief about the efficacy of content rather than structure. Towards the end of the lesson, she decided to turn a grammar activity which was based on a fill-in-the-blank text about mysterious jobs into a speaking activity, which is consistent with her aforementioned belief:

> *I wondered what they thought about it and I wanted to activate their background knowledge, so I turned it into speaking activity*. (Candan, Interview 2)

As her teaching beliefs support a more content-based teaching/learning process, she decided accordingly to meet her students' academic needs.

Second crucial factor determining the teachers' strategies to meet their students' academic needs was their proficiency level. The proficiency level of the students affected the way the participants diverged from their lesson plans. For instance, as Beril and Candan's level of classes were relatively more advanced than Aysu and Dilek's classes, Beril and Candan stated that they could change their lesson plans in action in order to teach extra grammar or vocabulary, which reflects their beliefs about what to teach and how to teach. In contrast to Beril and Candan, Dilek and Aysu pointed out that they preferred to facilitate learning via revisions, extra examples, and exercises. These beliefs were also supported by the participants' practices in that Aysu made a revision session instead of presenting the new topic she had prepared beforehand. Dilek also tried to facilitate past modals via extra exercises and examples during her lesson. In this case, they departed from their lesson plans to facilitate the learning process of their relatively low-level classes, however Beril and Candan changed their lesson plans to meet the needs of their students in grammar and vocabulary, which illustrates a consistent association between the participants' beliefs and practices.

Classroom management

Teachers sometimes deviated from their pre-determined plans to manage the classroom by coming up with new tasks, transforming the activities, and involving the students behaving disruptively into their lessons. In one of the cases, having shown the movie trailer, Dilek was talking about how past modals were used to make a deduction, however she realized that some of the students were not listening to her. She decided to come up with some examples about her students' lives, which drew the students' attention and they all stopped talking. As she noticed that they were interested in those examples, she gave more to keep them awake, which reveals the necessity to change the flow of the lesson to prevent disruptive behaviour. Another departure that occurred in Dilek's class corresponded to her students' disruptive behaviour as well. While she was leading a discussion about the deductions made in the movie trailer, she was interrupted by two overwhelmingly disruptive students, which forced her to make a change in her lesson at that time. She had those students stand up and go to the board. She expected them to write what their peers uttered as an example. They were taking notes on the board while their peers were discussing the movie trailer, which prevented them from performing disruptive behaviours.

> *One of the students was talking and I wanted him to stay away from there, so I gave him a task. I made him write an example on the board about past modals and he continued to write the other examples.* (Dilek, Interview 2)

She departed from the lesson by deciding on the procedure. She intended to have a more plausible environment by giving extra engaging tasks to the students bothering her teaching. The other example is from Candan's class. When she detected that some of the students were talking about the vocabulary item that they were discussing, she let those students give some examples about it, which relieved the class. After listening to their examples, she continued to teach. She gave some time for these extra examples to maintain a non-disruptive classroom environment for the other steps of the lesson.

Timing

Timing of the lessons is a substantial factor affecting the lesson plan and teachers' decisions during the class. Based on the observation notes and retrospective comments on these notes, the participants mostly decided to adapt their materials and questions, dropped some activities, or add some activities considering the remaining time of the lessons. To illustrate, Beril stated that she would conduct a post-activity which would make students shoot a short video before she started the lesson. Towards the end of the lesson, she decided not to initiate the shooting process in the class. She separated the whole class into several groups, and she

wanted them to do brainstorming about the content of their videos, yet she asked them to shoot the videos after the lesson. When she was reflecting on her decision during the interview, she remarked that she had to get them to shoot the videos as homework due to time constraints. Additionally, Candan had to turn her last grammar activity into a speaking one. She stated two main reasons for that decision. The first one was about her belief favouring more content-based productive activities, but the second reason was about time limitation. She specified that that grammar activity was more time-consuming than the speaking activity. Hence, she made a change in her lesson plan to use the remaining time more efficiently, which indicates a decision made by the teacher to adapt the material to make use of time appropriately. Also, Candan had to drop her last activity, which was a grammar worksheet to practise past modals.

> *As they already gave many examples by using the target form, I couldn't give the worksheets. The video part lasted longer than I expected.* (Dilek, Interview 2)

The timing problem caused Dilek to drop an activity that was embraced in her lesson plan beforehand, which can be observed as a reason for the departure decision.

Beliefs and practices

In this section, participants were analysed individually based on their beliefs that they stated both in the first and second interviews and their teaching practices, which can provide a better understanding of the consistency between beliefs and practices highlighted in the second research question.

Aysu

In the first interview, Aysu mentioned the situations in which she can feel the urge to diverge from her lesson plans. As she spends a lot of time to prepare a well-structured lesson plan, she pays attention to conducting her plans without any divergence if possible. She put forward that her class had the potential to disrupt easily, and she always had to grab their attention to make them follow the lesson, which implies that maintaining the original plan of the lesson is the main priority of a teacher. With regard to the situations in which she feels she has to depart, she emphasized the importance of affective factors and classroom management concerns as the reasons for departure. She underlined that she tended to depart from her lesson plans in case of disruptive behaviours and students' indifference to the lesson. She also denoted that she preferred not to depart in the absence of these aforementioned problems.

The data collected through the observation session indicates that Aysu's beliefs are profoundly in line with her actual teaching practice in the class in that she provided a well-

structured lesson plan with me before the lesson started, and she followed her plan to the letter. There was not a significant departure from her plan. When she was asked about it in the second interview, she expounded that she did not have to deviate from her plans since she faced neither behaviour problem nor lack of interest in the class, which can reveal the degree of consistency between her beliefs and practices.

Beril

Based on the first interview, Beril stated that learner autonomy was one of the most remarkable concern that he held. She defined learner autonomy as a notion which requires involving students into decision making processes.

> *I sometimes feel that I am too hard on them. I give them too much information. They say "Teacher too much information. Can we do something else? Then, I modify. So, every day I ask them whether they want to do something different or not. I think these departures are a democratic way of governing the class*. (Beril, Interview 1)

Beril additionally highlighted the significance of students' interest. She believed that her students' interest or indifference could lead to a change in her lesson. Another indicated factor influencing her lesson plan was the proficiency level of her students. As she expressed that her class had a relatively higher proficiency level compared to other classes, she needed to teach more beyond the curriculum. To teach extra grammar or vocabulary, she departed from her pre-planned lesson plans. Based on these findings, it can be emphasized that she emphasized the role of affective factors and academic needs in her departures.

Observation notes provided supportive evidence that was aligned with Beril's beliefs because before starting the lesson, she incorporated students in the initial decision-making process. Considering her students' lesson load due to an in-class writing session completed in the previous lesson, she wanted her students to state their opinions for the scenario writing activity. As they were all tired, they did not want to write a scenario to post in YouTube. Instead, Beril turned it into a speaking activity, which indicates that she considered her students' ideas as her belief about the learner autonomy and students' interests required to do so. In addition, while she reflected upon her lesson, she expressed that she did not have to teach anything extra for that lesson, but she had to do that most of the time. She reflected that when her students were bored with the curriculum materials because of their higher proficiency level, she had to continue with more challenging materials or activities, which indicates that her belief about departure from lesson plan in accordance with students' academic needs is parallel to her teaching practice.

Candan

Candan's beliefs regarding the reasons for departure from lesson plans were mostly based on affective factors and academic needs. She also underlined that she her beliefs support the use of more communicative activities in the classroom rather than structural and grammar-based activities. With respect to affective factors, she enumerated that establishing a good rapport with students was key to maintain an efficient lesson. To establish this rapport, she found departures reasonable. Also, she mentioned that she could adapt the material or activity when necessary, depending on her teaching beliefs and students' academic needs, which is an example of a decision made by the teacher to elaborate materials with the aim of making them more efficient both for her and the students.

Her actual teaching practice did not show any discrepancies with the aforementioned beliefs since Candan was quite interested in building a good rapport with her students, and she prioritized their academic needs throughout the lesson.

> *They were taking notes, but while taking notes they were talking to each other, and they were asking questions to me. To have a rapport with students, I used that period. I asked personal questions, which shows you are interested in them, you support them.* (Candan, Interview 2)

She also adapted an activity that was supposed to be completed at the end of the lesson. It was a grammar activity comprising modals, however Candan turned it into a speaking activity. When she was asked why, she signified that she preferred to focus on the content not structure at that time due to the students' needs. She also foregrounded that she considered time limitation while adapting the activity.

Dilek

In the first interview, Dilek proposed that she could depart from her lesson plans because of several reasons including disruptive behaviours, academic needs, students' feelings, and her state of mind. She acknowledged that adapting lessons in a line with students' interests and changing the plan considering their boredom was a part of her teaching practice. She noted that she used departures as a classroom management tool and an opportunity to extend the pre-lesson activities before the main ones.

> *I feel that students are bored, or they are confused about particular things, I depart from my plans. Whenever I think they need a departure or I need a departure, I do it. It can be about their motivation, or it can be about educational purposes or learning purposes.* (Dilek, Interview 1)

Observation notes of Dilek's lesson demonstrated that her beliefs were consistent with the decisions she made during her lesson. She paid attention to the students' interest by giving

more time to their examples. She changed the procedure of the lesson because of some students' disruptive behaviors. She assigned them some tasks that were not mentioned in her lesson plan. She also spent more time on discussion of the movie trailer before starting to teach the target grammar structure, which indicates that she considered her beliefs while making decisions.

Discussion

With respect to the first research question exploring the major reasons behind the teachers' decision to depart from their pre-planned lesson plans, four possible reasons were discovered to cause departure: affective factors, academic needs, classroom management, and timing. Findings indicate that these reasons are not completely discrete from the previous research results. To illustrate, Osam and Balbay (2004) suggested that timing, classroom management, discipline problems, motivation, physical conditions, and language skills are the main reasons urging teachers to diverge from their lesson plans. Similarly, Sougari (2011) proposed that learner involvement was highlighted as the main reason for departure prior to the lesson by the participants, however after the lesson, time constraints, discipline, and learner motivation were highlighted as major reasons for departure. In addition, Bailey (1996) emphasized some reasons for teaching out of lesson plan: a common interest in a specific topic, teaching to the moment by some amendments, furthering the lesson by a procedural change, accommodating students' learning styles, promoting the students' involvement and preventing more verbal students from dominating the class, which highlights more specific reasons compared to the findings of this study.

