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Identifying Issues and Challenges in Industrial Training among Psychology Undergraduates

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Research Article

Identifying issues and challenges in industrial training among Psychology undergraduates

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Abstract

Among the initiatives to provide effective all-encompassing learning experience is by including internship or industrial training programmes for undergraduates. While it is expected to equip students with important work-related skills, it too could result in negative impacts if it is not being properly managed. This article presents the findings of a study which identified issues and challenges faced by Psychology undergraduates in Malaysia while completing their industrial training. Using qualitative research design, the study gathered information from nine participants who responded to standardized open-ended interviews. 11 major themes, categorised in three different issues and challenges have been identified, namely departmental-related, workplace/organisational-related and personal-related matters. The findings are expected to help scope the underlying issues and challenges of industrial training programme in local universities. The findings can inform the context of each problem which can be further understood and acknowledged by university officials, useful for them to design necessary interventions such as workshops to discuss the ways to improve industrial training system for university students.

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Psikoloji öğrencilerinin endüstriyel eğitimde yaşadıkları sorunların ve zorlukların belirlenmesi

Öz

Etkili ve kapsayıcı bir öğrenme deneyimi sağlama girişimleri arasında lisans öğrencileri için staj veya endüstriyel eğitim programları yer almaktadır. Öğrencilerin meslekle ilgili önemli becerilerle donatılmaları beklenirken, sürecin düzgün yönetilmemesi de olumsuz etkilere neden olabilir. Bu makalede, Malezya'daki Psikoloji lisans öğrencilerinin endüstriyel eğitimlerini tamamlarken karşılaştıkları sorunları ve zorlukları belirleyen bir çalışmanın bulguları sunulmaktadır. Nitel araştırma deseni kullanılarak, standart açık uçlu görüşmelere cevap veren 9 katılımcıdan bilgi toplanmıştır. Bölümle ilgili, işyeri/örgütsel, ve kişisel olmak üzere 3 farklı kategoride 11 ana tema belirlenmiştir. Bulguların, yerel üniversitelerde endüstriyel eğitim programının altında yatan sorunları ve zorlukları ortaya koyması beklenmektedir. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, üniversite görevlileri tarafından endüstriyel eğitim sistemini geliştirmenin yollarını tartışmak için çalıştaylar gibi gerekli organizasyonları tasarımlarında faydalı olacak şekilde, üniversite yetkilileri tarafından daha iyi anlaşılabilir ve kabul edilebilir sorunların bağlamına ışık tutabilir.

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Anahtar kelimeler
endüstriyel eğitim
Psikoloji öğrencileri
sorunlar ve zorluklar

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Introduction

The primary aim of any educational institution is to provide effective all-encompassing platform for students to have meaningful learning experience. A holistic degree programme entails curriculum which equip students with competencies that enable them to fare well after graduation, especially in the world of work. Among the initiatives is the provision of industrial training programme for undergraduates which involves experiential learning in the real work settings. It is a learning opportunity for students to convert the knowledge gained in classes into practice, an avenue that prepares themselves to become competent workforce in the future (Omar et al., 2008). Stated another way, industrial training helps substantiate students' knowledge and skills with desired abilities. In ensuring effective implementation of industrial training for students in an academic programme, higher education provider should be looking at the best way to attain the industrial training outcomes. Though industrial training has brought in many desired outcomes, its effectiveness could be further improved if its implementations at all levels could be assessed. In this regard, past studies such as by Collins (2002) and Renganathan et al. (2012) found that industrial training or internship formed essential component of education as it exposed students to necessary experiences and professionalism. They also found issues and challenges that students encountered during attachment in placement organisation, and even before it. A bad industrial training experience could decelerate students' progress and interest in completing their attachment; or easily turn them away from the industry in which they were trained for (Fox, 2001). If such scenario persists without being judiciously addressed, the expected outcomes of industrial training are difficult to attain. Hence, there should be effort to address the phenomenon, underscoring the essentiality to identify problems, needs, and expectations of students who undergo industrial training (Ko, 2008).

In relation to the above, there have been numerous studies that identified the issues and challenges of industrial training or internship programmes in educational institutions, but most of them were conducted outside Malaysia, e.g. by Effah et al. (2014) at a polytechnic in Ghana, and Bukaliya (2012) in Zimbabwe Open University. The limited past research in Malaysia studied industrial training among students of University of Malaya and University of Kuala Lumpur (Pillai & Yussof, 2007; Sasila & Mahmood, 2017; Sinnasamy & Nasir, 2015). The findings highlight issues related to the process to acquire job related skills by the students, not so much on personal or organisational challenges they faced. Based on the available literature, only a few studies underlined the issues and challenges of industrial training, focusing on students' or stakeholders' perceptions towards industrial training (Akomaning et al., 2011; Renganathan et al., 2012), students' practicum performance (Jamil et al., 2013) and students' generic skills development throughout their internship experience (Rodzalan & Saat, 2012). Despite the complaints concerning difficulties that the students face when undergoing industrial training, there has been less research conducted to identify issues and challenges faced by undergraduates in Malaysian universities. Narayanan et al. (2010), and Wan et al. (2013) who studied the effectiveness of Industrial Training programme found some issues and challenges of industrial trainings coordinated by universities around the world. Nevertheless, there is yet enough information from the perspective of Malaysian universities.

Industrial training in any placement organisation may not always provide learning situations for interns. There have been issues and challenges of industrial training programme reported by students across the globe, including Malaysia. The following are the issues faced by students undergoing industrial training programme, as identified by past research.

Issues with duration of industrial training

Bukaliya (2012) found that the majority of students in Zimbabwe Open University reported that internship duration is deemed short and conducted concurrently with other course works. Such situation caused the students to have insufficient time to apply knowledge into practices, for they have to give priorities of completing other courses. Renganathan et al. (2012) found that a small percentage of students from a university in Malaysia reported low ability to apply theoretical knowledge into practices and low opportunities to attain business insightfulness during industrial training placement.

Issues with supervision

Limited supervision by academics or instructors in university has been found to cause ineffective management of industrial training. This happens before and during the placement of industrial training. Students in a Malaysian university reported that they received insufficient information by university industrial training coordinators before they went to placement organisation (Sasila & Mahmood, 2017). Students in a Turkish university reported that their academic supervisors could only have short site visits to assess their work, causing less opportunity for them to show their job performance, and in turn, decrease their motivation to apply knowledge or accomplish task in the organisation (Collins, 2002).

Besides the issues with university supervisors, students also face problems with site supervisor, such that has been reported by Effah et al. (2014) on students of a polytechnic in Ghana. The poor supervision by site supervisors lead them to hold an impression that industrial training programme is burdensome, yet do not yield much benefit to them. Students in an Estonian University reported that they did not receive adequate performance feedback from site supervisor, let alone the guidance to improve work performance (Pill & Pilli, 2013).

Issues regarding the nature of job in placement organisation

The nature of job in placement organisation, which relate to working hours, financial allowance, and work engagement have been found to be important aspects of industrial training students. Although students from a liberal arts college in the north eastern of United States reported that the rigidity of working hours and absence of allowance have no significant impact on their level of satisfaction, these factors were still taken into account before they decided to accept the offer for placement (D'abate et al., 2009). Students in Northern Taiwan universities reported their inability to engage in the work accomplished by employees in the placement organisation, hence have less chance to learn industrial techniques during industrial training. This hampers the objective of exposing students to necessary work techniques, professional skills and industry experiences which are vital for their future careers (Ko, 2008).

Issues regarding relationship with employees at placement organisation

The positive attitudes and cooperation of co-workers at placement organisation have been found to play important roles in nurturing learning among students during industrial training (Ko, 2008). On the contrary, their prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behaviours may hamper the students' process. The latter has been reported by a group of tourism students in Turkey whose workplace social experiences had been deteriorated by unqualified co-workers at their placement organisation (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000).

The above review provides brief account on the issues and challenges with regard to industrial training programme experienced by university students around the world. In providing adequate information that could be used to design effective interventions towards improving industrial training experience for Psychology undergraduates, this study was conducted to identify the types of issues and challenges faced by Psychology undergraduates in Malaysia when undergoing industrial training.

Methodology

Research design

Information from the participants was gathered using qualitative research design, a method suitable in providing textual descriptions of a research issue instead of numerical, enabling the researchers to uncover the meaning of participants' experiences, hence answer the research questions (Merriam, 1998). It adopted the Standardized Open-Ended Interview method to attain the participants' responses. The wordings and term arrangements of a standardized open-ended interview question was immensely structured as it was broken down into specific aspects of industrial training enabling participants to fully express their viewpoints and experiences (Turner III, 2010); and in turn provide rich open-ended responses for the research (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003).

Participants

Nine Psychology undergraduates (first degree university students), aged 22- to 26-years old, who have completed their industrial training have been selected to participate in this study. The recruitment process adopted two sampling methods which, the first one, is convenience sampling, a type of non-probability or non-random sampling where the target participants met certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate for the purpose of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). Another method is the snowball sampling where the next participant was attained through one of the participants (a locator) who started a snowball by contacting respondents personally known by the participant, or acquaintances that fitted the research criterias (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). They were one male and eight female Psychology undergraduates in which three of the participants were international students (Turkey, Egypt, Yemen) while the others were Malaysian students.

Data collection procedure

The participants were firstly approached through the 'WhatsApp' application and once they have agreed to partake in this study, a face-to-face meeting was arranged for the interview

purpose. At the meeting, the participants were provided with informed consent form which describes the research study; its possible risks; the benefits of participation in the study; the participants' rights as well as protection of confidentiality (Grundmeyer, 2012). The standardized open-ended interview began after the researcher and participants reached a mutual understanding on the interview protocol. The interviews that took place within the university compound itself have been audio-recorded, allowing the researchers to have complete transcripts for all interviews (Merriam, 1998; Rubin & Rubin, 1995). The researcher spent around 10 to 15 minutes with each participant. Recruitment of participants and interviews of participants have concluded after data saturation point was reached, in that information received from the participants has become redundant (Merriam, 1998).

Interview protocol

All the participants received an identical set of questions which covered three aspects of industrial training experience. Based on a study by Mihail (2006), the protocol was developed to encompass the three aspects which require the participants to provide information on their experience of industrial training. The identical set of questions as adopted in Mihail (2006) that have been responded by the participants in this study were as follows:

1. Assess your industrial training experience during the recruitment phase.
2. Assess your industrial training experience during the entry process (induction, supervising & trainings).
3. Assess your industrial training experience during the completion phase.

Data analysis

The issues and challenges of industrial training among the participants that have been found were carefully derived, extrapolated, and scoped into different themes. A thematic analysis was applied to do the analyses as it could provide a robust, systematic framework for coding the qualitative data. The codings have been used to identify patterns across the dataset, analysed in relation to the three research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2014). The analysed data would be readily accessible, even to those who are not part of academic communities.

The analyses of the information gathered from the nine participants were made by perusing the transcripts, which have been reviewed by the researchers for several times to detect the "recurring regularities" (Grundmeyer, 2012; Merriam, 1998). Quotes and phrases from the transcripts that were significant to this study have been highlighted (Grundmeyer, 2012). The constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was also used in this process whereby the transcripts have been scrutinized back and forth until the related categories emerged, and were seen as consistent, yet distinct (Grundmeyer, 2012; Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Next, a table has been developed to place the particular data expressed by each participant under the respective category and to carefully generate the suitable themes in relation to the research question of this study. Finally, the categories have been integrated and refined into solidified themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) and the themes were further elaborated. The finalized themes are reported in the findings section.