In connection with the second research question exploring the consistency of teacher beliefs and practices regarding their departure from the lesson plan, the findings revealed that the participant teachers' beliefs in deviation from lesson plans were consistent with the decisions they made during their teaching practice. This consistency is distinct from former study results in that they underlined some discrepancies between beliefs and actual teaching. For instance, Osam and Balbay (2004) pointed out that both experienced and pre-service teachers violated their lesson plans that were based on Communicative Language Teaching. The reason why they departed from their plans and paid more attention to accuracy, rote-learning, and teacher-centeredness was related to their language learning experience imposed by their national and local institutions. In contrast, findings of this study shows that the reasons why the teachers violated their lessons were based on their beliefs, which provides consistency between their beliefs and practices since the participants did not touch upon any negative sides

of these departures. The teachers hold the view that departure is a part of their teaching, and they shape it considering their own beliefs. Likewise, Sougari (2011) highlighted the same inconsistency observed between pre-service teachers' beliefs and their class performances with respect to the way they depart from lessons. However, this study demonstrates that teachers do not have inconsistent belief and practice patterns since they regard these departures as incidents stemming from their beliefs rather than contrasting practices. What is more, even though Waring et al. (2016) suggests that teachers should be able to redirect departures to previously set learning goals, this study designates that some teachers utilise from departures by making use of them to maintain classroom management. Realizing the learners' state of mind and customizing the flow of the lesson pedagogically in accordance with learner needs is considered to be a classroom management skill rather than deviation from learning goals.

When it comes to the correspondence between the findings and main frameworks shaped the nature of this study, it can be specified that in-depth analysis of teachers' beliefs and their practices in the classroom environment shows that the aforementioned beliefs are related to both humanistic and social constructivist approaches. Primarily, the social constructivist approach provides a perspective to have a better understanding of the interaction between teachers and students while making decisions to depart from lesson plan since teachers and students can be seen as the vehicle for critical empowerment (Vygotsky, 1962; Van Der Veer & Valsiner, 1991; Freire & Macedo, 1995; Valsiner, 1995; Freire, 1998). Departures that took place as a result of affective and academic needs indicate that in-class interactions reveal what learners need and urge teachers to take actions that can empower learners both academically and affectively. The social constructivist approach also underlines the significance of the fact that individual and social processes of knowledge construction are not independent of each other (Palincsar, 1998). These social constructivist ideas support the finding that teachers decide to change what they teach by considering the interaction they have with students. Detecting disruptive behaviours during the lesson and involving students in the process of knowledge construction can reflect this constructivism in two ways. The initial is the experience gained from previous interactions with students, and the second one is social learning that occurs at the end of integration of disruptive students into the lesson after departure, which is also in relation to another component of social constructivism: Reflective Thinking (Dewey, 1933). Both learners and teachers are bound to have a reflection on their actions in case of a departure, which helps them to tailor their prospective actions. Unlike the previous studies on departure from lesson plans (Bailey, 1996; Osam & Balbay 2004; Sougari,

2011; Waring et al., 2016), this study indicates that departures can be handled within a social constructivist approach, and they can be employed as a leverage to reconstruct knowledge in a collaborative and reflective way.

The other framework, the humanistic approach, is a person-oriented framework that can help teachers to unlock students' natural curiosity and establish self-confidence among students (Rogers, 1995). In the light of this framework, it can be possible to argue that the humanistic approach is mostly in connection with affective factors triggering departure from lessons. Based upon the qualitative data, all the participants had a consensus on the fact that students' interests, boredom, anxiety, confidence, and motivation influenced the way they implemented their lesson plans. As the teachers were aware of this, they tended to provide a lesson that could draw the attention of students. They complied with their interests, and they tried to lower the anxiety level of the students, which can be seen as some implementations conducted within the perspective of the humanistic approach. Departures occurring as a result of affective factors and consistent beliefs concerning these departures held by the teachers show that affective factors in a learning environment can shape what is believed and practised. In this sense, having a needs-driven perspective towards departures could yield pedagogically more effective practices in the class on the contrary to the idea that is based on the need to control and eliminate departures (Waring et al., 1016). Even though there is not a direct relationship between findings and humanistic approach, previous studies also revealed that there some affective reasons resulting in departures. For example, Osam and Balbay (2004) regarded motivation as a reason for departure. Likewise, Bailey (1996) and Sougari (2011) emphasized the role of active learner involvement in departures, which is in line with what have been found in this study. Considering the reasons about affective factors in these studies, it is significant to have a humanistic approach and take students' affective state of mind into account while making a decision on departure, which is bound to pave the way for more engaging classroom practices.

Considering the vital role of lesson plans in determining the framework of what is taught in the class (Lee, Chen, & Khum, 2009; Vdovina & Gaibisso,2013), the teachers were able to utilize from their critical thinking skills while making decisions on departure (Setyono, 2016). In this sense, critical thinking functions as an essential concern for better decision-making skills regarding the role of critical thinking in the 21st century (Zhou, Jiang, & Yao, 2015) since it promotes the improvement of thinking process by enabling individuals to analyse and evaluate how they think (Paul & Elder, 2007). Improvement in decision-making skills can

also help teachers to come up with solutions when they have adversity in conducting their lesson plans as a result of lack of familiarity with the students (Sahin-Taskin, 2017).

Conclusion

Data collected from interviews and observation made it clear that teachers hold some beliefs depicting what they think about teaching out of their planned lessons. Findings indicate that in-service language teachers do not depart from their lessons without a rationale. The rationale behind their departures is mostly related to students' and their affective states of minds, students' academic needs that can facilitate or elaborate their teaching/learning processes, maintaining a good temperature of the classroom, and using time efficiently. In terms of the attempts to examine whether teachers hold beliefs that are in line with their teaching practices, this study illuminates how congruent beliefs and practices are. For that reason, individual analysis of the participants is provided so that it can be possible to keep track of their beliefs and practices at the same time.

Implications & Limitations

It seems that this study can yield some clear implications with regard to curriculum and lesson designs that can be beneficial for pre-service/in-service teachers, administrators, curriculum developers, and stakeholders. As the study indicates that departure from plans is a salient reality occurring naturally in classes, and it does not yield any negative reactions from the students, it should be viewed as an inevitable component of curricula in the field of English language teaching. Flexibility and openness of a curriculum are regarded as a must by Richards (2002). Affective factors and interaction opportunities between teachers and students for a social learning environment are significant concerns that should be considered within humanistic and social constructivist perspectives. These can be implemented efficiently through a more flexible curriculum which can enable teachers to teach in a way that is more consistent with their beliefs. Such a curriculum design can encourage teachers to make more instant and autonomous decisions about any contextual factor influencing their teaching. Besides, this kind of curriculum design can empower teachers to decide on what to do depending on their interests, needs, and beliefs.

This study also sheds light on the nature of lesson plans. As it is quite possible to deviate from lesson plans because of any unexpected incidents, teachers should have some insights into making efficient decisions in case of these unexpected situations. Instead of familiarizing pre-service teachers with ideal lesson plans, providing the reality happening in a real teaching

environment with them and training them to raise their awareness regarding this concern are significant steps to take into consideration.

Finally, this study designates that departures might take place because of a variety of reasons, and teachers might have various insights into how they perceive and handle these departures, which is in line with complex nature of teaching. In the ELT field, implementing a program or curriculum that does not neglect the possible reasons for departures can promote the efficiency of the strategies that teachers use to handle departures. Also, the way the teachers reasoned their practices reflects that teachers' conscious thought can be fostered through reflection practices, which bridges the gap between beliefs and practices as well. So, some professional development practices based on teacher reflection can lead to more consistent patterns of beliefs and practices, and a betterment in classroom practices for the benefit of students.

One of the most essential limitations of this study is the lack of observation sessions, which can be a good indicator of what teachers do in their class in the long run. Longitudinal studies also can yield more reliable findings as teacher cognition is a field requiring an in-depth analysis of teachers' thinking and their teaching. Additionally, findings could have been compared to more experienced teachers to analyse whether they have similar belief systems. It could have been better to check consistency between beliefs and practices. Further studies can be conducted based on the changes in teachers' beliefs in the long run, and teaching experience can also be taken into consideration.

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ESP Course Design and Employability: A Small-Scale Exploratory Study at the Tourism Faculties in Turkey

Züleyha Ünlü [a 1], Henna A. Qureshi [b]

[a] *Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University, Tokat, Turkey*
[b] *National University of Science and Technology, Islamabad, Pakistan*

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Abstract

English for Specific Purposes is designed to meet students' career-related needs. This study examined the ESP courses across tourism faculties in Turkey by focusing on Hotel Management, Travel Management, and Tour Guidance Programmes to discover the association between employment needs across these programmes and English for Specific Purposes classes. Data was collected through qualitative surveys and syllabi. Qualitative surveys were conducted on undergraduates and graduates of the mentioned programmes. Additionally, available course syllabi across the selected programmes were analysed through content analysis. Findings were evaluated with regard to the employability framework described in the literature. The evaluation indicated a mismatch between ESP course content and the career-related needs of undergraduates and graduates across tourism faculties. Using the findings, a dynamic revision approach towards ESP course contents across tourism faculties is recommended.

Keywords: Dynamic ESP revision, ESP and employability, student perceptions

Introduction

In Turkey, there are a variety of programmes within Tourism Faculties. Hotel Management, Travel Management, and Tour Guidance are a few of these programmes. Learning a foreign language is one of the key skills for students enrolled in these programmes

[1] Corresponding author.
E-mail address: zuleyha.unlu@gop.edu.tr

as it is for almost any programmes. For these programmes, however, foreign languages are vital as there is direct contact with foreigners at workplace. Therefore, programme-specific language courses are offered as part of these programmes to meet the career-related needs of students (Çelik, Stavicka, & Odina, 2018). In literature, despite the existence of a plethora of research concerning various other ESP-related issues (e.g., teacher development, material design, and development) across tourism faculties, little research has been conducted to examine the relationship between ESP and how and whether it addresses to career-related needs of both undergraduate and graduates of programmes at these faculties (Adeyinka-Ojo, 2018; Singh & Singh, 2008). Thus, this study aims at exploring the perceptions of undergraduate and graduate students on the correspondence between their ESP courses and career-related language needs. Furthermore, by examining the ESP syllabi at tourism faculties, the study describes how career-related language appears in ESP syllabi. Generating this implementation, the study also benefits from the literature on employment in relation to ESP across a variety of disciplines. In this way, the study aims at contributing to the literature in two ways. First, the findings are targeted at adding to the understanding of how ESP syllabi in tourism faculties are designed. Second, the study offers a dynamic revision approach to ESP syllabi design to establish the harmony between ESP across Tourism Faculties in Turkey and the career-related needs of faculty graduates. Therefore, this study explored how ESP course content addressed the career-related needs of students. To achieve this goal, content analysis was conducted on ESP syllabi from Hotel Management, Travel Management, and Tour Guidance programmes. Also, interview data was utilised to reveal programme graduates' and undergraduates' perceptions.

Literature Review

The overarching theme of previous studies on ESP in relation to the workplace has been the type of challenges speakers of English as an additional language encountered at the workplace (Cheng et al., 2020), and the language requirements of employing parties (Ahmad-Tajuddin & Abdul-Hamid, 2017; Hiranburana, 2017; Lo et al., 2019).

With regard to the types of challenges encountered at the workplace, Cheng et al. (2020, p. 15), for example, have found that immigrant speakers of English as an additional language struggled with workplace communication 'due to their lack of topical knowledge, linguistic knowledge, and personal attributes'.

In terms of the language requirements of employers, Ahmad-Tajuddin and Abdul-Hamid (2017) identified the categories of cognitive knowledge and communication skills as the

required types of knowledge by employers from various sectors in Malaysia. Similarly, Hiranburana (2017) distinguished that Thai business people used written English more than spoken language. Among the written forms of communication, though, they utilised e-mails which required reading skills as well as sharing similarities with spoken language. Lo et al. (2019, p. 1) have also discovered 'differences in curriculum design, evaluation criteria, and perceived issues and problems between the instructors and workplace managers.'

Based on the literature indicating that differences existed between the language expectations of employing parties and ESP course contents, scholars have also made suggestions for ESP course design. For example, Lo et al. (2019) recommended university-workplace collaboration. Likewise, Chan (2017) suggested that authentic materials of language in specific contexts (e.g., transcripts of workplace dialogues) should be employed as course materials.

Similarly, educational institutions have recently faced increasing pressures and demands from employing parties to 'produce graduates with employability skills and not just the academic skills' (Adeyinka-Ojo, 2018: 48; Singh & Singh, 2008). Thus, ESP has also attracted attention particularly from the employment perspective in the tourism faculties around the world. For example, Leong and Li (2012, p.76) examined the needs and requirements of both employees and employers at tourism sectors in terms of the English language and offered four suggestions. These suggestions are a) increasing the exchanges between tourism industry figures and students to 'motivate students' intrinsic interest in improving their English competencies'; b) introducing innovative teaching methods to make English learning more attractive to students; c) improvements in the English language learning environments; d) introducing individually customized teaching approaches where curricula include more tasks, supervisions, and evaluation. In another study, continuous updates in the ESP materials have been recommended due to the constantly changing needs of the market and students (Topler, 2016).

In Turkish educational contexts, studies with a focus on ESP in general also exist. One major theme arising from previous studies on ESP in Turkey is students' perceptions of ESP courses in relation with their vocational language needs. For example, Canaran, Bayram, and Altuğ (2020) evaluated the perceptions of students across Faculties of Air Transportation, Engineering, and Business Administration. Results showed that ESP courses did not meet students' requirements in terms of the content, materials, and assessment methods. More specifically, students indicated that the ESP courses were not related to the vocational courses

in their programmes. Studies additionally examined the ESP instructors' perceptions. In an earlier study, Sincer (2017) examined 15 teachers' perceptions regarding the English for vocational courses. Findings reflected that there was an ambiguity with reference to the goal and content of these courses. Of the few studies focusing on ESP specifically in tourism faculties in Turkey, one was conducted by Uysal, Temizkan and Taslacı (2018). Examining the English-language-related needs of students, this study discovered that consciousness among students of these programmes should be increased in terms of how they would need the English language in their career after graduation. Similarly, in another study, Uysal (2019) revealed that the English language learning and teaching curriculum across tourism faculties needed a revision as the outcomes were not clear mainly in terms of form and function of how these learning outcomes were written. Later, Uysal and Seçilmiş (2019) also investigated surveys conducted among the graduates of tourism faculties and identified that the content of ESP courses at tourism faculties should focus on communication skills to facilitate the students' employment and career. Analyzing the issue from the perspective of learners, Özer (2018, p.15) detected that student expectations of the English language classes concentrated around course 'objectives, content, teaching-learning process, and assessment'.

As has been presented above, the relationship between ESP and employment frequently appears in the findings of the studies conducted in almost every context as well as tourism contexts. Additionally, although specific studies which display what requirements the graduates might encounter in their careers exist, no comparison between what undergraduates/graduates of tourism faculties encounter in work-life in terms of English and the extent to which ESP syllabi are designed to meet these career-related requirements has been provided. Having answers to both issues would present a more concrete framework for ESP syllabi design, thus facilitating ESP teaching and learning in relation to employment requirements in the field, which reveals why this study adopted the employability framework (Williams et al., 2015). Prior to proceeding with the methodology section, it is worth detailing the employability framework as well.

Employability skills have often been examined in the field of tourism and hospitality. In that regard, different scholars presented discrete frameworks for what employability skills included (Adeyinka-Ojo, 2018; Robinson, 2000). Although being presented earlier than the studies listed and being independent of any specific discipline, the framework offered by Williams et al. (2015) specified employability in a more detailed way. In the framework developed from the studies conducted on employability, Williams et al. (2015) introduced the employability framework as a multi-faceted construct. Through a systematic review of studies

that have evaluated employability, Williams et al. (2015) developed the dimensions of capital, career management, and contextual components. These dimensions and their components are shown in Table-1:

Table 1.
Employability framework and its components

Dimensions	Definition	Components
Capital	Determining elements for the employability of an individual	• Human Capital • Social Capital • Cultural Capital • Psychological Capital
Career Management	Competencies and skills beyond performance in a set job role, as well as the role of career goals	• Signal management • Self-management
Contextual components	Components that shape the employment opportunities individuals encounter	

In the framework, capital, with the sub-groups of human, social, cultural and psychological capitals, refers to identifying elements for the employability of an individual. Human capital is defined as 'information and skills that the individual possesses that are perceived as contributing to the production process' (Williams et al., 2015, p. 887). Social capital is defined as 'social obligations or connections seen as convertible to economic capital' (Williams et al., 2015, p. 888). The third capital type is cultural capital, consisting of 'situations which the individual has experienced that are perceived as enhancing the properties of the individual, which lead to functionality in the workplace' (p. 889). According to Williams et al. (2015), cultural capital also reflects the extent to which employers' and employees' ideas, customs and social behaviours match. The fourth element in the multi-faceted employability framework is psychological capital, which is related with the 'confidence, hope, resilience, positive self-evaluation and personality traits such as conscientiousness' of the employees (p.890). The second dimension of the employability framework is career management. Under this dimension emerges issues ranging from 'competencies and skills beyond performance in a set job role, as well as the role of career goals/orientation in outlining an individual's desired employment' (p. 892). Signal management and self-management skills are the two components of career management. Signal management refers to how an individual can explore and participate in the opportunities leading him/her to be recruited (Williams et al., 2015). Another component of career management is self-management skills. Self-management skills are defined as how an individual perceives and appraises herself/himself regarding her/his 'values,

abilities, interests and goals' (Bridgstock, 2009; as cited by Williams et al., 2015, p. 896). The final dimension of the employability framework is contextual components. According to employability framework, contextual components shape the employment opportunities individuals encounter (Williams et al., 2015). Contextual components also shape how the capital components act in the process of employment (Williams et al., 2015).

The literature on employability, particularly the framework by Williams et al. (2015), has implications for ESP in tourism and hospitality and its syllabi design since it provides a comprehensive perspective on employability as well as guiding the ESP course content. Additionally, this is due to the fact that no comprehensive guideline has been developed for ESP syllabi design in relation to employment despite the richness of research on ESP for tourism and hospitality.

Research questions

With the considerations listed above in mind, this study focused on student perceptions and ESP syllabi across tourism programmes, and examined the findings with regard to the employment framework offered by Williams et al. (2015). To achieve these goals, this study developed two research questions:

1- What are the students' perceptions of ESP courses at Tourism Faculties in terms of their careers?
2- How are ESP course syllabi constructed across Tourism Faculties?

Methods

Ethics

The ethics approval of this study was granted by the Social and Humanities Research Division of Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University on April 2, 2021, during the seventh session with the approval decision numbered 01-29.

Background on ESP courses across tourism faculties in Turkey

ESP classes in Turkey at Tourism Faculties are offered during the whole duration of students' studies. This means that there is an ESP course in each semester, and students take 8 ESP courses in total when they are graduated from their programmes, which is a common practice for all tourism faculties in Turkey. The main purpose of these classes is to teach tourism-related English to students. More specifically, these courses aim at redounding to students' language use within professional settings with accurate pronunciation as well as with accurate grammar. Likewise, these courses focus on teaching relevant terminology to the students at Tourism Faculties. During the implementation of the course, various materials,

mostly coursebooks either designed specifically for these programmes or general language learning, are utilised. The assessment is often performed through one mid-term and one final written exam. Finally, the ESP courses last around 14 weeks per semester with 2-3 hours per week.

The ESP teaching staff across tourism faculties in Turkey

The ESP courses across Tourism Faculties are performed by any English language teacher. These teachers are mostly lecturers with an undergraduate diploma or Master's degree from a language-related field. Universities or tourism faculties do not require the ESP teaching staff to have any specializations in the language for tourism.

Instrument(s)

Data was collected with the aid of two instruments, namely qualitative surveys, and ESP course syllabi. The data were simultaneously collected and analysed. The details of data collection for each instrument are presented afterwards.