Findings

The objective of this study was to identify the issues and challenges of industrial training among IIUM Psychology Undergraduates. Based on the procedures that have been conducted by the researcher, participants' experiences and thoughts have provided meaningful insights in answering the three research questions. 11 themes of findings have been identified, described under three categories of issues and challenges, namely issues with university, placement organisation, and personal management.

Issues with the university

The issues with university appear to be attributed to a number of areas that involve preparation to undergo industrial training. The issues reported by the participants are presented below:

Lack of guideline on the ways to secure industrial training placement

Participant 6 claimed that most students have vague knowledge about the types of places or organisations that they could apply to do industrial training. The participant said that the preparation for industrial training, including to find a place to do industrial training was already a bit vague for them, that students did not really get help when searching for placement organisation. Participant 5 said: "Well from my experience, actually university didn't really prepare us enough because my friends and I did not really know what to do in securing a place for industrial training. So, we ended up going to counselling unit and asked them about what should we do, about how to write our resume".

Lack of exposure to related field/work settings

Seven out of nine participants reported lack of exposure to the work settings in terms of job related to the field of Psychology. In fact, they were not sure if the tasks they were doing were part of the job related to the field. Participant 1 reported that many of the students felt that they were exposed to more skills when doing community project in the university, instead of being exposed to the skills while undergoing the industrial training. Their work they deal with at the placement organisation do not really reflect psychology-related work.

Participant 3 expected that there should be a dedicated course which equip students with psychological work setting. It was so hard for some students to find placement organisation because of the limited areas of knowledge in Psychology that they have acquired. They found that all the placement organisations they approached need counselling. Not taking certain courses, especially Counselling Psychology, had made them being rejected by the organisations.

Another participant claimed that the University courses did not adequately prepare her to carry out tasks at the placement organisation. Some basic psychology skills, such as Counselling Psychology, were conducted without including the skills part. She is of the view that some courses should be made as pre-requisites to industrial training programme. The absence of such requirement will create difficulties for the student to fare well at the placement organisation for they do not have the skills to apply when given specific tasks. Participant 7 who underwent industrial training in another country reported the same, hence chose to apply

for placement outside Malaysia as she wanted to be given more practices on Psychology-related job skills there.

Insufficient inputs received from internship coordinators during industrial training

Six out of the nine participants reported that the university did not adequately help students to perform well at work settings. The other lamented that the department did not provide clear framework for the job which should be accomplished by Psychology students, causing many organisations to be unprepared to accept Psychology students. They are unsure of the area of work activities which could be performed by Psychology students at their organisations. They were also not told over the options of placement organisation that they could apply for, or places that would accept them. Finding a placement organisation was a personal search, with the help of seniors who have completed industrial training.

Participants reported that they received little to no inputs on the nature of work to be accomplished, from the coordinators throughout their industrial training period. Participant 7 reported that despite having a good academic supervisor, she did not receive many feedbacks or comments, making her and other students to feel a bit worried on how to accomplish task upon getting the assignment at work. Participant 8 reported that her supervisor did not really keep in touch with her so she would only need to submit the weekly activity logbook. Despite the submission, the supervisor still did not reply to her, or provide any feedback on the ways to improve the activity logbook, let alone the assigned work that she accomplished. That said, the students did not learn much on the ways to change, develop or improve their work skills. She described the department to be 'quite messed-up' and reported that, "the department doesn't really focus on industrial training students. They just gave information through *WhatsApp* group, although some of the information was sometimes misleading. The information is like scattered. It's not very organized".

The participants expected that there should be (a) good link between University and potential placement organisations, informing them of the nature of industrial training for Psychology students; and (b) provision of more insights for students so as to help them doing effective seeking process for industrial training organisation. As mentioned by Participant 5, "I feel the university can get, or the department can get more involved in helping Psychology students in particular, during their hunting for placement".

Overwhelming number of required completion hours

One participant reported that the number of industrial training hours that students have to complete is overwhelming. Some students had difficulties to meet the hours because some of the placement organisations have different structure or schedule of working-hours. In effect, some could not complete the required industrial training hours at the end of the three-month duration. Participant 1 said "I got swamped by the end of the internship because I did not complete my hours. I was working according to the centre hours which was not enough according to the time requirement set by our department".

Issues with placement organisation

Performance of unrelated tasks

The inability to practice or apply psychology knowledge and skill is another issue reported by the participants. Participant 1 said “we don’t get to practice what we have learned. Even if you’re working in a private clinic or in hospital, it is rare for you to get the chance to apply Psychological principles”. Some participants reported their involvement with officers who conducted Psychology-related programmes, assisting the team with general tasks, like creating posters, assisting the running of programmes and facilitating discussion. Nevertheless, many reported that they were involved in limited extent of psychology-related tasks. Participant 6 lamented that many industrial training students were not being trained to do psychology related task for most of the tasks are related to clerical work, and administrative job.

Four out of nine of the participants complained about having to carry out many tasks at the placement organisation, most of them are unrelated to their field of study. A participant reported, she had to do administrative work instead of being given ‘meaningful’ tasks. The tasks were not related to the field of psychology at all. She felt that she was wasting time when she was actually finishing someone else’s work. The management of placement organisation did not take the student’s background into consideration, but would assign the students to do any tasks (e.g. photocopying documents, checking letters) just because they are attached there for industrial training.

Lack of professionalism among employees in placement organisations

Another issue is the unprofessional behaviours or lack of work ethic shown by employees at the participants’ placement organisations. Among other things, three out of the nine participants reported that (i) They were not informed of the expected time to start work, other than the official work office time stated in the industrial training offer letter. Participant 2 told that she was scolded for being late although she came half an hour before the time stipulated in the letter. Besides, (ii) they encounter many incidents when employees spend time to gossip among each other, backbiting their own colleagues for some mistake a person did, instead of approaching the person to personally give advice. A participant reported that some participants (iii) found some employees revealing confidential information about their clients, including the clients for counselling session. They found (iv) lack of integrity among some staff, such as clocking-in early but leaving for breakfast afterwards, only to come back hours later, even at 11 am. They will go out again for lunch after that, only to set bad example for the industrial training students.

Unreasonable demands by the placement organisations

Participant 6 reported that his organisation was being unreasonably demanding to industrial training students, such as requiring them to (i) send resume by hand during the entry stage; (ii) be in the office or at the site by six o’clock in the morning, (iii) do all clerical works, and (iv) handle various tasks on event management instead of employing a clerk. Participant 5 was of the view that some organisations agreed to accept industrial training student just because they could have cheap labour, “so they can have many helpers to do their work in the

organisation, not really to train the students but to use the students”. Participant 2 added, “I feel like I’m just doing the part time job there, as a clerk without receiving allowance”.

Challenging workplace environment

Four of the participants appeared to have issues with their workplace environment. Participant 1 reported that there were too many industrial training students in one organisation, causing some to be left behind when jobs were being assigned among the industrial training students. For small organisations, they have to make decision independently without having to consult any external parties, causing some mistakes in the decisions they made. Students also complained of non-conducive work environment, somewhat that made them feel unwelcomed at the workplace. A male student reported that he would easily get bored at work because the job assigned to him is something easy or light. He viewed industrial training as an experience which is not academically contributive. For international students, language barrier is a challenge for them. They had to work with employees whose English proficiency was not good. Participant 3 was unable to accomplish many tasks as she faced challenges with the language. She mentioned that, “I learned about Counselling, like CBT (*Cognitive Behavioural Therapy*), I have session with the drug addicts. My supervisor taught me about CBT. I learn this all from him but in *Bahasa Melayu*. So it’s difficult because they used terminologies which are different from what we learnt at the University”.

Difficulties with site supervisor

Almost all participants in this study had issues with their site supervisor. Participant 5 said that she did not receive adequate training because there was no work instruction from supervisor who was absent from office (due to annual leave or sick leave, or site supervisor, or late coming to work). Supervisors did not give much attention to student because they were highly busy, being too occupied with actual work rather than supervising students. Another participant reported that her supervisor was unfriendly, tend to show negative pattern of relationship with students.

Some supervisors expected undergraduates undergoing industrial training to accomplish tasks which could only be assigned to Psychology graduates. Participant 4 reported that her supervisor expected students to already have the knowledge on clinical session, despite the fact that they have not taken the subject. The supervisor then took the effort to teach the student, teaching him about the area of Clinical Psychology, and basic skills in clinical session.

Issues with personal management

Individual setbacks

Participant’s individual self is the source of complications while completing their industrial training programme. Some participants reported that individual personality traits, e.g. anxiety, and shyness caused their delay in securing industrial training placement. Students with such traits prefer sending email to calling the organisation by phone when applying for the placement. Besides, language barrier also caused difficulties to international students whose native language is different from that of the employees in the placement organisation, like Arabic or Malay. This is the case for an international student in Malaysia, and a Turkish

student in Turkey-Syria border. Besides the language barrier, another issue is personal management. Participant 9 struggled with self-discipline, such as having problem waking up early in the morning. She also experienced sickness during practical training, requiring her to go to the hospital a couple of times, resulting in additional number of industrial training days to make up for.

Location of placement organisation

Three out of nine participants went through complicated experience related to their workplace location. Participant 5 reported that, “So, for the recruitment at first, since I live in a small town, it was actually quite hard for me to find a placement for my internship, because there was not many choice”. She ended up completing her industrial training at a government organisation, in which, she did not fully enjoy. Participant 7, being an international student, also encountered an issue to secure a placement in Malaysia. She stated that “As I see for international student, it was not easy to find internship place because many companies request for applicants who understand and speak Malay language”. Thus, she preferred to look for internship places in Turkey and managed to complete her industrial training there. On the other hand, participant 9 claimed that her workplace is quite far away from her home, which therefore, led to her lateness of coming to work. She reported, “So, maybe due to distance, I spent much time commuting rather than spending time in the office. I would have like four more hours or something in my day to commute”. In addition, she also stated that she did not have much time to do anything else during her industrial training experience due to her obligation to wake up earlier than usual.

Discussion

This study found 11 major themes of issues and challenges faced by Psychology undergraduates when undergoing industrial training programme. The responses provided by the participants have, to a good extent, answered the research questions, hence described the participants’ issues and challenges. Their responses have also indicated their views on the weaknesses with their industrial training; and assessment on whether their industrial training experience helps improve their academic performance and personal skills. This section discusses issues and challenges in comparison with some of the findings from past literature; and extrapolates the strength and weaknesses of industrial training from the participants’ responses.

The issues and challenges reported by the participants are related to the roles of the university, characteristics of placement organisation, and students’ personal management. In terms of issues with the university, it was found that the students reported lack of guideline on the ways to secure industrial training placement, lack of exposure to the Psychology related field or work settings that are suitable for them to apply for industrial training, and insufficient inputs received from the University internship coordinators during industrial training. This is what Sasila and Mahmood (2017) found in their studies amongst students of Universiti Kuala Lumpur (UniKL). The students claimed that the internship coordinators provide insufficient information preceding their practical training.

The other issue is on the overwhelming number of hours required by the university for the students to spend in the placement organisation, contrary to the findings by Collins (2002) and Bukaliya (2012). Collins reported the majority of students in a Turkish university found that their placement organisations have provided a combination of academic knowledge as well as “practical experience. Similarly, Bukaliya found that most students from the Zimbabwe Open University considered the internship duration as short and that they must struggle in completing it which was taken concurrently with other courses.

The issues which are linked to placement organisation involve the students’ performance of unrelated tasks. The same phenomenon was discovered by Sasila and Mahmood (2017) who found that students of UniKL believed that the task given to them during their industrial training was not related with their field. Besides, participants in this study also reported the lack of professionalism among employees at placement organisations, as well as unreasonable work demands imposed by placement organisations on industrial training students. This was the opposite to Bukaliya’s (2012) finding that industrial training students viewed their placement organisation to have helped them in understanding theories learnt in classroom, and enhanced their knowledge which are relevant to their particular area of study. The participants in this study indicated that their placement organisation did not allow them to apply any psychological concepts learned at the university. Similar findings was reported by Renganathan et al. (2012) who found small percentage of 247 students in Malaysia rated low on their ability to apply theoretical knowledge to their practices at placement organisation.