Sampling and Participants in Qualitative Surveys

Eight participants who studied at Hotel Management, Travel Management and Tour Guidance Programmes participated in this study. 4 of the participants had graduated from these programmes while 4 of them were still studying. While contacting the participants, the study mainly employed convenience sampling, which was defined as working with 'willing participants to offer rich data' although several scholars critiqued convenience sampling as it could lower the credibility of the study (Dörnyei, 2007; Creswell, 2007). Still, this study utilised convenience sampling since this type of sampling allowed the author to gather relevant data to reveal all possible directions in the analysis (Charmaz, 2000). Furthermore, since participants were not always available, the author had to depend merely on the accessible data providers. Thus, the participants were selected from specific universities.

Closely related to convenience sampling, snowball sampling was also operated in the study, which is defined as purposive convenience sampling elsewhere (Qureshi, 2018). Snowball sampling is conducted when 'the existing study subjects recruit future subjects among their acquaintances' (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981; Naderifar et al., 2017, p.2; Noy, 2008). In association with this, in this study, the researcher contacted survey participants by first including one participant, who later helped to contact all other participants. Using convenience and snowball sampling additionally identified which programmes to choose for the syllabi analysis.

Below are the demographics of the survey participants.

Table 2.

Background of the Research Participants

Pseudonym	Gender	Programme	Status	Employing Sector
Melda	Female	Hotel Management	Graduated	Tourism
Serkan	Male	Travel Management	Graduated	Unemployed
Nevin	Female	Travel Management	Graduated	Tourism
Zerrin	Female	Hotel Management	Graduated	Non-tourism
Mert	Male	Tour Guidance	Undergraduate	Tourism
Zeki	Male	Tour Guidance	Undergraduate	Tourism
Yasemin	Female	Tour Guidance	Undergraduate	-
Hatice	Female	Tour Guidance	Undergraduate	Tourism

Syllabi of English for specific purposes across the tourism faculties in Turkey

The course syllabi of ESP classes from Tourism Faculties were the second source of the data in the study. In this stage, since the survey participants were selected from Hotel Management, Travel Management, and Tour Guidance programmes, the ESP syllabi of these programmes were addressed. In Turkey, when this study was conducted, there were 15 programmes of Hotel Management at 13 universities, 9 programmes of Travel Management at 8 universities, and 38 Programmes of Tourist Guidance at 24 universities. However, only 26 of all three programmes had publicly available ESP syllabi. As has been noted earlier, the reason for choosing these departments was the profile of survey participants.

Data Collection and Analysis

Qualitative surveys

The surveys were semi-structured and in the Turkish language. The questions were open-ended and sought for participants' experiences about their experiences, opinions, and expectations of English classes they took while they were studying at Tourism Faculties. The survey questions were sent out to all participants. The participants responded via notes on these questions, which meant survey participants were given as much time as they needed to answer the questions. Moreover, written consents of the participants were obtained.

Thematic analysis was conducted on the qualitative surveys since this approach allowed the researcher to segment the data into manageable and meaningful parts (Braun & Clarke, 2006). During the analysis, stages of getting familiar with the data, developing initial codes from the qualitative surveys, and generating themes were implemented. Once the themes were generated, the researcher went back to the raw data to compare and contrast the themes with

the codes and the entire data. In this way, themes were firmly established, after which the naming of the themes was completed.

Syllabi of English for specific purposes across tourism faculties in Turkey

Data from course syllabi expanded the findings from qualitative surveys. Content analysis (Bowen, 2004) was conducted on the course syllabi, which was generated through the stages of 'skimming (superficial examination), reading (thorough examination) and interpretation' (Bowen, 2004, p. 32). The content analysis of the syllabi was inductive, which meant the content of the syllabi was analysed in all possible directions. At the end of the analysis, themes across the syllabi were established to be evaluated later in relation to the literature.

Results

Prior to detailing the findings, it is worth first summarizing the findings from both data collection tools.

Table 3.
Summary of the findings

Qualitative Surveys	***Syllabi of English for Specific Purposes across the Tourism Faculties in Turkey***
Employability Perceptions about the ESP course content *Expectations from an ESP course*	*What ESP Courses Teach* *How ESP Courses are Designed.*

Qualitative surveys

The thematic analysis of the qualitative survey data revealed two major themes. These themes were identified as:

- Employability Perceptions about the ESP course content
- Expectations from an ESP course

The initial theme, which emerged from the data from Tour Guidance programme students, Employability Perceptions about the ESP Course Content detailed the participants' perceptions of the ESP in terms of use of English in work-life. One major finding under this theme was that all participants thought that the content of ESP courses was not useful for the contexts they performed in. Likewise, the participants underlined that even if ESP courses consisted of tourism-related topics, the major focus was still on the use of correct grammar, which was not directly avail for the participants. An example of this can be seen in the extract below:

Extract #1 (Hatice, Tour Guidance)
1 *ESP course content definitely does not match with what we face with in work-life*
2 *Because ESP is focused more on the grammar*
3 *This does not match with English we use at work*

In the extract above, Hatice, a student in the Tour Guidance Programme, revealed that she was not satisfied with the content of ESP courses she received. This was mainly because the English language she needed at work was not in correspondence to the ESP focus, which incorporated grammar most of the time.

A second finding under Employability Perceptions about the ESP Course Content was that participants were not sure about whether what they learnt in ESP classes would help them during their job interviews. Two participants indicated that it would be adverse for them to be recruited if they were asked questions in English in detail at a job interview, which resulted from the insufficient ESP courses:

Extract #2 (Yasemin, Tour Guidance)
1 *I think I would have difficulty in job interview*
2 *The English we learn is… problematic*

Extract #3 (Hatice, Tour Guidance)
1 *I don't think I will be recruited with the English I have*
2 *Because there aren't many speaking or listening practices*

In the qualitative surveys, it was detected that participants had certain expectations from the ESP courses they took or were taking during their studies. The overall theme for these expectations was Expectations from an ESP Course. These expectations constituted the categories of Instructor-related Expectations and Course Content-related Expectations.

Under the Instructor-related Expectations, the participants often designated the need for ESP teachers who had experiences in the Tourism sector. One example is displayed below:

Extract # 4 (Melda, Hotel Management)
1 *I think those who teach these courses need to experience the sector*
2 *They should not act as if they were teaching English to a random person*

In the extract above, Melda, who was a graduate of Hotel Management and worked at a hotel in South-Eastern Turkey, detailed her expectations of the teachers of ESP for their programmes. She stated that the teachers of ESP for Tourism should experience performing within the sector to better able to teach the language courses.

A second category under Expectations from ESP Course was Course Content-related Expectations. Within this category, the participants expounded the need for essential changes in the way ESP courses were offered. For example, several students indicated that ESP should have more spoken content while several others explicated their expectations of more detailed

and programme-specific content. That is, participants expected ESP courses to have more profession-related content. Additionally, one comment among participants also remarked the need for integrating more practice-oriented ESP classes into Tourism Faculties. Extracts for Course Content-related Expectations are shown below:

Extract #5 (Nevin, Hotel Management)
1 *ESP courses should be designed in more detail*
2 *Also, they should be specific for each programme*
3 *I was at university between 2010-2015*
4 *And in the ESP classes, we only focused on hotel-related things*
5 *But my department was Travel Management*

Extract #6 (Mert, Tour Guidance)
1 *ESP classes are not sufficient for me*
2 *I think these classes should focus more on speaking and practice*

Extract #7 (Zeki, Tour Guidance)
1 *What we learnt in ESP classes are not enough for me*
2 *The classes should include more speaking*
3 *If necessary they should make us practice tour guidance in the language classes*

Extract #8 (Serkan, Travel Management)
1 *I think a separation among different programs of Tourism and Hospitality is necessary*
2 *A student studying Hotel Management should not waste time with learning service and*
3 *bar content*

In the four extracts presented above, the participants, Nevin, Mert, Zeki, and Serkan, often emphasised that a more speaking-focused ESP course would be more functional for students studying at those departments (Extracts 5-8). Likewise, as Nevin (Extract#5) and Serkan (Extract#8) stated, the students expected ESP classes to distinguish among the specific programmes in which students were enrolled. For example, Serkan specified that he would want to study language-related with Hotel Management instead of focusing on topics that are normally within the area of other programmes within Tourism Faculties.

Syllabi of English for specific purposes across the tourism faculties in Turkey

The analysis of course syllabi revealed the themes of *What ESP Courses Teach* and *How ESP Courses Are Designed*. Each theme was divided into further categories.

What ESP Courses Teach refers to the course focus of ESP courses in the three tourism programmes. This theme was further developed into the categories of *Content-Based ESP Teaching*, *Professional Language-Based ESP Teaching*, and *General English-Oriented ESP Teaching*.

Content-Based ESP Teaching meant that ESP courses across the three programmes emphasized the teaching of field-related topics through language. For example, in Tourism Guidance, Hotel Management, and Travel Management programmes, *Content-Based ESP Teaching* had components contemplating topics such as the significance of tourism guidance, tourist motivations, travel agencies, the roles of tourism guidance, or effective communication skills for tourist guides.

A second category under the *What ESP Courses Teach* theme was *Professional Language-Based ESP Teaching*. Within this category, in accordance with the underlying purpose of ESP, it was obtained that the ESP course syllabi focused on topics such as attending the guests, workplace dialogues, professional presentations, professional reports, booking at restaurants, guests with special needs, workplace special circumstances (e.g., cleaning a room in a wrong way), attending the complaints (e.g., laundry, theft), talking about the menu, or check-in and check-out procedures.

The third category under the *What ESP Courses Teach* theme was General English-Oriented ESP Teaching. Under this category, it was discovered that general and basic English language skills were focalized on regardless of the programme. These skills covered speaking, listening, reading, questions and answers, grammar skills, and pronunciation.

The second theme emerging out of syllabi analysis was *How ESP Courses are Designed*, which meant how the ESP courses were organised. This theme was further grouped into the categories of the *Naming of ESP* and *Nature of ESP courses*. The *Naming of ESP* referred to the ways through which ESP courses emerged on the programme curricula. Across the 26 programmes with available syllabi, it was found that ESP was offered either as a separate course with the terms like *Professional English/ Tourism English* or as a *Foreign Language Course*. As for the *Nature of the ESP Courses*, this category revealed information about how the *ESP courses were organised.* In the analysis, it was spotted that the courses were organised in various ways: professional and basic English integrated nature, basic English alone nature, professional English alone nature, or content-based English alone nature.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study focused on the relationship between employability framework and English for Specific Purposes syllabi at Tourism Faculties in Turkey. To this end, the study analysed syllabi of ESP courses at 26 programmes across Turkey, which were Hotel Management, Travel Management, and Tour Guidance. Additionally, both undergraduate and graduate students from these programmes were invited to participate in the qualitative surveys, and 8 participants (4 undergraduates and 4 graduates) accepted to contribute to those surveys.