Participants also reported difficulties with their site supervisors, somewhat similar with the experience of students from Kumasi Polytechnic who reported poor supervision from their supervisors in placement organisation (Effah et al., 2014). Likewise was the case with the findings by Pill and Pilli (2013) who found that several students from University of Tartu, Estonia claimed that their placement supervisor did not provide feedbacks on students’ performance or the feedback was not adequate. Despite not being academically contributing, industrial training supervisor did not provide enough information for improvement of their work skills. On the contrary, students in Taiwanese universities have gained positive impact from their placement, in that they have formed good relationship with co-workers and learn industrial techniques during industrial training (Ko, 2008).

In terms of personal management, the participants reported their individual setbacks that hinder satisfactory attainment of the industrial training. The inability to apply or utilize psychology knowledge at workplace appears to be one of the major issues or challenges faced by the participants . The students reported that they would easily get bored due to the easy or light nature of job assigned to them. This was just the opposite to Bukaliya’s (2012) finding that the students in his study reported that industrial training was beneficial in that it boosted their motivational levels among the participating students. Another challenge is the participants’ difficulty to commute to the location of placement organisation. This is contrary to the finding by D’abate et al. (2009) who reported that desirable location does not have significant relationship with the internship satisfaction among university students in northeastern of United States. For them, securing a placement for industrial training is more important, because there were not many organisations to choose from.

With regard to the strength of industrial training, this study found that the industrial training requires students to spend adequate duration of time for them to complete their training, that is three months. In some institutions, industrial training is done concurrently with other coursework. Nevertheless, the latter is somewhat not desired by some students, for they have to divide their time and attention to coursework and practical work, such that was the concern by students in Zimbabwe (Bukaliya, 2012). This study found that industrial training helps them to understand theories they learnt in classroom, and enhance their learning and understanding of issues relevant to their particular area of study.

In terms of weaknesses of industrial training, some participants in this study reported their lack of opportunity to apply the learnt knowledge at their placement organisation. This is due to the different nature learning processes. Despite this experience, the participants viewed industrial training as a unit that they have to fulfil in order to graduate, somewhat similar to the views of the Turkish students who enrolled in industrial training just in order to pass and graduate from a degree programme (Collins, 2002). Another weakness is with the role of the University in developing good foundational knowledge; or providing enough exposure for students on the nature and expectation of industrial training. This has affected their motivation to passionately carry on with the training, different from what was found by Bukaliya (2012) in his study among Zimbabwe undergraduates. Participants in this study expected the coordinators to provide sufficient information preceding their practical training. In terms of the roles of supervisors, it was found that their roles in helping the students to acquire related competencies should be addressed. Besides providing direct supervision, their behaviours or work behaviours should bring impacts on the students' learning, especially on the areas that pertain to work ethics, such as attendance to work. The roles of academic supervisors also require improvement so as to ensure their students' work at placement organisation are in tandem with the learning outcome of the industrial training programme.

Conclusion

This study has identified 11 major themes of issues and challenges encountered by Psychology undergraduates who undergo industrial training. The responses could be the bases to formulate interventions in improving their industrial training programme. In brief, the issues and challenges of industrial training programme include lack of exposure/preparation for industrial training among students; their inability to apply learnt knowledge at work; the duration of industrial training; issues with supervisors; the efficiency of coordinating system; and relationship between students and co-workers at workplace.

Like any other research, this study also has some limitations. Firstly, limited number of participants. The findings do not represent the whole population of Psychology undergraduates as there were only nine participants used in this study. Secondly, three of the participants were international students, leading to different forms of challenges in terms of cultural or language barrier in Malaysia. Future research should gather responses from more participants instead of only nine students.

Recommendations and Suggestions

The above findings inform for some interventions to be introduced. The university should provide clear information of internship on well-structured document. Besides, university should also compile frequently asked questions on issues or challenges during their industrial training so that the answers could provide basic guidelines to students. University should also design seamless coordination system between department, students, and placement organisation as well as provide guidelines to industrial training students, so that they are guided to showcasing desirable work behaviors when undergoing industrial training. The job description or roles of academic and placement supervisors should also be provided so as to inform them of their tasks, duties and responsibilities, especially in providing feedbacks, comments, knowledge and skills to industrial training students. It is also suggested that the scope of research is to be extended by studying the perspectives of placement organisations and the university as well.

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Research Article

Exploring the attitudes of native and non-native (Turkish) English-speaking parents towards formal instruction of English in Turkish kindergartens

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Abstract

For many preschoolers in Turkish kindergartens, English instruction starts in the third year of their lives when they have barely begun to articulate their thoughts in their own mother tongue, Turkish. Parents have a dual role as models and decision makers in their children's foreign language education. As the fifteen participant parents of this study are either proficient non-native English speakers (NNEPs) or native English speakers (NEPs), they can provide linguistic input themselves and expose their children to limited or extensive input in different forms. Thus, this study aims to explore the attitudes of NEPs and NNEPs towards the formal instruction of English in Turkish kindergartens. Fifteen questionnaires and interviews were conducted to gather data using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The results demonstrated that all of the participants have positive attitudes towards their children's early initiation into English both in kindergartens and at home and they provide different kinds of scaffolding at home, including natural and self-provided input despite the fact that they mostly harbor a deep sense of mistrust in the qualifications of English teachers in Turkish kindergartens in general.

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Note(s) from the author(s)

» This paper does not require an ethics approval document according to ULAKBIM's (TR INDEX) new coverage criteria as the data were collected before 2020.

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: I hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. I take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

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Ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan (Türk) İngilizce konuşan ebeveynlerin çocuklarına Türkiye'deki ana okullarında verilen İngilizce eğitime ilişkin görüşlerinin incelenmesi

Öz

Türkiye'de özel ana okullarındaki bir çok çocuk için İngilizce eğitimi hayatlarının üçüncü yılında, yani kendi ana dilleri olan Türkçe'de fikirlerini daha yeni yeni ifade etmeye başladıkları zaman başlar. Ebeveynlerin çocuklarının yabancı dil eğitimine ilişkin hem model oluşturma hem de karar alma gibi ikili bir rolü vardır. Bu araştırmada yer alan 15 ebeveynden bazılarının ana dili İngilizce'dir ve çok kültürlü ailelerden gelmektedirler, bazıları ise ana dili İngilizce olmayıp etkin bir biçimde İngilizce'yi kullanabilmektedirler. Bu nedenle çocukları için kolaylıkla kendileri dilsel girdi sağlayabilecek veya çocuklarını çeşitli biçimlerde sınırlı veya kapsamlı girdiye maruz bırakabilecek durumdadırlar. Bu araştırma, İngilizce bilen Türk ailelerin ve çok kültürlü ailelerin parçası olan ebeveynlerin Türkiye'deki ana okullarında verilen İngilizce eğitime ilişkin görüşlerini kapsamaktadır. Bu amaçla, katılımcılara önce anket uygulanmış, ardından ise mülakatlar yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar bütün katılımcıların çocuklarının İngilizce öğrenmeye hem ana okulunda hem de evlerinde erkenden başlamasına ilişkin olumlu tutumları olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca katılımcılar kendi sağladıkları doğal dilsel girdiler de dahil olmak üzere çocuklarının erken İngilizce dil gelişimi için çeşitli destekler sağlamaktadırlar. Ancak katılımcılar, aynı zamanda Türkiye'deki ana sınıflarında görev alan İngilizce öğretmenleri'nin yeterli düzeyde vasıflı olduğunu düşünmemektedir.

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Introduction

Children start devoting a great deal of effort to make sense of this world immediately after they are born into it. First language acquisition comprises a crucial part of their efforts as they begin to utter single words from around 1 and 1,5 years of age. Their syntactic development is largely complete by the age of 4 years (Hoff, 2013) For many Turkish preschoolers in private kindergartens in Istanbul, foreign language instruction also starts in the third year of their lives when they have barely begun to put in their lifetime efforts to articulate their thoughts in their own mother tongue.

Although challenged by some studies, the Critical Period Hypothesis, the idea that young children are better able to learn a foreign language than adults because their brains can still use the mechanisms that assist the first language acquisition before puberty, is frequently used to encourage the introduction of foreign language teaching in early childhood especially if native-like proficiency is the ultimate goal of this teaching (Cameron, 2001). In Turkish kindergartens, English can often be chosen as the main foreign language due to “the entry of neoliberal ideals into the education sphere that has caused language programs and departments to be shaped to meet the demands of the corporate sector” (Kananen et al., 2016, p. 16). As a result, many Turkish parents choose kindergartens for their children depending on whether English instruction is offered or not.

Apart from the choice of kindergartens, parents also have a dual role as models and decision makers in their children’s foreign language education. Wong (2000) points out that parents act as important language models for shaping children’s language behavior. As the participants of this study are either proficient non-native English-speaking (NNEPs) or native English-speaking parents (NEPs), they can provide linguistic input themselves and expose their children to limited or extensive input in different entertainment forms, play groups, games, stories etc. if they want. According to Oskamp and Schultz (2014, p. 126), “a child’s attitudes are largely shaped by its own experience with the world, but this is usually accomplished by explicit teaching and implicit modelling of parental attitudes”. Thus, it can be assumed that this implicit modelling of parental attitudes in English-speaking families and multicultural families towards formal instruction of English in Turkish kindergartens can help shape their children’s attitudes towards the targeted foreign language.

The aim of this study is to explore parental perceptions of NEPs as well as NNEPs towards formal English instruction in Turkish kindergartens. This study differentiates itself from the previous research (Ching-Ying & Hsiang-Chun, 2016; Lao, 2004; Liu & Chien, 1998; Oladejo, 2006; Shang, Ingebritson & Tseng, 2007; Tivil, 2009; Wu, 1998) in that all the parents in this study are members of either multicultural or English-speaking families. Thus, they can easily provide additional linguistic input and role model the targeted bilingual behaviors themselves.

Parental perceptions of formal English instruction in Turkish kindergartens are explored in this study using the below research questions:

- 1.What are the parental attitudes of English-speaking Turkish families and native English-speaking families towards their preschoolers’ English language learning in Turkish kindergartens?
- 2.How do parents support their children’s English language learning?

Young learners and language acquisition

Preschoolers can be great risk takers during the language learning process as they are mostly less afraid than teenagers and adults to make mistakes in their production and in most cases they are too young to have pre-existing hostile or favorable attitudes towards the target language, culture or native speakers of that language. Regarding this issue Oskamp and Schultz (2014) mentions “implicit modelling of parental attitudes” (p. 168) explaining that a child mainly shapes his own attitudes through his own experience in this world but in the lack of such direct experience the child mainly relies on parental attitudes especially in such issues as attitudes towards foreigners and other countries. If their parents have positive attitudes, they tend to encourage their children to become active language learners and even provide extra linguistic input and help whenever possible.

Preschoolers are still in Piaget’s preoperational stage of cognitive development (2-7 years old) which is characterized by the development of memory and imagination along with the use of symbols and language development (Shin, 2014). This stage has two phases: the symbolic function (ages 2 to 4 years) and the intuitive thought (ages 4 to 7 years) (Ashford & LeCroy, 2010). In the symbolic function stage, as Ashford and LeCroy point out (2010), children are able to mentally represent objects that are not present in their immediate environment, thus they can play pretend games, imagine whole scenarios and talk about people or things that are not present. In intuitive thought phase, children ask a lot of questions as they want to know the ‘how’ and ‘why’ of everything (Ashford & LeCroy, 2010, p. 302). Although they are extremely egocentric and cannot reason in this stage, they demonstrate their intelligence increasingly through the use of symbols and language (Shin, 2014). As a result, it could be argued that preoperational children would enjoy experimenting with both their mother tongue as well as another language that they are consistently exposed to.

There are several critical factors that need to be taken into account when teaching English to preschoolers between the ages of 2 and 7. Firstly, they do not know how to read and write, thus English instruction has to rely merely on listening and speaking. Hence, it is common for young learner (YL) classrooms to use songs, dancing, and movement for kinesthetic learning, and methods to make input comprehensible like using gestures, pointing at visuals, explaining, demonstrating, and using realia, or real objects or a combination of many techniques into one activity to engage children in the learning process (Shin, 2014). Secondly, unlike their mother tongue, EFL contexts lack an English-speaking environment outside the classroom and YLs cannot hear much English in their immediate surroundings (Shin, 2014). That is why, EFL context requires a lot of repetition in the classroom especially for YLs. In the case of multicultural families in this study, YLs have a parent who is a native speaker of English, so they are exposed to a considerable amount of natural English input. The children of English-speaking Turkish families in this study are also often exposed to English input in the form of songs, movies, TV shows or social circles that their parents choose for themselves and/or their children.

The third vital factor is that preschoolers are still in the process of acquiring their first language (L1) which is Turkish. Therefore, they are expected to acquire another language simultaneously with their mother tongue when they are immersed in English instruction. When the notable differences between English and Turkish in their sentence structures,

vocabulary and articulation are taken into consideration, acquiring both of them at the same time may even be reckoned as a herculean task. Nevertheless, children are particularly skilled to meet this challenge, and they have an innate ability to observe their environment carefully and decipher the meaning of utterances in their L1, hence L2 use must always be contextualized and visual support must be given whenever possible (Brewster et al. 2003). The importance of focusing on meaning is also pointed out by Gürbüz (2013) and she further explains that meaning-focused and interactional tasks as well as fun and creativity in the classroom will provide YLs with real purposes to speak the target language. Another notable point in teaching preschoolers is that they have their own sense of reality, their own heroes and heroines, favorite fictional characters and toys and their own L1 and L2 lexicon. Thus, the importance of adapting tasks and topics is emphasized by Cameron (2001) since this adaptation ensures that tasks and topics relate to learners' interests particularly by "building into a task an element of choice for pupils" (p. 58), i.e. grab your favorite colored balloon. Therefore, kindergarten teachers need to familiarize themselves with preschoolers' universe so that they can anticipate topics and activities of interest for their learners as they plan their lessons.

Preschoolers mainly engage in implicit learning as they "remain unaware of the learning that has taken place, although it is evident in the behavioral responses they make" (Ellis, 2009, p. 3). Thus, their behavioral responses can be assessed using such tools as arts and crafts or verbal feedback instead of traditional written exam-based testing techniques.

Various different studies such as Lee and Lin (2015), and Dzanic and Pejic (2016) point to the significance of music in the form of songs and musical storytelling to motivate YLs as they are more attentive in class thanks to the rhythmic nature of the teaching material (Lee & Lin, 2015) and develop a love for language learning (Dzanic & Pejic, 2016). Furthermore, songs have a positive influence on vocabulary retention of YLs (Dzanic & Pejic, 2016).

According to Wray (2002), very young learners "seem naturally adept at employing formulaic sequences" (p. 148). Thus, teaching English to YLs may allow for considerable numbers of chunks and social interaction between peers because children tend to interact and play with one another through the use of chunks that they hear from their parents, teachers and peers. McKay (2006) also mentions young learners' "propensity to employ formulaic expressions or chunks of language" (p. 193). He further explains that these chunks are not analyzed, meaning that children do not actually know the grammatical structure within these chunks but they can still engage in meaningful language use thanks to these chunks (McKay, 2006).

According to Gürbüz (2013) the main goal of foreign language instruction should primarily be to generate interest in learning a foreign language. Considering the fact that young children are naturally disposed to cooperate and please their parents (Talbot, 2009), parents are perfectly suited to generate interest in the target language and culture. The English proficiency of parents can be an indicator for the amount of linguistic support supplied at home or may serve as a function of indirect modeling (Portes and Hao, 1998). This is why, the participants of this study have been chosen from English-speaking Turkish families and multicultural families. Gardner (2010) distinguishes between active and passive roles that parents play in the language learning process of their children. Within the scope of active role, parents can encourage their children to do well in languages whereas they can question why their children are learning a

foreign language that they might never use later in life if they take on the passive role (Gardner, 2010). Parental involvement in children’s learning is positively related to achievement (Cotton & Wikelund, 2007). They further clarify that this involvement can entail both working directly with their children on learning activities at home, i.e. reading to their children and receiving phone calls, reading and signing written correspondence from school, attending parent-teacher conferences. The kind of involvement that Cotton and Wikelund, (2007) describe can apply to learners at all ages, including preschoolers. Parents also exercise attitudinal influence on their children by encouraging participation in the target language, exchange programs and excursions, helping the child with homework, encouraging the child to read material written in that language (Young, 1994) or reading to them in the cases of this study and by making the target language country the destination for a family holiday if possible. Participants of this study are potentially capable of adopting some or all of these to foster the improvement of their children’s target language use if they are willing to do so.

Methodology

Participants

The data was primarily collected from NNEPs and NEPs that work for a private university in İstanbul and have kids in a private kindergarten during the first term of the 2018-2019 academic year. 15 parents who have kids in this kindergarten that mostly offers at least two or three hours of English courses weekly were selected for this study. Four of the parents are native speakers of English and were born and raised in different cultures while the other eleven Turkish parents are all proficient speakers and writers in English.

Table 1. Participants’ ages, careers and nationalities

| Number of participants | Age | Career | Nationality |
|------------------------|-------|--|-------------|
| 11 | 28-35 | English teacher at the preparatory school of a private university, flight attendant, civil engineer, housewife, general manager in an international airlines company, computer engineer, executive of a food chain, banker, psychologist | Turkish |
| 2 | 28-33 | English teacher at the prep school of a private university | Canadian |
| 1 | 40 | English teacher at the preparatory school of a private university | Australian |
| 1 | 32 | English teacher at the preparatory school of a private university | American |

All the participants are at least university graduates and they mostly have jobs that require them to speak English fluently and/or handle correspondence on a daily basis in English. Five of them also have Master's degrees.

Data collection tools

In this study, two different tools, a questionnaire (Tavil, 2009) and individual interviews were used to gather data. Since the research incorporates the use of a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, methodological triangulation is adopted as “a strategy to go beyond the knowledge made possible by one approach and thus contribute to promoting the quality of the qualitative research” (Flick, 2009, p. 445).

A pilot study was not carried out to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire because the results of the pilot study in Tavil's research (2009) had already been analyzed using SPSS package program and the questionnaire had .97 reliability. The questionnaire was professionally translated into Turkish. Thus, all the participants answered the questions in their own native language, English or Turkish to overcome the language barrier.

Qualitative research entails the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials-case study, experience, introspection, life story, interview, artifacts etc. that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals' lives to get a better understanding of the subject matter at hand (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). That is why interviews were conducted in this study to obtain more relevant information about parents' and preschoolers' routine and problematic moments in second language acquisition. The interview questions (see the Appendix) were adapted from another study on parental perceptions of early childhood English education by Lin and Chen (2016). The interviews were conducted in each participant's own native language. To ensure further content reliability, the interview questions were discussed with a professor of English language teaching and several colleagues doing their PhD in English language teaching. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed.

Data analysis

The data collected from fifteen questionnaires were analyzed using Microsoft Excel 2013 programme. The qualitative data collected from the interviews were analyzed using Braun and Clarke's (2006) step-by-step guide for doing qualitative thematic analysis because they provide clear guidelines for starting thematic analysis and conducting it in a deliberate and accurate way. Thematic analysis is used in order to identify recurring themes and categories in the data from the interviews. Recurring themes in the interviews are summarized under the relevant questionnaire results.

Results

The results from NEPs and NNEPs are compared and contrasted whenever it is meaningful to do so.

Table 2. Responses to question 1

| I choose the kindergarten for my children depending on whether there is an English course or not | | |
|--|-----------|---------------------------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 9 | 60% |
| Disagree | 2 | 13% |
| Undecided | 4 | 27% (All native speakers) |

Although NEPs are all undecided about whether to choose their kids' kindergartens merely based on the English courses, most of the Turkish parents, 60% agree to do so. During the interviews, as another factor directly affecting their choices of kindergartens, nine of the parents voiced financial concerns about sending their kids to bilingual kindergartens on the grounds that those schools charge more, sometimes double the average tuition fee just because they offer extensive English courses, namely 15 hours or more. In addition, three NEPs stated that extensive English courses in the school would not be their priority as they will be "the icing on the cake anyway because the kid already learns English at home" as one of the participants, P10 stated.

Table 3. Responses to question 2

| All kindergartens should have basic English courses | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 14 | 93% |
| Disagree | 1 | 7% |
| Undecided | 0 | 0% |

Almost all of the participants, 93% agreed that all kindergartens should have basic English courses. However, in the interview all the participants except for one, P6, who is a psychologist at a kindergarten herself, expressed that they harbor a sense of deep mistrust in the English education both in general and in kindergartens in Turkey. Some of the relevant quotations are as follows:

P1: *"English teaching in general is not very educational or beneficial for adults in Turkey, the English classes in kindergartens will be no different."*

P2: *"I don't think that the English education will be enough or natural in Turkish kindergartens."*

P3: *"The English education in private kindergartens in Turkey is probably pretty reflective of the English education in general, which is less than positive, despite being in this field."*

P4: *"The English classes that they offer, it is just a way of marketing the kindergarten, unless they integrate English speaking naturally to the day to day conversations in the school, it is just two hours of English, for show only."*

The participants' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of learning English in early childhood are summarized in the below table:

Table 4. Responses to question 3

| Learning English in early childhood is more effective than in elementary schools | | |
|--|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 15 | 100% |
| Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| Undecided | 0 | 0% |

All of the participants agree that learning English in early childhood is more effective than in elementary schools. In the interview all of them also stated that it is not only more effective, but also easier in early childhood than later in life. Twelve of the participants mentioned better fluency and correct pronunciation as the primary reason for encouraging their preschoolers to learn English. They also expressed several different reasons for this. Some of them are as follows:

P1: *“It is harder to forget the things that are learned early in childhood, it is also easier for children to retrieve the information from their memory.”*

P5: *“Children are truly open to learning new things, particularly language learning, between the ages of 3 and 11 because they can learn languages really fast and have native-like fluency, my son, for instance, he repeats and tries to use the English phrases he heard even only once or twice, seeing that it makes me happy. It is amazing really.”*

P6: *“Learning a second language early in childhood helps them understand that objects can have multiple names, not just Turkish names, but names in other languages. It gives their brains flexibility, makes them smarter.”*

P7: *“It doesn't take my kid ages to say something in English because he doesn't really care whether his utterance is correct or not, he just wants to communicate. I think this is a good thing in the language learning process.”*

As mentioned in the above quotations, longer retention period, native-like fluency, increased brain flexibility, a lack of fear to make mistakes were all mentioned as the obvious advantages of learning English in early childhood.

The participants' perceptions regarding the practical advantage of learning English to improve future career prospects are summarized in the below table.