The study was conducted with two research questions in mind: a) What are the students' perceptions of ESP courses at Tourism Faculties in terms of their careers? and b) How are ESP course syllabi constructed across Tourism Faculties? The answers to these questions relate closely to the components of capital, career management, and contextual management of the employability framework offered by Williams et al. (2015).

The first component of the employability framework was capital, which had the sub-components of human capital, social, cultural, and psychological capitals. Regarding human capital, which constituted field-related information and skills, the theme of *What ESP Courses Teach* depicted that content-based, professional-based language and general English-oriented teaching took place inside ESP classes. Among these categories, content-based and professional-based language are what would contribute most to human capital component of the employability framework. This is mainly because content-based and professional-based language would encapsulate field-related information and skills to tourism graduates. However, there existed two problems with the contribution of ESP to human capital. First, the theme of How ESP Courses are Designed revealed that ESP courses did not directly emphasize field-related information. This was since the syllabi analysis indicated that ESP courses were offered in three formats: professional and basic English-integrated nature, basic English-alone nature, professional English-alone nature, or content-based English-alone nature. No course syllabi centered on content-based and professional-based language at the same time. Secondly, student interviews presented a discontent with the current ESP syllabi. For example, the theme of employability perceptions of the ESP course content proved that neither students nor graduates of these programmes found the ESP content functional for being employed. Similarly, participants underlined that ESP course content did not sufficiently cover the potential encounters in the work-life. In short, it would be fair to conclude that the existing ESP syllabi across the examined tourism faculties in Turkey do not sufficiently address human capital of the employability framework.

The second sub-component of capital comprised social capital with a focus on language for negotiation skills individuals can use in their work to gain more customers. In the syllabi analysis, the category of Professional Language-Based ESP Teaching demonstrated that ESP syllabi had the potential to address the social capital dimension of the employability framework. This was mainly because Professional Language-Based ESP Teaching covered topics such as attending the guests, workplace dialogues, professional presentations, professional reports, booking at restaurants, guests with special needs, workplace special

circumstances (e.g., cleaning a room in a wrong way), attending the complaints (e.g., laundry, theft), talking about the menu, or check-in and check-out procedures. However, qualitative surveys designated that speaking skills were not sufficiently contemplated even if these topics were covered. This finding would reveal the insufficient attention to the social capital dimension of the employability framework as well.

The third sub-component of the capital was cultural capital which answered the questions in terms of field-related situations to increase the experience of students in utilizing the language to enhance their functionality in the workplace. In the syllabi analysis, the categories of Content-Based ESP Teaching and Professional Language-Based ESP Teaching implied that ESP courses are designed to gain experience to students with field-related situations. The reason was that Content-based ESP covered topics such as the significance of tourism guidance, tourist motivations, travel agencies, the roles of tourism guidance, or effective communication skills for tourist guides. Likewise, Professional Language-Based content focused on a variety of work-related situations (e.g., attending complaints). However, qualitative survey findings for Expectations from ESP presented that students were not satisfied with the content of ESP since they expected further practice with the language on field-related situations (Zeki, Extract 7). Thus, it could also be argued that ESP content did not sufficiently attend to the cultural capital of the employability framework.

The fourth sub-component of capital is psychological capital which would emerge through the language about confidence, hope, resilience, positive self-evaluation, and personality traits such as conscientiousness of the employees in ESP syllabi. None of the themes from the syllabi analysis consisted of any direct language learning to express ‘confidence, hope, resilience, positive self-evaluation, and personality traits. Similarly, the overall student discontent with the ESP practices showed (displayed) that psychological capital was completely neglected inside the ESP syllabi across tourism faculties under the examination.

The second dimension of the employability framework is career management with two sub-components: Signal management skills, and self-management skills. In terms of signal-management skills, ESP courses could be expected to cover language to assist students to participate in the opportunities leading them to be recruited. Similarly, in literature, signal management was associated with articulating the capital (Williams et al., 2015). The data analysis did not reveal any findings to argue that ESP syllabi covered language to help students participate in the opportunities leading them to be recruited. Particularly, the category of Instructor-related Expectations presented findings where students expected ESP teachers to be

from the related sector (Melda, Extract 4). This expectation of students implies that ESP teachers with experience from the sector could better guide students in terms of using the language to participate in the opportunities to be recruited.

The second sub-component of career management is identified as self-management skills. In ESP syllabi, self-management skills would cover language to specify how an individual perceives and appraises herself/himself regarding her/his values, abilities, interests and goals. In that regard, the syllabi analysis exposed that ESP had General English-Oriented content. It could be argued that students could harness general English-oriented content to express their values, abilities, interests, and goals. However, findings from the qualitative surveys again expressed that students did not believe the English they learnt in these classes could help them get recruited. Also, the finding How ESP Courses are Designed from syllabi analysis revealed that there was not any unity in the way ESP classes at Tourism Faculties were designed. In the analysis, it was detected that programmes had varying features: Professional and Basic English Integrated Nature, Basic English Alone Nature, Professional English Alone Nature, or Content-Based English Alone Nature.

The final dimension of the employability framework encapsulated contextual components. In terms of ESP syllabi, this dimension addresses the strategies to improve students' language skills on an ongoing basis across different contexts. Qualitative surveys implemented on students presented meaningful findings for the contextual components. In Expectations from an ESP course, student answers indicated an irregularity in ESP content. For example, in Extract #5, Nevin (Hotel Management) stated that ESP course content was irrelevant to what she studied. Likewise, in Extract #8, Serkan indicated the necessity to separate ESP for different programmes at Tourism Faculties. Students' comments convey that even though ESP at discrete programmes is designed for a variety of contexts, the irregularities in the ESP design prevent the purpose from being achieved. Likewise, these comments imply a lack of awareness among students in terms of what kind of contextual language requirements might appear in their careers.

The examination of the findings in relation to the dimensions and sub-components of the employability framework implies that the relationship between ESP syllabi across Tourism Faculties and learners' employability needs in the sector is disharmonious. The reason is as the syllabi analysis and qualitative surveys indicated, even if ESP for Tourism faculties is designed to redound to the discipline-specific language skills of students, these classes do not necessarily serve their employment prospects. Thus, the findings highlight the arguments underlining that

ESP syllabi need a revision (Uysal, 2019). However, the revision of ESP syllabi must be a dynamic and continuous one. Therefore, it could be argued that a dynamic revision approach to ESP course design is necessary to establish the harmony between ESP classes across Tourism Faculties in Turkey and the employability needs of the undergraduate and graduate students across Tourism faculties.

The findings, particularly student surveys, also support findings in literature reflecting the demands from employing parties to receive graduates with employability skills, thus also underscoring the significance of partnership establishment (Adeyinka-Ojo, 2018; Singh & Singh, 2008; Ahmad-Tajuddin and Abdul-Hamid, 2017; Hiranburana, 2017; Lo et al., 2019). Only an integration between ESP courses, tourism faculties and the employing agencies could ensure the harmony between ESP and the components of employability while also leading to the desired outcomes (e.g., motivating students) various scholars (e.g., Leong & Li, 2012) have presented. Establishing a collaboration between the ESP courses, tourism faculties, and the employing agencies would also ensure the continuous update of the ESP content (Topler, 2016).

Findings of this study have also proclaimed that students' awareness of how they would need the English language in their career needs to be increased (Uysal, Temizkan, & Taslacı, 2018). Further studies and examples of good practices are needed to reveal how increasing student awareness could be possible in ESP classes across Tourism Faculties. These examples could also reveal how the match between student awareness and employability needs could be ensured. Similarly, why students often tend to hold expectations related to instructors or courses in general rather than their roles requires further research.

Altogether, it would not be wrong to assume that a dynamic revision approach towards ESP course design across the Tourism Faculties could establish the harmony between ESP classes and the employability needs of undergraduate/graduate students across Tourism faculties. This would also contribute to the employability prospects of graduates of these faculties by contributing to the capital, career management, and contextual components of the employability framework.

Limitations

Findings of this study emerged from a small amount of qualitative survey data even though the number of ESP syllabi that have been examined was large. Thus, the study acknowledges that the small amount of data may limit the generalizability of findings. Still, the findings from the small number of qualitative surveys are 'illustrative' in terms of displaying the potentially rich lines of research within a specific context (Richards, 2011, p. 216).

Additionally, further studies are needed to specify the details of ESP courses for tourism faculties to designate how the course content could be in tandem with the employment framework. Finally, as has been stated earlier, examples of good practice, as well as examining course materials for the ESP courses of tourism faculties and language instructors' views, are necessary to better understand how a dynamic revision approach could be realised.

Research and Publication Ethics Statement

The ethics approval of this study was granted by the Social and Humanities Research Division of Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University on April 2, 2021, during the seventh session with the approval decision numbered 01-29.

Declaration of Conflicting Interest

The authors certify that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

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Appendix

Appendix A. Interview Guideline (Turkish and English)

Sevgili Katılımcılar,
Tüm bilgileriniz saklı tutulmak kaydıyla çalışmaya katılmayı onaylıyor iseniz, lütfen aşağıdaki soruları cevaplayarak dönüş yapınız.
Çalışma ve yapacağınız değerli katkılar, Turizm ve Otelcilik Fakülte ve Yüksek Okullarında bulunan bölümlerde verilen Mesleki İngilizce derslerinin içeriklerinin geliştirilmesine katkıda bulunacaktır.
Şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

1. Üniversitede aldığınız mesleki İngilizce dersi hakkındaki düşünceleriniz nelerdir?
2. Mesleki İngilizce derslerinizin nasıl olması gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?
3. Mesleki İngilizce dersleriniz ve çalışma hayatınızda kullandığınız İngilizce örtüşüyor mu?
4. İş alımlarında Mesleki İngilizce dersine bağlı olduğunu düşündüğünüz bir sorun yaşadınız mı?
5. Mesleki İngilizce dersinde neler olsa iş bulmanız daha kolay olurdu?
6. İş başvurularında İngilizce ile ilgili bir durumla karşılaşıyor musunuz?
7. Bölümde aldığınız Mesleki İngilizce dersi ile ilgili eklemek istediğiniz başka bir konu bulunuyor mu?