Table 5. Responses to question 4

| My child can be more competitive in the future job market thanks to the English instruction in kindergarten | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |

| | | |
|-----------|----|-----------------------|
| Agree | 12 | 80% |
| Disagree | 1 | 7% |
| Undecided | 2 | 13% (Native speakers) |

80% of the participants believe that early English instruction helps their children become more competitive in the future job market. Similarly, during the interviews, six of the participants emphasized the benefits of English proficiency especially in the business life. Three of them also placed equal emphasis on academic career. Some of the relevant quotations are as follows:

P4: *“It is much more difficult to build a good career in business life if you don’t know English today, nobody can deny that. You could say the same thing for academic career.”*

P8: *“Knowing English is a great advantage for her future as well, especially if she wants to go abroad for education. Even if she stays in Turkey, she can easily choose a department where the medium of education is English.”*

Most parents who participated in this study seem to place quite a lot of importance on learning English in early childhood as a practical way to improve their children’s future career prospects.

Participants’ perceptions regarding whether learning English can increase their children’s self-confidence or not are summarized in the below table.

Table 6. Responses to question 5

| I believe my child’s self-confidence can increase when she is educated in a kindergarten having English education | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 10 | 67% |
| Disagree | 4 | 27% |
| Undecided | 1 | 6% |

67% of the participants think that speaking English increases their children’s self-confidence. In the interviews, all of the participants emphasized several other advantages of early English input and instruction both at home and at kindergartens. Five of them asserted that learning English and Turkish simultaneously reinforces their children’s language acquisition process in general and makes retention easier. It also makes their children more curious and enthusiastic to learn more. These are the relevant quotations from P9 and P6:

P9: *“At home I think it (early childhood English education) may even be improving it (his kid’s Turkish learning) in some ways because sometimes when they come across a Turkish word that they don’t know the meaning of, they know the English word, they always equate the two and so I think it improves it. I don’t think he gets confused.”*

P6: *“It (Learning English and Turkish simultaneously) made my boy even more curious and he wanted to learn more and more. A second language definitely made his world a lot more colourful.”*

The majority of the participants believe that not only their children’s self-confidence but also their enthusiasm and curiosity increase as a result of their early initiation into English instruction.

The participants’ perceptions regarding whether bilingual education in kindergarten improves their children’s communication skills or not are summarized in the below table.

Table 7. Responses to question 6

| I think that being a student of a kindergarten having English education helps my child improve her communication skills in general | | |
|--|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 13 | 87% |
| Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| Undecided | 2 | 13% |

87% of the participants agree that early English education helps their children improve their communication skills in general. P2 also mentioned this in the interview: “He switches back and forth, English with his father, Turkish with me. He can find the words so quickly. Obviously this is making him better at communicating with other people as well.”

As another advantage of early English education, P4, P9, P5, P10 and P11, all from multicultural families also strongly emphasized that getting acquainted with another language means getting to know another way of life and this, in turn, helps their children gain cultural perspective. All of the participants clearly stated that learning English has had no negative effect on their children’s Turkish acquisition. However, one of them, P10 stated that her son “sometimes inserts English words into Turkish sentences.” She also added that she does not consider this as a disadvantage but a manifestation of the natural bilingual acquisition process. The boy’s father, P7 also confirmed this and affirmed that this alone cannot be a disadvantage because his son “is actually trying to get his message across using all of the words, English or Turkish available in his lexicon.”

The participants’ perceptions regarding whether they believe that English teachers in Turkish kindergartens are well-qualified or not are summarized in the below table.

Table 8. Responses to question 7

| I think that the English teachers in the kindergartens are well-qualified | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 2 | 13% |
| Disagree | 9 | 60% |

Undecided 4 27%

Only two of the participants agree that the English teachers in the kindergartens are well-qualified. In the interviews, seven participants also voiced their concerns about the qualifications of English teachers in kindergartens. Four participants, who are all from multicultural families, are mainly worried about incorrect pronunciations of words and a detectable accent that their children would pick up at a Turkish kindergarten while English native speakers, P3 and P9 clearly affirmed that they would easily overcome such problems as they will provide the majority of the English input for their children as indicated in the below quotations:

P3: *“I am gonna be most of his English exposure. So, I want him to have a native accent. So I am gonna have to strive to do that.”*

P9: *“I mean because at the end of the day the amount of time that I am spending with him is much more, so I think the pronunciation of words and the accent and so forth, I think he’ll pick that up from me anyway hopefully and so it won’t be too much of a problem.”*

Three participants mentioned that the English teachers in most kindergartens do not necessarily have a degree in English teaching, but they specialize in preschool teaching in general and speak English to some extent. They also added that their proficiency level in English and their language teaching methodologies are also questionable.

P8: *“Most of the English teachers in Turkish kindergartens specialize in pre-school teaching only. How can they know how to teach English if they have no degree or training in language teaching?”*

P11: *“But they mostly just read an English book to the kids. One of the teachers asks questions about the book. They sometimes listen to a nursery rhyme and sing along or watch a video. I don’t think this does much to improve their English; they don’t encourage them to talk to one another in English. I was hoping for that. They are trying but I don’t think the teachers are qualified to teach English, they don’t know what to do.”*

Participants’ perceptions regarding their children’s early initiation into English, even before kindergarten are summarized in the below table.

Table 9. Responses to question 8

| | Before starting kindergarten my child had initiated into English | |
|-----|--|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Yes | 15 | 100% |
| No | 0 | 0% |

All the participants reported that their children had initiated into English before starting kindergarten. In the interviews, all the participants mentioned different ways of

exposure, intentional and unintentional, and different sources of English input for their children since they were born. Some of them include movies and cartoons, both for parents and their children, books, songs, mainly nursery rhymes, but also popular songs for adults, games and direct exposure to daily conversations in the cases of multicultural families. Twelve of the participants strongly emphasized that language learning should be natural (during daily communication) and fun. Thus, NNEPs try to teach English as implicitly as possible. This is also indicated by the below quotations:

P8: *“I try to scaffold her English acquisition in the same way I did when she was uttering her very first words in Turkish, by pointing at objects and repeating very simple words and simple imperatives.”*

P4: *“I try to help her enjoy learning English and provide ample enjoyable input, games, colorful books, cartoons etc. She enjoys repeating simple commands back at me.”*

P6: *“We have a play group where they speak merely in English for three hours. I take him there at the weekends.”*

P5: *“We sing along the nursery rhymes together. He loves that!”*

In the cases of NEPs, all four of them pointed out that they try to speak exclusively English with their kids and they also try not to respond to their kids’ Turkish utterances even though some of them are perfectly capable of doing so in order to provide the maximum amount of natural English input and set a code of mutual understanding that their kids feel the need to speak English with their native speaker parent.

Participants’ perceptions regarding their children’s extracurricular vocabulary learning are summarized in the below table.

Table 10. Responses to question 9

| My child sings the songs or repeats the vocabulary items outside the school that she has practiced at school | | |
|--|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 14 | 93% |
| Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| Undecided | 1 | 7% |

93% of the participants assert that their kids sing the songs or repeat the vocabulary items outside the school that she has practiced at school. P10 gave the following example related to this:

“My boy sometimes repeats the fixed phrases that he practiced at school, the other day he kept saying ‘It’s Monday.’ I told him that it was Tuesday that day, but he kept insisting it was Monday. I guess they repeat those fixed expressions so many times that they get drilled into their brains.”

Obviously, most parents believe that the repetition of chunks at kindergartens can aid their children’s vocabulary acquisition. Parents’ perceptions regarding the immersion of their children in English are summarized in the below table.

Table 11. Responses to question 10

| I don’t think that the children need the immersion of English in kindergartens at that age | | |
|--|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 4 | 27% |
| Disagree | 10 | 67% |
| Undecided | 1 | 6% |

67% of the parents think that their children need the immersion of English in kindergartens if they are to acquire English as well as their mother tongue. P2 and P4 also pointed out that the teachers in kindergartens need to find a way to integrate English into the kids’ daily conversations, daily routine and it will not be natural or effective if they only speak English in the classroom, as indicated in the below quotations:

P4: *“Even if the school has 20 hours of English, unless the kids are actually trying to talk to one another in English, it is not a bilingual kindergarten.”*

P2: *“I’d choose a kindergarten where they teach English not like a school subject in the classroom, like Maths, but as a tool to communicate in real life without boring kids out of their minds!”*

Participants’ perceptions regarding English teachers’ credentials at Turkish kindergartens are summarized in the below table.

Table 12. Responses to question 11

| I surely think that the English teachers at kindergartens should have certificates or should be specialists on that field | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 15 | 100% |
| Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| Undecided | 0 | 0% |

All of the participants believe that the English teachers at kindergartens should have certificates or should be specialists on that field. However only two participants, P6 and P7 stated that the kindergarten teachers that they have met specialize in English teaching.

Participants’ perceptions regarding their children’s English language skills before primary school are summarized in the below table.

Table 13. Responses to question 12

| I will send my child to a primary school having English education | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Agree | 13 | 87% |
| Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| Undecided | 2 | 13% |

87% of the participants would like to send their children to a primary school having English education. As indicated in the quotations under Table 9, all participants support their children’s early initiation into English. The results of this question also point to the same conclusion.

Discussion and Conclusion

The results of this study clearly indicate that when parental attitudes towards English education is positive, parents tend to get more involved in their children’s second language acquisition process. Parental involvement can take different forms. Firstly, they choose bilingual kindergartens even if they do not have much faith in the credentials of the English teachers who work there or they do not approve of the teaching methodology. Secondly, most of the participants confirmed that there should be some sort of immersion instead of classroom-based teaching so that their preschoolers can acquire and use the target language naturally rather than accepting it as a drudge they have to endure from time to time. However, financial concerns also play a crucial role as the kindergartens with immersion programs cost much more. Thirdly, all the participants except the ones with native speaker spouses feel the need to scaffold their children’s second language acquisition at home. They mostly use level-appropriate books, songs, pschodramatic role play games, theme-based teaching using books or flashcards, all acceptable methods in teaching young learners as indicated in the literature review.

Ching-Ying and Hsiang-Chun’s study (2016) on parental opinions about the advantages and disadvantages for children to attend early childhood English education and parental support for this early foreign language initiation revealed that most parents in the study concurred that infancy is the significant period for English learning and development. This finding was also confirmed in this study. Moreover, Ching-Ying and Hsiang-Chun’s (2016) study also showed that most parents agreed that early childhood English education did not affect Chinese (their mother tongue) learning of their children. All the parents in this study also thought that their children’s early initiation into English was advantageous rather than disadvantageous and had no negative effect on their children’s simultaneous Turkish acquisition.

Another relevant finding of the previous research (Ching-Ying & Hsiang-Chun, 2016) is that most parents agreed their children can get better jobs in the future by taking early childhood English education. Oladejo (2006), and Liu and Chien (1998) also asserted that Taiwanese parents believed that their children would have not only better chances of learning English well, but also better career prospects in the future if they received early childhood

English education in bilingual kindergartens. This parental beliefs in better career prospects thanks to learning English in early childhood have also been confirmed in Shang, Ingebritson and Tseng's study (2007) as well as Romero-Gonzalez's research (2008). The majority of the parents in this study also agreed that learning English in early childhood improved their children's future career prospects.

The results of Tavi's (2009) study demonstrated that most parents strongly support immersion of English for their children in Kindergartens whereas they have negative attitudes with respect to the qualifications of teachers. Moreover, Tavi's (2009) study is not the only one which raised parental concern about the qualification of English teachers at kindergartens. Several other studies (Chang, 2004; Na, 2016; Shang, Ingebritson & Tseng, 2007; Tsai, 2003; Wu, 1998) also showed that parents doubt the effectiveness of bilingual learning programs in kindergartens due to frequent arguments about the qualification of English teachers. More than half of the participants (60%) also harbored a sense of mistrust in the qualification of English teachers at Turkish kindergartens. Lao's (2004) research also showed that parents strongly support Chinese-English bilingual preschool education. The main reasons for this parental support include "the practical advantages of being bilingual (e.g., better career opportunities), positive effects on self-image, and development of skills enabling effective communication within the Chinese-speaking community" (Lao, 2004, p.1). The participants of this study also largely believed that learning English in early childhood improved their children's communication skills in general.