Dear Participants,
If you approve to participate in the study provided that all your information is kept confidential, please reply by answering the following questions.
Your work and your valuable contributions will contribute to the development of the content of the Vocational English courses offered in the departments of Tourism and Hotel Management Faculties and Colleges.
Thank you in advance.

1. What are your thoughts on the professional English course you took at the university?
2. How do you think your professional English lessons should be?
3. Does the English you use in your professional English lessons and work life match?
4. Have you ever experienced a problem in recruitment that you think is related to the Professional English course?
5. How would ESP courses make it easier for you to find a job?
6. Do you encounter problems related to English in job applications?
7. Is there anything else you would like to add about the ESP courses in your programmes?

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Influence of Field Experience on Pre-service English Language Teacher Sense of Self-efficacy

Müge Karakaş [a 1], İsmail Hakkı Erten [b]

[a] *Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey*
[b] *Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey*

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Abstract

The present study aimed to investigate whether experience in field experience (FP) influences teacher self-efficacy in the Turkish pre-service teacher education context through sequential explanatory mixed method and time-series design. The study was conducted at an English Language Teaching (ELT) Department at a state university with the participation of 110 students. The group was observed for 3 academic semesters, from the 6th through the 8th with regards to the development of their teacher self-efficacy (TSE) perceptions and the potential relationship between TSE and FP. To generate this process, quantitative data were collected at the end of each semester by means of an adapted version of sense of self efficacy scale. Subsequent to this phase, 10 pre-service teachers with the highest self-efficacy scores and the 10 with the lowest were invited for an interview. The analysis of the quantitative data revealed that pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy has a developmental nature and involvement in TP exerts a direct influence on pre-service ELT teachers' perceived self-efficacy. The interviewees also highlighted the positive contribution of FP on their self-efficacy perceptions in terms of student engagement, lesson planning and classroom management.

Keywords: English language; pre-service English language teachers; self-efficacy; field experience

[1] Corresponding author.
E-mail address: mgekarakas@gmail.com

Introduction

As there has been an increasing emphasis on student achievement in schools, teacher education programs have become more sensitive to meet the demands for highly effective teachers (Chua, Liu, & Chia, 2018; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Pendergast, Garvis, & Keogh, 2011). Parallel to this, pre-service teacher education programs have additionally gained more eminence. Within this context, having a high sense of TSE seems to be one of the substantial factors for pre-service teachers to become more successful and effective to make use of teaching skills and knowledge to facilitate student learning (Can, 2015; Colson, Berridge, Colson, Sparks, Berridge, Frimmin & Willis, 2017; İnceçay & Dollar, 2012). For this reason, School Experience (hereafter SE) and Teaching Practice (hereafter TP) courses gain magnitude. Especially, in TP pre-service teachers are likely to pay close attention to their mastery of the range of skills necessary for success. Furthermore, their performance is under the observation of their students, mentor teachers, visiting lecturers and other pre-service teachers in the same group, all of whom provide feedback related to their teaching performance.

To become an English language teacher in Turkey, pre-service teachers (PSELT hereafter) need to complete field experience (FE), running simultaneously with the faculty-based courses in the senior year, via the combination of sequential SE and TP courses. Taking place in the schools determined by the faculty and bureau of national education in the town in the fall-term for 14 weeks, the main purpose of SE is to provide pre-service teachers with the opportunity to familiarize themselves with the profession, workplace, future colleagues and students, and daily tasks and routines of the profession which are mainly achieved through structured observation forms generally specified by the faculty (Köksal, Topkaya, Yavuz, & Erdem, 2008). In TP pre-service teachers are generally assigned to other schools which are discrete from their school experience schools with the aim of providing them with as many different school contexts, levels, and student groups as possible. As a result of this rotation, they are expected to enrich their initial repertoire of TP. In this phase, they have the opportunity to teach as much as possible and are involved in the routines of teaching more and frequently. Consequently, in both phases by professionalizing in real classrooms with real students, they gradually familiarize themselves with the profession as they receive feedback, mentoring, and ongoing training from their faculty mentors. Besides, they work collaboratively with mentor teachers to guide and evaluate their professional learning and development in the process (The Booklet of Faculty and School Collaboration, 2007).

Once pre-service teachers start to take SE and TP courses, every artificial trial performed in micro teaching sessions turns into reality in which PSELTs face the truth that they need to keep control of instructional, classroom management, and student engagement strategies together to create a suitable teaching and learning environment. As they face adversities or problems in their classes, they may feel less efficient in teaching skills or they may feel more empowered if they prove to surpass the expectations of the faculty mentors and mentor teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2017; İnce, 2016; Mitchell, Hirn, & Lewis, 2017). Because of various factors some of which are named above, it can easily be discerned that teaching-efficacy is likely to undergo changes along FP (Berg & Smith, 2018; Tuchman & Isaacs, 2011; Tuğtekin, Tuğtekin & Dursun, 2018).

Distinct studies reported different changes encapsulating better understanding of the role of a teacher resulting in more differentiated sense of efficacy than those with less experience in teaching (Lazarides & Warner, 2020), positive changes in attitude towards teaching profession as the self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers are higher and thus they are more likely to perform their profession enthusiastically and devotedly (Dursun, 2019), readiness for future career (Demirel, 2017), changes in student engagement, lesson planning and classroom management (Patterson & Farmer, 2018; Topkaya & Çelik, 2017) and changes in teaching efficacies, increased self-awareness, improved problem-solving skills and enhanced autonomous learning related to PSTs' TSE (Cabaroğlu, 2014). It can easily be realized that TSE needs to be nourished to create a modification for the better.

Research on TSE and FP is abundant but have been studied separately. For instance, Barni, Danioni and Benevene (2019) studied the role of personal values and motivations for teaching as constituents of self-efficacy, Mok and Moore (2019) investigated teachers and self-efficacy, Shahzad and Naureen (2017) looked into the impact of teacher efficacy on student achievement, Komba (2013) examined the effectiveness of teaching practice in improving student teachers' teaching skills, Uçar (2012) explored how TP process is implemented, and Zhao and Zhang (2017) researched the influence of FP practice on pre-service teachers' professional identity. As can be noticedfrom the examples, most of the research studied TSE and FP separately without focusing on the interaction between the two and gathered cross-sectional data. This study aims to present longitudinal data gathered form pre-service teachers in teacher education process.

Sense of Self-Efficacy and Teacher's Self-Efficacy

Bandura defines self-efficacy as '…individuals' judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required for achieving designated types of performances' (1986, p. 391). People often acquire information about their own self-efficacy by observing the achievements and failures of other individuals, especially those who appear to be similar to themselves (Pajares, 2007; Schunk, 1989).

This study focuses on TSE; for this reason, narrowing the scope down to TSE would be helpful. TSE is referred to as the extent teachers believe they can affect student learning and their capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context (Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2007). Teachers' efficacy beliefs seem to be influential in teacher activity, effort, level of aspiration, the goals they set, and productivity (Tarkın & Uzuntiryaki, 2012). Various studies (e.g. Blazar & Kraft, 2016; Jurczak & Jurczak, 2015; Sari, 2013) reflect that the teacher is a significant character in the success of the individual student in the classroom. In line with this, Shahzad and Naureen (2017) and Swan, Wolf and Cano (2011) claim that teachers with higher efficacy may feel more confident in bringing out desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be unsuccessful and unmotivated.

Research on TSE has often focused on its links to various factors and observations in both students' behaviours and performances and teachers' acts. For example, it has been found to be one of the three kinds of efficacy in student achievement that is the sense of efficacy of teachers (e.g. Bonniface & Henley, 2016; Colson, Sparks, Berridge, Frimming, & Willis, 2017; Frumos-2015; Kurt; Güngör & Ekici,2014). In addition to its relevance to student achievement, teachers' sense of efficacy has been associated with outcomes such as student motivation (e.g. Frumos, 2015, Rodríguez, Regueiro, Blas, Valle, Piñeiro & Cerezo, 2014) and students' own sense of efficacy (e.g. Mojavezi & Tamiz, 2012; Rodríguez, Regueiro, Blas, Valle, Piñeiro & Cerezo, 2014; Şenel & Buluş, 2016). Corresponding to teachers' acts, a growing body of research demonstrates that teachers' sense of efficacy is connected to their commitment to teaching (Chesnut & Burley,2015 Pendergast, Garvis & Keogh, 2011), their attitudes towards innovative instructional strategies (e.g. Kavanoz, Yüksel & Özcan, 2015; Islahi & Nasrin, 2019), students' academic achievement (e.g. Can, 2019; Rachmawati, Emilia, & Lukmana, 2017), and motivation (e.g. Çakmak & Gündüz, 2018).

Sources of pre-service teacher efficacy

TSE can be shaped by various sources such as mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasions, and physiological or affective states (Bandura, 1997). These sources can be applied to explain how the development of TSE in PSELTs takes place during FP at a school. Since mastery experience provides a direct experience of mastery to increase self-efficacy, it is one of the most powerful of all four sources (Usher, 2009). Micro-teachings and FE in PSELT education have the highest influence on the development and growth of pre-service teachers' TSE perceptions (Çelik & Topkaya, 2017; Tulgar,2019). Mastery experiences, in the form of success of failure, generated in an actual classroom should have the strongest effect on TSE development, since FE provides genuine evidence of whether or not pre-service teachers can accomplish the task in question, for example, independently teaching a class or aiding an experienced teacher in organizing group work.

Vicarious experiences, those which are gained through observation, is another strong source for the establishment of pre-service teachers' self-efficacy.

Verbal persuasion is gained by means of feedback provided by school mentors and faculty mentors have a lot to contribute to the development of pre-service teachers' teaching-efficacy perceptions (e.g. Brown, Lee, & Collins, 2015; Sevimel, & Subasi, 2018). This credibility is high, when school mentors are themselves competent teachers, experienced in judging the accomplishments of different PSTs and knowledgeable with regard to the task-related demands that PSELTs face.

Lastly, physiological arousal can be discovered in the form of mood, stress and subjective threats and emphasizes that affective states influence people's beliefs of self-efficacy (Pfitzner-Eden,2016; Usher, 2009). Mastery experience and physiological and affective states seem to associate with PSELTs' own evaluation of their own achievements whereas vicarious experience and verbal experience are more likely to be influenced by external environments (Usher, 2009). Of these, Çapa (2005) reports that mastery experience, vicarious experience and verbal persuasion have the highest weight on predicting teachers' efficacy.

One source of TSE for PSELTs can be their FP in real life and little is known about how such a construct evolves during PSELT education. PSELTs may have exposure to diverse experiences that can feed or decay their TSE during these early stages. In this regard, increasing PSLETs' TSE perceptions from the standpoint of their capabilities to execute the tasks

associated with teaching in educational settings (Siwatu, 2011) is of primary importance in FP. Several studies specified that TSE ascendend during FP periods (Boz & Boz 2010; Caires, Almeida, & Vieira 2012; Klassen & Durksen. 2014; Palmer, 2006; Topkaya & Çelik; 2017). Other studies have demonstrated that self-efficacy could decrease or stay intact during that same period (Pendergast et al., 2011; Garvis et al., 2012). Further, self-efficacy can be developed in varying areas at distinctive levels and can display a developmental nature (Bümen & Özaydın 2013; Şahin & Atay, 2010). What is known in the current literature is confined mainly to interactions between observations of different constructs and TSE. Such knowledge is gained from cross-sectional inferential observations which are deficient in any insights from longitudinal studies. The studies above highlighted the sources of self-efficacy but ignored the possible fluctuation in self-efficacy. Furthermore, it is worth noting that some of these studies do not primarily focus on English language pre-service teachers. For example, Bümen and Özaydın (2013) conducted their study with primary school pre-service teachers, Flores (2015) with science pre-service teachers and Şahin and Atay (2010) with pre-service teachers; Pendergast and Garvis (2011) early childhood education and primary education, leaving a clear room for a better understanding of the evolvement of TSE among PSELTs of English, which this study purports to achieve in a longitudinal study design. The present study aims to investigate the following research questions;

1) Does FE in teaching practice influence pre-service English language teachers' TSE?
2) Does pre-service English language teachers' TSE develop after taking SE and TP courses?

The Study

In this study explanatory sequential design was employed. In this design to detect the influence of FP on PSELTs' TSE perceptions, the quantitative data was collected and analysed initially. Following the quantitative data, the qualitative data was collected and analysed. Subsequent to this, the qualitative results were interpreted to help to explain the initial quantitative results (Creswell, 2009). To highlight the influence of FP on TSE a time-series analysis was conducted.

Setting and participants

The study was conducted in the English Language Teaching Department of the Faculty of Education at a state university. In Turkey to become English teacher pre-service students

need to complete a four-year / 8th semester teacher education programme. The ELT departments in Turkey execute a centralized teacher education programme constituted by the Council of Higher Education (YOK, 2007). The major aim of this centralization is to ensure that pre-service teachers acquire the same set of teacher skills and knowledge at different programmes across the country. Pre-service English language teachers receive content and pedagogical knowledge mostly in theory in the first two years of their study. Academic Reading/Writing, Second Language Acquisition, Linguistics I and II, Research Skills, Approaches to English Language Teaching I and II are some of the courses of the first four terms that heavily draw upon the theoretical aspects of the profession. The 3rd year is almost totally based on pedagogical content knowledge where students receive knowledge about and practice of how to teach English. Teaching Language Skills I and II, Teaching English to Young Learners I and II, Literature and Language Teaching I and II are those courses that aim to foster competencies related to the teaching of the language. At this stage, in all the courses stated above pre-service teachers are usually engaged in microteachings with a peer group acting as learners. The real FE begins in the 4th year 7th semester with SE course in the fall term for 14 weeks, to provide pre-service teachers with the opportunity to familiarize themselves with the profession. TP is the last and the most intensive phase of FE for pre-service teachers. Students attend a 14-week practice at Ministry of National Education (henceforth MoNE) schools which are in cooperation with the program. Mentors are assigned to each group of students. The first two weeks are the observation weeks, then the practice starts and students are expected to practice teaching at least three times. To do this, they firstly prepare draft lesson plans and have a discussion about them and make the necessary changes with faculty mentor and then implement these lesson plans in teaching practice. students are responsible for writing reflections on every process of these practices. There has been a change with reference to school experience and the practicum course in 2018-2019 academic year but this change is not within the scope of the study.

A total of 110 (74 female, 36 male) students participated in the present study voluntarily. The data were collected over 3 academic semesters. Following the quantitative data, the qualitative data were gathered via face to face interviews. To perform interviews 10 high and 10 low scoring participants were invited to support the quantitative data gathered. To supply anonymity participants were coded like P1 or P2.

Table 1. Interview Participants

Participants	Gender	SS score
P1	Female	High
P2	Female	High
P3	Female	High
P4	Female	High
P5	Male	Low
P6	Male	High

All participants were native Turkish speakers with an advanced proficiency level of English. Since the department is female-dominant, a vast majority of the participants were females 74).

Instruments

To collect data on self-efficacy, the Teacher Sense of Self-efficacy Scale, which was originally developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) and adapted to the Turkish context by Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005), was utilized. The Teacher Sense of Self-efficacy Scale is composed of 24 items with three subscales. Each subscale encapsulates 8 items with respect to efficacy for instructional strategies, efficacy for classroom management and efficacy for student engagement. The reliability for the whole scale was reported to be .93. The coefficient alpha values for the Turkish pre-service teachers' subscales were .86 for instructional strategies, .84 for classroom management and .82 for student engagement (Çapa et al., 2005). The collected data were entered into the SPSS programme and after the analysis the 10 highest scoring and the 10 lowest scoring students were invited to an interview. The interview questions were prepared and content analysis was applied by a colleague. There were 4 semi-structured questions on sense of self-efficacy and teaching practice. The interviews were conducted in Turkish and were later translated verbatim and used to confirm the statistical data.

Procedures for data collection

The data were collected at three distinct intervals, starting at the end of the spring semester in May 2014 and finishing in May 2015, Firstly, after each semester, the quantitative data were gathered and then 10 pre-service teachers with the highest self-efficacy scores and

10 with the lowest were invited for interview. Table 2 below summarizes the timing of data collection.

Table 2 Timing of data collection

		Sense of Self-Efficacy	Interview
Time 1	6th semester	√	√
Time 2	7th semester	√	√
Time 3	8th semester	√	√

Data analysis

The data gathered in the 6th semester were exerted to measure the teacher sense of self-efficacy of pre-service teachers prior to taking SE and TP courses. After the second and third sets of data were gathered, the data were entered to the SPSS programme, and descriptive statistics were conducted. To further the findings, the qualitative data that emerged from the interviews were visited and analysed with inductive content analysis.

Findings

Research Question 1: Does FE in teaching practice influence PS English language teachers' TSE?

To explore whether FE has an impact on the TSE of PSELT's, descriptive statistics was deployed using the measurements obtained from Time1 (at the end of the 6th semester) and Time 3 (at the end of the 8th semester). Table 3 below designates the results. As the study was completed after 3 semesters of data collection, the mean values indicate that the group demonstrated a development in their sense of self-efficacy.

Table 3 Mean Values for Teacher sense of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Time 1 6th semester	76	3.64	0.42
Time 3 8th semester	76	4.08	0.44

At the beginning of the data collection pre-service teachers were found to hold moderately high sense of self-efficacy right before they started the TP (*M*=3.64, *SD*=.42).

After the PSELTs completed FE, the mean scores revealed an increase in their TSE scores (*M*=4.08, *SD*=.45). To further elaborate on such a development, the qualitative data that emerged from the interviews were gone through. An examination of the interview data confirmed the influence of TP on TSE.

This was explicitly verbalized by PSELT 1 (female high) who argued "… TP taught me so much. After the FE I evaluated what to do and not to do next time… I overcame my excitement. By means of micro teaching and TP applications I had a chance to compare myself to other teacher candidates and I gained TSE. I gained TSE because my teacher knowledge became more concrete and clearer due to teaching in the real environment. As a result, I observed re-structuring in my knowledge." Supporting arguments were also denoted by PSELT 2 (female high) who remarked "…my self-efficacy, level of proficiency and teacher knowledge improved.… I find myself efficient in lesson planning... "and by PSELT 3 (female high) who claims to be ready and equipped for teaching." Similar comment was done by PSELT 4 (female high) who drew attention to the importance of number of practice done and stated that "…TSE developed with the number of TP…" However, PSELT 5 (male low) stated that he felt insufficient to teach to teach and was not thinking of teaching as a career in his professional life. From the interview data, the impact of TP on the PSTs' TSE professional development is clearly visible. Figure 1 below presents TSE scores before and after completing FP.

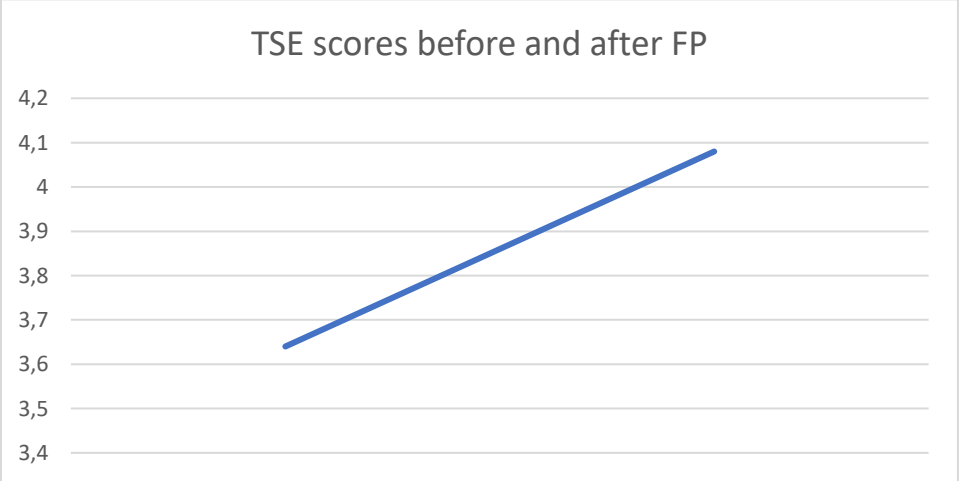

Figure 1 TSE scores before and after FP

This finding indicates that FE are likely to contribute to the development of self-efficacy. However, it needs to be noted here that such analysis is cross-sectional in nature and may be biased due to a time effect. To eradicate the time bias, the second research question focused on the development / changes in TSE of the PSELTs.