As for the limitations of this study, all participants expressed views similar to Critical Period Hypothesis or at least Sensitive Period Hypothesis because almost half of the participants professionally specialize in English language teaching. Another limitation is that there were tight time constraints during some of the interviews due to participants' day-time jobs, their answers were rather concise. Some participants asked for clarifications for some of the expressions in the questionnaire like "the immersion of English." However, in the interviews they were able to explain their expectations a lot more clearly, so the interviews helped to clarify the points which could have been impossible to illustrate just with the questionnaire results.

A further study could be conducted about the effects of spousal differences in parental attitudes towards second language acquisition in early childhood. In this study considerable friction was observed between some spouses regarding their involvement in their children's second language acquisition process. Generally, mothers were much more involved and invested in the process unless their spouse was a native speaker of English. This could easily be a starting point for further study. Moreover, socio-economic status of parents can also be an important role player in their children's foreign language education in Turkey. Butler's (2014) research investigates how parents' socio-economic status and their behaviors and beliefs about English education relate to their children's English language learning, and how such relationships may differ across different grade levels. It could be helpful to replicate such a research involving the relation between socio-economic status of parents and their children's preschool English education in Turkey.

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Appendix

Interview questions

1. Would you choose to take your child to study in a bilingual kindergarten? Why or why not?
2. In parental opinions, what are the advantages and disadvantages for children to receive early childhood English education?
3. In parental opinions, how does early childhood English education affect children's Turkish learning?
4. How do you as parents support your child's English learning?
5. What do you think about the English education in private kindergartens in Turkey?

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Research Article

The impact of critical literacy instruction on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension

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Abstract

This study aimed at unveiling the impact of genre-based critical literacy instruction on adult English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' reading comprehension. Twenty-three preparatory year students enrolled at a state university in the western part of Turkey volunteered to participate in this quasi-experimental study. The reading section of the Testing of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was administered as the pretests and posttests. Following the pretests, a four-week genre-based reading instruction curriculum was implemented in both groups. In the experimental group, text critiquing activities were incorporated into instruction in addition to code breaking, text participating, and text using activities. In the control group, on the other hand, only code breaking, text participating, and text using activities were involved in the teaching process. At the end of the instruction process, the posttest was administered. The Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test and the Mann-Whitney U Test were used to analyze the data. The results of the study did not show a significant difference in the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and control groups, which was not in line with the studies that have been previously conducted. This study implies that an extended intervention period is required to reach more definite results. Further research with a larger sampling is needed to examine the efficacy of critical literacy instruction.

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Note(s) from the author(s)

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» The ethics committee approval was obtained from Dokuz Eylül University with a document number of 15563195-302.08.01-E.36224 on 08/05/2019. Also being part of a PhD study, it is ensured that the paper meets the principles of research ethics.

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Ethics statement: We hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. We take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

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Eleştirel okuryazarlık öğretiminin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen yetişkin öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama becerilerine etkisi

Öz

Bu çalışma, tür odaklı eleştirel okuryazarlık öğretiminin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen yetişkin öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama becerilerine olan etkisini ortaya koymayı amaçlamıştır. Bu yarı deneysel çalışmaya Türkiye'nin batısında bulunan bir devlet üniversitesinde öğrenim gören 23 öğrenci gönüllü katılım sağlamıştır. Ön test ve son test olarak Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Sınavı'nın okuma bölümü uygulanmıştır. Ön testlerin uygulanmasından sonra çalışmaya katılan her iki gruba 4 haftalık tür odaklı okuma eğitimi uygulanmıştır. Deney grubunun öğretimine kod çözme, metne katılma, metni kullanma ve metin eleştirme aktiviteleri dahil edilmiştir. Kontrol grup öğretimi ise sadece kod çözme, metne katılma ve metni kullanma aktivitelerini içermiştir. Öğretim sürecinin bitiminde okuma becerileri son testi uygulanmıştır. Veri analizinde Bağımlı Örneklem Wilcoxon İşaretili Sıra Sayıları Testi ile Mann-Whitney U Testi kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları, daha önce gerçekleştirilmiş olan çalışmalardan farklı olarak, kontrol ve deney gruplarının okuma becerileri testi ön test ve son test sonuçları arasında istatistiksel olarak önemli bir fark ortaya koymamıştır. Bu çalışma, daha açık ve kesin sonuçlara ulaşmak için daha uzun bir süreci kapsayan eğitsel müdahale gerektiğini göstermiştir. Eleştirel okuryazarlık öğretiminin etkililiğini ölçmek amacıyla daha fazla katılımcıyla daha fazla araştırma yapılmalıdır.

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Introduction

The term *literacy* has been defined as a purely cognitive and linguistic activity for decades. That is to say, socio-cultural contexts in which literacy is embedded have long been neglected. From a psycholinguistic perspective, reading is defined as “psycholinguistic guessing game”; however, from a critical literacy perspective, reading may be redefined “as a mode of second-guessing texts, discourses, and social formations” (Luke & Freebody, 1999, p. 3). In a skills-oriented approach to literacy, literacy has been defined as a set of decontextualized and discrete skills which are established and can be applied anywhere after being taught as a prepackaged set (Cho, 2015). In psychological and cognitive frameworks, it is stated that the literacy taught in schools is what students need and are required to use throughout their lives (Carrington & Luke, 1997). Thus, students are expected to master merely the basic skills, including encoding and decoding. This approach to literacy is referred to as an autonomous model, in which independent meanings of texts divorced from social contexts are highlighted (Street, 1984; as cited in Cho, 2015). This ‘skills’ conception of learning literacy is still the dominant conception in governmental and policy discourses (Curry, 2003). Despite the fact that critical literacy emerged in the 1970s as an alternative to the autonomous model of literacy (Ko, 2010), educational policy frameworks in many countries still portray a skills approach to literacy today (Rassool, 1999; as cited in Cho, 2015).

The ideology lying behind different forms of literacy affects the literacy curriculum and instruction. Based on different theoretical perspectives, notions of literacy are classified as functional literacy, cultural literacy, progressive literacy, and critical literacy in Manning’s (1999) ‘Literacy-as’ Framework for Instructional Practice (as cited in Ko, 2010; Ko, 2013a). In functional literacy, literacy is viewed as skills, in cultural literacy, it is viewed as morality, and in progressive literacy, literacy is considered as personal growth. In critical literacy, however, literacy is regarded as a social transformation. The ideology of the marketplace is emphasized in functional literacy, which is reflected in a prepackaged curriculum with a restrictive scope and sequence. In cultural literacy, the focus is on the instruction of values through an elitist curriculum. Progressive literacy aims at personal growth. Thus, different from the curriculum of cultural literacy, the curriculum is open and pluralistic. Finally, critical literacy suggests unveiling the hidden agendas. This form of literacy requires an interrogated, situated, and counterhegemonic form of instruction, in which everyday world is accepted as a text, and learners are equipped with analytic tools to be able to deconstruct texts. Critical literacy enables learners to question “the who, what, why, and how” of the creation and interpretation of texts, that is, to go beyond the surface meaning of a text (Lohrey, 1998, p. 9).

Literacy, then, cannot be merely defined as the traditional instruction of reading and writing skills. As Park (2012) puts it, “reading is not a set of free-floating skills, independent of social contexts and devoid of ideologies” (p. 631). In contrast, the social construction of reading, writing, and text production within political contexts should be emphasized because these all should be regarded as a social and critical practice (Luke & Freebody, 1997; as cited in Park, 2012). In other words, economic, cultural, political, and institutional structures in society should be deeply analyzed (Lankshear & McLaren, 1993).

Conceptualization of critical literacy

The term “critical” has derived from the Greek word *kriticos*, and it means “the ability to argue and judge” (Luke, 2011, p. 3). Dionne (2010) defines critical literacy as “a lens, or overlay, for viewing texts that becomes a regular part of classroom practice” (p. 3). To Janks (2013), “critical literacy is mainly about enabling young people to read both the word and the world in relation to power, identity, difference, and access to knowledge, skills, tools and resources. It is also about writing and rewriting the world: it is about design and re-design” (p. 227). Critical literacy has its roots in western thought and social activism, for individual consciousness and self-awareness are regarded as the core concepts to foster democratic social change becoming critical consumers and users of information (Beck, 2005). The term “critical literacy” has been coined by social critical theorists to tackle social injustice and inequalities in society. These theorists assert that unequal power relationships are ubiquitous, and those that are more powerful determine the truths which will be privileged (Beck, 2005). However, critical researchers employing different theoretical frameworks propose different definitions for critical literacy (Luke & Woods, 2009).

Luke (2012) defines critical literacy as “the use of the technologies of print and other media of communication to analyze, critique and transform the norms, rule systems and practices governing the social fields of everyday life” (p. 5). Coffey (2008) defines critical literacy as reading texts actively and reflectively to have a better understanding of power, inequality, and injustice in human relationships. In this sense, critical literacy is a lens to challenge societal norms. In Jones’ (2006) terms, “critical literacy is like a pair of eyeglasses that allow one to see beyond the familiar and comfortable; it is an understanding that language practices and texts are always informed by ideological beliefs and perspectives whether conscious or otherwise” (p. 67). With a critical literacy approach to reading, readers are able to read underneath, behind, and beyond texts. Being aware of the fact that texts are biased, they also explore alternative readings. In addition, they seek to understand the authors’ beliefs and values and work for social change and justice (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004).

Critical literacy is more than decoding letters and words, that is to say, it is a way of interacting with information presented in texts. It enables learners to engage with various sources of information and encourages them to question “the social contexts, purposes, and possible effects that they have on their own lives” questioning “their opinions, biases, and perceptions of reality” in comparison with others’ (Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999, p. 6). Hence, critical literacy is of paramount importance in today’s world since individuals are constantly being bombarded with different forms of information due to new information systems and rapid innovative changes. Therefore, developing learners’ critical literacy skills is crucial in education.

Critical literacy has recently become an essential ingredient of particularly higher education, for learners are being exposed to instant and complex flow of information via the computer technologies and the Internet. Thus, it is imperative for learners to become literate critically by improving their high order thinking skills and problem-solving skills and by exploring multiple perspectives (Fajardo, 2015). Improving learners’ critical consciousness is vital (Callison, 2006) because the primary purpose of education is “learning to think” (Dewey, 1933; as cited in Halpern, 1997, p. 5).

The importance of critical literacy in language teaching

Critical literacy is a vital skill in today's world, particularly in the field of language and literacy teaching (Brown, 1999). Wallace (2003) states that "understanding a text linguistically and conceptually must be a starting point for all reading positions, but readers may want and need to respond to texts in more diverse and complex ways than is generally acknowledged. All learners, whether reading in a first, second or other language, are, from the earliest stages, potentially both making meaning from texts, and engaging in critique" (p. 3). Thus, rather than solely focusing on the linguistic and conceptual aspects of texts, language and literacy instruction in the 21st century should also emphasize critical literacy. Today's students are exposed to and interact with a wider range of information sources owing to globalization and internationalization. Therefore, learners need to comprehend with a critical edge rather than reading academic texts for comprehension only (Janks, 2012; Janks, 2014; McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004; Molden, 2007). It is important to engage learners in critical literacy, foster their reading from a critical stance, and help them become critically aware (Kaur, 2013) since critical literacy provides an active and a challenging approach to reading. Engaging in critical literacy leads to active, open-minded, and strategic readers. In other words, readers are able to view texts critically from multiple perspectives (Ko, 2013a; Ko, 2013b). Such readers can easily grasp the particular perspective(s) and particular purpose(s) while critically analyzing and interpreting the information presented in texts (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004). That is to say, critical literacy helps learners expand their reasoning, seek multiple perspectives, and become active thinkers. Reading with a critical stance provides readers a new dimension of understanding (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004) because critical literacy practices encourage learners "to use language to question the everyday world, to interrogate the relationship between language and power, to analyze popular culture and media, to understand how power relationships are socially constructed, and to consider actions that can be taken to promote social justice.... These practices are substantively different from what are commonly referred to as *critical thinking* approaches. Although critical thinking approaches have focused more on logic and comprehension, critical literacies have focused on identifying social practices that keep dominant ways of understanding the world and unequal power relationships in place" (Lewison, Leland & Harste, 2015, p. 3). Therefore, critical literacy instruction enables learners to utilize language in order to question language and power relationships in the social practices they encounter. Anstey and Bull (2006) highlight the dangers learners will encounter if they are not taught how to read critically because "they can be marginalized, discriminated against, or unable to take an active and informed place in life. In short, the student will not be in control of his or her social future" (p. 37, as cited in Kaur, 2013). Reading critically helps individuals become active and informed citizens as a requirement of the emergence of new literacies in today's digital age and learners' changing literacy needs. Thus, critical literacy has a central place in pedagogy design to foster learners' becoming critical consumers of the information they interact with (Kaur, 2013), and it constitutes an essential component of language teaching.

As has been previously stated, providing learners with critical literacy perspectives allows them to examine the sources of texts, biases, and purposes hidden in texts, and challenge the legitimacy of the information presented in texts. Through critical literacy practices,

learners become capable of assessing societal messages about attitudes, values, and power relationships conveyed through the text. In this way, they are also able to reflect upon their own reactions, biases, and realities in relation to the text, which will result in a more complete understanding of texts (Brown, 1999; Lohrey, 1998).

A number of studies have recently been conducted on critical literacy. Some of these studies included instructors as participants and sought for teachers' critical literacy awareness levels (e.g., Cox & Assis-Peterson, 1999; Cho, 2015). In other studies (e.g., Abednia & Izadnia, 2013; Cho, 2014; Dal, 2012; Kuo, 2009; Potur, 2014), some critical literacy applications were incorporated into the teaching process, and the impact of intervention was revealed. In some other studies (e.g., Huang, 2011; Huh, 2016; Ko, 2013a), scholars aimed at the simultaneous instruction of conventional and critical literacy skills in a balanced way and the critical analysis of the language to enhance learners' critical literacy. Finally, some studies (e.g., Huang, 2011; Kumagai & Iwasaki, 2011) focused on critical literacy instruction with an emphasis on language analysis. These studies have confirmed that with adequate support and scaffolding of learning, through teachers' selection of texts that relate with students' personal/cultural experiences, and explicit instruction and guidance on how to critically interrogate texts in terms of power relations (Choo & Singh, 2011), English language learners are able to improve their critical literacy skills. The belief that "literacy solely entails reading words on a page and not critically analyzing how those words shape identities and influence readers' perspectives leads to a culture of acquiescence" should be critically questioned (Fajardo, 2015, p. 44). She suggests that "for educators who wish to respond to the literacy needs of the times, and teach learners about their responsibility toward building a just and humane society, critical literacy is worth teaching" (p. 45).

All in all, "it is imperative for educators, students, citizens and all of the people of the world to understand how to read the word and their world and enact critical literacy practices" (Gregory & Cahill, 2009, p. 13), for critical literacy is vital to human action and social transformation in today's dynamic and constantly evolving world (Beck, 2005). To prepare learners for this world, saturated with a lot of information, educators are obliged to take action. Language classrooms are of critical importance because critical literacy is mainly about the transformative power of language. Through critical approaches to language instruction, instructors can help learners explore the ways in which language can reproduce or challenge existing social power structures (Godley & Minnici, 2008). Luke (2004) points out the major role English educators play in the teaching of critical literacy: "We (English educators) risk becoming a profession involved in the systematic production and distribution of particular brands of linguistic capital without an ongoing critical appraisal of the force and consequences of our actions" (p. 87). In a nutshell, critical literacy is a core phenomenon in today's language teaching and learning contexts.

Different approaches to critical literacy exist in literature (Pennycook, 2001, as cited in Abednia & Izadnia, 2013); however, all of these approaches aim at "engaging with the possibilities that the technologies of writing and other modes of inscription offer for social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement" (Luke & Freebody, 1997, p.1, as cited in Abednia & Izadnia, 2013). To this end, a number of models have been adopted by critical scholars to encourage readers to become active meaning-makers, who critique texts and explore and respect multiple perspectives (Kuo, 2014). Luke and Freebody's

Four Resources Model was used in this study, for it is a model of reading which is compatible with a critical skills perspective of critical thinking, and which reflects a text analytic approach to critical literacy. The model is accomplished through the combination of skill-based literacy and critical literacy since it emphasizes both conventions of reading texts and critical analysis of ideological construction. To put it simply, it allows a balance between conventional literacy and critical literacy. Thus, it is appropriate for tertiary education. Finally, the model, which has been widely implemented in different educational contexts, is applicable in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom, and it provides a practical design for teaching critical reading skills in experimental and control groups.

Luke and Freebody’s “Four Resources Model”

In Luke’s (1995) and Luke and Freebody’s (1990, 1999) conceptualization of literacy, literacy is addressed as a social practice which involves both conventions of reading texts and critical analysis of ideological construction. In this sociocultural literacy model, Luke and Freebody introduce four components in text engagement, which are code breaking (phonics, vocabulary), text participating (reading comprehension), text using (socialization with meanings created from texts), and text critiquing (critical reflection and analysis). Critical literacy has been defined as the dynamic integration of code breaking, text participating, text using, and critiquing in this model of reading. The early version (1997) of “the Four Resources Model” defines the reader as “the code breaker, text participant, text user, and text critic” (as cited in Flint et al., 2020, p. 210). In their revised account, however, Luke and Freebody (1999) suggest that literacy learning is understood more properly as a family of practices (Ko, 2010). Table 1 presents an overview of these practices (Ko, 2010, p. 22).

Table 1. Practices in literacy learning

| Practices / Reader’s Role | Sample Questions |
|---|--|
| Code-breaking practices / Code breaker | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ How do the sound and marks relate, singly and in combinations? ▪ How do I crack this text? ▪ What are its patterns and conventions? |
| Text-meaning practices / Text participant | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ How do the ideas represented in the text string together? ▪ What are cultural resources that can be brought to bear on the text? ▪ What are the cultural meanings and possible readings that can be constructed from this text? |
| Pragmatic practices Text user | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ How do the uses of this text shape its composition? ▪ What do I do with the text here and now? |
| Critical practices Text analyst & critique | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What kind of person with what interests and values, could both write and read this naively and unproblematically? ▪ What is the text trying to do to me? In whose interests? ▪ Which positions, voices and interests are at play? Which are silent and absent? |

In code-breaking practices, the emphasis is on linguistic perspective. Code breaking is equivalent to basic or functional literacy. That is, these practices involve identifying letters in the alphabet and sounds in words, deciphering spelling and grammar conventions, such as sentence structure and text organization, and using graphics and other visuals to break the “code” of text. Text-meaning practices relate to cognitive and psycholinguistic perspectives. As a text participant, by actively approaching and deconstructing text, learners use their prior knowledge and experience when to interpret the author’s intention. Pragmatic practices relate to sociolinguistic perspectives, which highlight the context in which a text is read and interpreted. Thus, learners are encouraged to become critical consumers of text by reading different text forms and questioning how these different uses shape the author’s choice regarding the language, structure, and organization. Finally, critical practices are utilized to promote critical perspectives. Learners need to be encouraged to analyze and evaluate the author’s motive, and consider fairness, accuracy, and reliability in the light of the idea that no text is neutral. They also need to recognize their own power as readers to uncover and challenge assumptions and ideas about the world. They need to be able to respond and take social action when they disagree with the ideas presented in the text.

Luke and Freebody (1999) state that only an integrated use of each practice results in effective literacy learning. As Luke (2000) notes, “the model does not propose a developmental hierarchy whereby one moves from coding to the critical; from the basics to higher order thinking; from initial reading to advanced literature study” (p. 454). Critical literacy strategies need to be taught explicitly, but they should not be taught sequentially or in isolation from one another (The Literacy and Numeracy Secretariat, 2009). This model has widely been used in EFL classrooms despite being originally developed for English as a Second Language (ESL) settings (Freebody & Luke, 1990).

Genre-based reading instruction

Reading plays a key role in English Language Teaching (ELT), therefore, a number of techniques and procedures to boost ESL / EFL learners’ reading skills, including task-based and genre-based instruction in reading (Ellis, 2008) have been proposed. In a number of schema and genre studies (e.g., Carrell, 1985; Davis, Lange & Samuels, 1988; Grabe, 2002; Hewings & Henderson, 1987; as cited in Hyon, 2002), the role of instruction in developing L2 learners’ understanding of the structure of genres and enhancing their effective reading skills has been foregrounded.

Genre-based approach and genre-based applications in the classroom emphasize the critical role of language and aim at helping learners attain specific purposes in context (Hyland, 2004). To Bakhtin (1986), “many people who have an excellent command of a language often feel quite helpless in certain spheres of communication precisely because they do not have a practical command of the generic forms used in the given spheres” (p. 80, as cited in Coe, 2002). Derewianka (2003) suggests that “learning new genres is seen as extending the learner’s meaning-making potential” (p. 143). Johns (1997) also advocates that effective readers need to possess knowledge regarding genres, the names of genres, their formal features and communicative purposes, the roles of the reader and writer, content, and contexts (p. 21, as cited in Hyon, 2002). Thus, genre features should be explicitly taught to enable learners to have a better understanding of genres and richer of repertoire of genres (Johns, 2002).

A variety of texts are used in academic settings, and it is crucial that learners are instructed on the organizational patterns of different texts and the features of different genres for enhanced reading skills and levels of comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). When provided with genre knowledge, language learners are able to grasp an understanding of the social and cultural contexts in which genres occur and analyze the ways these factors affect the language choices in different genres (Paltridge, 2002). Hence, genre-based reading instruction has been proposed by many scholars (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; Devitt, 2009; Hyland, 2007; Hyon, 1995, 1996; Johns, 1995, 2002; Swales, 1990) to enhance language learning, for genre-based instruction is “explicit, systematic, needs-based, consciousness-raising, critical, empowering, and supportive” (Hyland, 2007, p. 150).

The studies on the use of genres in reading instruction in the EFL context, however, (e.g., Adelnia & Salehi, 2016; Haria & Midgette, 2014; Kalali & Piskhar, 2015; Karbalaei & Hajezi, 2016; Minaabad & Khoshkholgh, 2012; Rozimela, 2014; Sadeghi, Hassani, & Hemmati, 2013; Shishehsaz, 2006) are scarce. Genre studies that aimed to enhance learners’ reading comprehension skills in various language teaching contexts have only recently been conducted. Most of these studies (e.g., Al Gurkosh, 2015; Haria & Midgette, 2014; Kalali & Piskhar, 2015; Minaabad & Khoshkholgh, 2012; Sadeghi, Hassani & Hemmati, 2013; Shishehsaz, 2006) have been conducted as experimental studies to investigate the impact of genre-based reading instruction on learners’ reading comprehension. The results have indicated the supremacy of the treatment groups that received genre-based research instruction. There was a statistically significant difference between the reading comprehension of the participants who underwent genre-based instruction. In sum, the results have indicated the effectiveness of genre-based reading instruction on students’ reading comprehension and revealed the importance of genre-based instruction.