RQ2: Does pre-service English language teachers' TSE develop after taking SE and TP courses and completing FE?

To answer the question, a timeseries analysis was conducted. Table 4 presents descriptive statistics on the self-efficacy of the group measured over the course for 3 semesters.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics on TSE of the group Measured over the Course for 3 semesters

Time of Data Collection	N	Mean	SD
Time 1	76	3.64	0.42
Time 2	76	3.93	0.42
Time 3	76	4.08	0.45

Using Wilks Lambda statistics, a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a strong time effect on self-efficacy (Λ = .602; F = 6.436; p = <.01 partial eta squared =398). A further post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there were important differences between 6th semester (Mean difference = -.258; p = .001); 7th semester (Mean difference = -.264; p = .000); 8th semester (Mean difference = -.441; p = .000) TSE perceptions of PSELTs. The changes in self-efficacy over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 2 below.

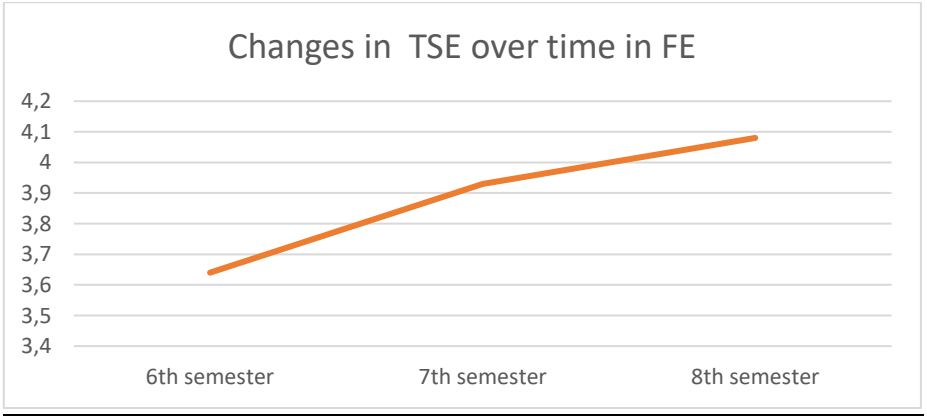

Figure 2 Changes in TSE over time in FE

Discussion

The study investigated the influence of experience in FE on PSELTs' TSE. The findings of this study imply that experience in FE courses is likely to have an influence on PSELTs' perceived TSE, in that TSE is likely to improve as student teachers become more experienced, displaying a developmental pattern in line with the amount of exposure and experience.

Experience in a real context is very substantial in teaching, it reflects one's weak and strong sides in practice. In the initial career stage, PSELTs first impressions may be essential for their future career. Findings of the study begin to illustrate the initial entry into field courses by beginning teachers and their initially higher levels of TSE towards perceived capabilities of teaching. After PSELTs started to take more intense courses, no change was observed in TSE. Some of the participating PSELTs may have had overestimated their initial levels of self-efficacy. PSELTs experience their first reality shock in their initial practices. Initial higher levels of TSE can be misguiding to PSELTs when they encounter reality. The findings of Yeung and Watkins (2000) also highlighted the influence of TP on the TSE of PSTs. In this study, PSTs pointed to the influence of FE on their self-efficacy. PSELTs seemed to have higher efficacy beliefs after experiencing FE. In FE, sources of efficacy are at work and various sources of experience have so far been identified. Bandura (1997), for example, categorizes four experiential sources: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal or social persuasion, and physiological and/or emotional states. The findings of the present study could also provide evidence for the positive effects of mastery experience (Bandura, 1997; Schunk and Usher; 2012). For PSELTs, mastery experiences in an actual classroom may generate a strong and raised TSE belief, since they provide authentic evidence of whether they are able to accomplish teaching successfully. Having success, for example in implementing and activity, following the lesson plan smoothly or managing the classroom successfully, may build self- belief in ELT whereas a failure will undermine that TSE belief (Can, 2015; Chichekian, & Shore, 2016; Clark& Bates, 2003).

Another source of self-efficacy, vicarious experience, emanates from pre-service teachers' observation of others around them, especially people they consider as role models. Seeing people similar to themselves succeed by their sustained effort raises their beliefs that they too possess the capabilities to master the activities needed for success in that area (Arslan, 2013; Bandura,1997; Wagler, 2011; Zuckerman, 2015). The study observed the importance of

vicarious experiences on PSELTs' TSE and increase in the scores and the interviews supported the findings.

Findings of this study reflected verbal or social persuasion as another working source of efficacy. Performing with mentors and university advisors is another source of efficacy which is labelled as social persuasion by Bandura and could influence the formation of self-efficacy beliefs of PSELTs. This is especially true when they receive feedback from their mentors during a FE session at school, with regard to their performance, since they consider mentors as competent professionals in the field concerned (Eden,2016; Minett, 2015). They may benefit from feedback provided before and after the experience, all of which seemed to contribute to the TSE, commitment and productivity of the PSTs. This finding is in line with some other studies (Anthony & Saidi, 2008; Martin, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990; Yeung & Watkins, 2000).

Furthermore, in the present study, PSELTs remarked the contribution of the FE to their expectations regarding future careers. FE provides PSELTs chances to employ methods and techniques, plan lessons independently, prepare materials and activities for the lesson, prepare learning environment, manage the class, measure and evaluate learning. PSELTs reported that their TSE beliefs were effective in teacher activity, effort, level of aspiration and productivity. This was in line with Ashton and Webb's (1986) study. They focused on the TSE of PSELTs before and after their FE in an attempt to predict their future teaching effectiveness. In the study, most of the students denoted that they have a positive belief with reference to their future teaching. The study concluded that self-efficacy beliefs and behaviour changes and outcomes were highly correlated and that self- efficacy was an excellent predictor of behaviour.

PSELTs highlighted that their improved TSE influenced their professional performance. With a strong sense of TSE, they focused more on planning and were more enthusiastic to teach. They wanted to spend more time in teaching and became more willing to experiment with new techniques. Feedback catered by the mentors and advisors may have an influence on the physiological and affective states of PSELTs and thus on their teaching capabilities. PSELTs may feel stressed and anxious on account of negative feedback or enjoy teaching more as a result of positive feedback. Similar results were reported in other studies as well (e.g., Allinder, 1994; Ashton, Webb & Doda 1982; Coladarci, 1992; Cousins & Walker, 2000; Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988; Riggs & Enochs, 1990).

Ashton (1984) suggested that a teacher education program which is designed to foster teaching efficacy beliefs should consist of exposure not only to context-based teaching experience but also to authentic teaching experience in order to help the trainees develop practical skills, human relationships and all other necessary elements of teaching efficacy. As a teacher education program, the ELT department must support pre-service teachers to be motivated and confident.

Implications of the study

In the light of the findings in this study, the following suggestions can be reflected to contribute to PSELTs' TSE development.

For further studies, at the institutional level, a move towards more collaborative forms of institute–school partnership is desirable. It needs to be remembered that TSE is referred to as the extent teachers believe they can affect student learning and their capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context. To contribute the development, of PSELTs' TSE future curriculum revisions and research initiatives in teacher education programmes should consider integrating the TSE in order to provide more and better opportunities for efficacy development. To generate this, most importantly, it could be considered that mentor training is a significant step. Altay (2015) drew attention to the contribution of mentor training in PSELTs' early careers. The first experiences are of great importance for PSELTs' future careers. Therefore, mentors may ensure in-service training on how to be an effective mentor. The training program may incorporate giving constructive feedback. More positive constructive feedback may feed a higher TSE. These first experiences are of great importance; therefore, PSELTs might find it beneficial to be given more detailed feedback on their first performances, in which, they may be active in the shaping of self-efficacy. For the mentors, it means spending more time engaging PSTs, which may be tiring since they have a heavy work load.

Another problem which may emerge is the size of the practice group. To enhance faculty and school collaboration, a change was introduced by Ministry of National Education (2017) to better monitor teacher trainees in official and private institutions. After the changes implemented in teaching practice in 2018, the number of teacher candidates was limited to 4 (formerly 5) so that both the mentors and mentees may have more opportunity to comment on the teaching practice performances. This application may create more opportunities for pre-service teachers to have more practice. Another positive change was materialized in TP course

in 2018, formerly school experience course, which was, four-hour observation a week replaced with teaching practice I. School experience course was limited in content in which PSELTs were provided with opportunities for small group tutorials, weekly school observations in partner schools to help them to prepare some lessons which they will be able to deliver in a classroom.

The newly implemented TP I is six-hour course provides better chances to the PSTs to have observations on methods and techniques, to implement the observed ones in micro-teaching sessions, preparing materials, and the learning environment, managing the class and measuring and evaluating the students in real classrooms. The recent TP I course may contribute more to the TSE of the students. As they have more chances to practice they may compare themselves to their peers similar to themselves and acquire information about their own TSE. The teacher is a significant concern in terms of the success of the individual student in the classroom (Blazar & Kraft, 2016; Bricker, 2000; Silverman, 2007). As efficacy is higher, the teacher may feel more confident in in bringing out desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult and unmotivated.

Lastly, future studies with a larger and wider sample of the population could be implemented in order to be able to generalize the results. Cross-sectional case studies with more participants may be more helpful in following individual cases of TSE development. As the ELT department, our priority is to provide PSELTs with positive feedback and a higher sense of self-efficacy. This study underlines the inadequacy of the number of TP experiences. To redound this situation, as mentioned above, smaller groups may be formed, in this way, supervisors and pre-service teachers may have more opportunities for better feedback before and after the TP experiences. To augment the TP experiences, in the ELT department, the undergraduate groups may be reduced to smaller groups for courses such as teaching language skills, where the PSELTs practice teaching so that they may have more and better opportunities to practice and to comment and reflect on their experiences. In the ELT department, policies to establish and enhance self-efficacy may be implemented, resulting in graduates who tend to exhibit greater levels of planning, organization, and enthusiasm, spend more time teaching in their subject area, are more open to new ideas, more willing to experiment with new methods, are better able to meet the needs of their students, and are more committed to teaching.

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