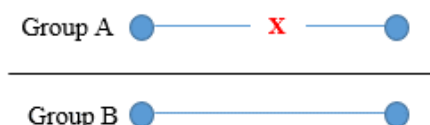
Ko (2013a) asserts that critical literacy studies have mostly been conducted in ESL classrooms (e.g., Morgan, 2004; Wallace, 2003); there are only a few studies conducted in EFL settings (e.g., Kuo, 2009; Petek, 2018). Namely, “a critical literacy approach to EFL teaching is still under-explored” (Ko, 2013a, p. 92). The critical component is one of the essential ingredients of 21st century language education, which requires language instructors to equip learners with the language skills of critical literacy (Bacon, 2017). In addition, critical literacy has not been investigated in combination with a genre-based approach in ELT at the tertiary level. Hence, to fill this gap, this study aims to reveal the impact of critical literacy instruction and conventional literacy instruction on EFL adult learners’ reading comprehension. The research questions of the current study are as follows:

1. Does the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
2. Does conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
3. Is there a significant difference between the reading posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group and Conventional Literacy Group?

Methodology

This study adopted a quasi-experimental design with a nonequivalent (pretest and posttest) control-group design. Quasi experiments are frequently used in educational research since researchers conduct research with the participation of intact groups, which are available in the research setting, and participants cannot be randomly assigned as in true experiments (Creswell, 2012). In this design, only the experimental group receives the treatment, and both of the study groups take a pretest and posttest (Creswell, 2014). Figure 1 displays details regarding the research design.

Figure 1. Nonequivalent (pretest and posttest) control-group design (Creswell, 2014)



Setting and participants

The setting for the study was the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) at a state university. In the SFL, an English proficiency exam is administered at the beginning of the academic year. The students who fail to obtain a passing score (i.e., $\geq 60/100$) are required to study English at the SFL. They can attend classes at the SFL maximum for two years.

This study adopted the convenience sampling approach. Thus, participants who were available and willing to be studied (Creswell, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007) were involved in the study. The participants of the study, being taught by the first researcher, were remedial students (N = 23) from Remedial 2 and Remedial 3 classes, who were studying their second year of English in the SFL, during the 2018-2019 Academic Year. As part of the preparatory school program, they were offered a B1 level Integrated Skills course.

The experimental group, which received critical literacy instruction, was assigned randomly, and the control group received conventional literacy instruction. There were 11 students in the experimental group, and 12 students from the control group volunteered to take part in the study. The participants' ages ranged from 19 to 24. Twelve females and eleven males participated in the study. The participants were prospective students of the basic science and engineering departments. Table 2 presents detailed information regarding the demographics of the participants.

Table 2. Demographics of participants

| CLG (Experimental Group) | N | % | CoLG (Control Group) | N | % |
|--------------------------|----|-------|----------------------|----|-----|
| Gender | | | Gender | | |
| Female | 6 | 54.54 | Female | 6 | 50 |
| Male | 5 | 45.45 | Male | 6 | 50 |
| Total | 11 | 100 | Total | 12 | 100 |

| Age | | | Age | | |
|--------------|-----------|------------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| 19-20 | 7 | 63.63 | 19-20 | 8 | 66.66 |
| 21-22 | 3 | 27.27 | 21-22 | 4 | 33.33 |
| 23-24 | 1 | 9.09 | 23-24 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 11 | 100 | Total | 12 | 100 |
| Dept. | | | Dept. | | |
| A | 0 | 0 | A | 0 | 0 |
| C | 4 | 36.36 | C | 1 | 8.33 |
| CE | 1 | 9.09 | CE | 1 | 8.33 |
| ChE | 0 | 0 | ChE | 0 | 0 |
| CRP | 1 | 9.09 | CRP | 2 | 16.66 |
| ECE | 0 | 0 | ECE | 2 | 16.66 |
| FE | 2 | 18.18 | FE | 1 | 8.33 |
| M | 2 | 18.18 | M | 3 | 25 |
| MBG | 0 | 0 | MBG | 1 | 8.33 |
| ME | 0 | 0 | ME | 1 | 8.33 |
| P | 1 | 9.09 | P | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 11 | 100 | Total | 12 | 100 |

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group; Dept.: Department; A: Architecture; C: Chemistry; CE: Civil Engineering; ChE: Chemical Engineering; CRP: City & Regional Planning; ECE: Electronics & Communication Engineering; FE: Food Engineering; M: Math; MBG: Molecular Biology & Genetics; ME: Mechanical Engineering; P: Physics.

Instruments

Eight reading texts which were selected from different genres (i.e., narrative, descriptive, argumentative, comparison and contrast) were used as the instruction materials in the study. The central theme of the texts chosen was culture as learners were highly interested in learning about the related topic, and it would provide learners with an opportunity to develop their intercultural competence. Participants' age, interests, departments, needs, and language proficiency levels were taken into account in text selection. To determine the difficulty level of the texts, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level formula was used. The same texts (N= 2 for each genre / week) were used in the teaching process of both groups.

In order to measure participants' reading comprehension, the reading section of the Testing of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) test (The official guide to the TOEFL test, 2012) was used as the pretests and posttests because according to Educational Testing Service (2005), TOEFL, as an English-proficiency test, has reliability coefficients between .70 and .95 on a scale of .00 to .99. Also, the participants were familiar with the test format, which involved multiple choice questions on identifying synonyms, the main idea and specific details of a given text, and the author's purpose, inserting sentences into texts, and identifying the most important information provided in a given text. There were three texts (*Feeding Habits of East African Herbivores*, *Loie Fuller*, *Green Icebergs*) in the exam, each of which was accompanied by 14 multiple choice questions. The total number of questions in the test was 42, and the maximum score was 45. The Cronbach's Alpha value was calculated as .713 for the reading test.

Data collection procedures

The ethics committee approval for the study was obtained from Dokuz Eylül University on 08/05/2019. First, consent forms were obtained from the participants. Next, pretests were administered. The participants were not informed that they would take a posttest. Both the pretests and posttests were administered in a proctored environment, and the same test conditions (i.e., the same exam room / day / time / physical conditions / seating / duration etc.) were provided. After the administration of the pretests, participants were asked to participate in a four-week genre-based reading instruction program.

Eight lesson plans which had two variations (i.e., critical literacy and conventional literacy versions) were prepared by the researchers. That is, 16 lesson plans were prepared in total. The lesson plans prepared to teach critical literacy skills (e.g., interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation) involved critical reading questions as well as comprehension questions. In the lesson plans prepared for the Conventional Literacy Group, the focus was on conventional literacy skills. In the Critical Literacy Group, the same curriculum was implemented with a focus on critical literacy skills. Participants were asked to respond to critical reading questions, identify facts and opinions, discuss causes and effects, solve problems, compare and contrast, categorize advantages and disadvantages, make evaluations based on what they had read, analyze the language used in the text and identify the author's viewpoint, and reflect upon the text. Different groupings, such as dyads and triads, were used to ensure participants' active in-class participation. On the other hand, tasks with a focus on the comprehension of the selected texts were utilized for the Conventional Literacy Group throughout the teaching process. The focus was on conventional literacy skills; therefore, activities related to "code breaking, text participating, and text using" were involved in the instruction (Luke & Freebody, 1999). Overall, each group received a 720-minute training on the selected genres and texts. The first researcher, who was the instructor of the participants, implemented the lesson plans. All the lessons were videotaped for future reference. At the end of the four-week instruction process, the posttest was administered.

Data analysis

The researchers recorded the results on an Excel document after grading the pre/post reading tests. A colleague who had been teaching English for 29 years cross-checked the assigned scores for the randomly selected tests. The statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM, Version 22). Non-parametric statistical tests were used due to the small sample population. Since the study had a repeated-measures designs with an intervention (experimental group) and repeated-measures designs without an intervention (control group), the Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was used to analyze the data. Participants' pretest and posttest scores were compared. In addition, the Mann-Whitney U Test was used to investigate the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the two groups.

Findings

The impact of critical literacy instruction on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension

The first research question of the study aimed to determine whether the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affected adult EFL learners'

reading comprehension or not, and it was addressed using the Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test. The data analysis indicated that the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills through a four-week genre-based reading instruction did not elicit a statistically significant change in the Critical Literacy Group's posttest scores. That is to say, the posttest scores were not statistically significantly higher than their pretest scores, $Z = -.318$, $p = .750$, $p > .05$. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics regarding the pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the Critical Literacy Group.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics regarding Critical Literacy Group's pretest and posttest scores

| Test | N | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Min. | Max. | <i>p</i> |
|----------|----|----------|-----------|------|------|----------|
| Pretest | 11 | 9.00 | 3.89 | 0 | 13 | .475 |
| Posttest | 11 | 7.90 | 5.08 | 2 | 18 | |

Note: * $p < 0.05$

As can be seen in Table 3, the mean for the pretest was 9.00 ($SD = 3.89$). However, the posttest mean was 7.90 ($SD = 5.08$), which was slightly lower compared to the pretest. There was an increase in the posttest scores of three participants; however, there was a decrease in six participants' posttest scores. Two of the participants' posttest scores remained the same (See Table 4).

Table 4. Critical Literacy Group's pretest and posttest scores

| Test | Rank | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks | <i>z</i> | <i>p</i> |
|----------|----------------|----|-----------|--------------|----------|----------|
| Pretest | Negative Ranks | 6 | 4.75 | 28.50 | -.715 | .475 |
| | Positive Ranks | 3 | 5.50 | 16.50 | | |
| Posttest | Ties | 2 | | | | |
| | Total | 11 | | | | |

Note: * $p < 0.05$

A four-week genre-based reading instruction designed to teach critical literacy skills did not result in a statistically significant change in the Critical Literacy Group's posttest scores. The posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group were not higher than their pretest scores. More than half of the participants (54.54%) had a decrease in their reading comprehension scores. 27.27% of the participants, on the other hand, had improved reading comprehension scores in the posttest. 18.18% of the participants' posttest scores remained the same as the pretest scores.

The impact of conventional literacy instruction on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension

The second research question sought to answer whether conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affected adult EFL learners' reading comprehension or not. The Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test indicated that the Conventional Literacy Group's posttest scores were not statistically significantly higher than their pretest scores, $Z = -1.334$, $p = .182$, $p > 0.05$. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics regarding the pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the Conventional Literacy Group.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics regarding Conventional Literacy Group's pretest and posttest scores

| Test | N | M | SD | Min. | Max. | p |
|----------|----|-------|------|------|------|------|
| Pretest | 12 | 9.58 | 2.39 | 6 | 13 | .182 |
| Posttest | 12 | 12.25 | 6.32 | 4 | 24 | |

Note: * $p < 0.05$

As Table 6 displays, the mean for the pretest was 9.58 ($SD = 2.39$) while the mean for the posttest was 12.25 ($SD = 6.32$). Seven participants received higher scores on the posttest. However, three of the participants' posttest scores were lower. Two of the participants' posttest scores remained the same as the pretest (See Table 6).

Table 6. Conventional Literacy Group's pretest and posttest scores

| Test | Rank | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks | z | p |
|----------|----------------|----|-----------|--------------|--------|------|
| Pretest | Negative Ranks | 3 | 4.83 | 14.50 | -1.334 | .182 |
| | Positive Ranks | 7 | 5.79 | 40.50 | | |
| Posttest | Ties | 2 | | | | |
| | Total | 12 | | | | |

Note: * $p < 0.05$

The data analysis yielded similar results for the Conventional Literacy Group regarding the effect of conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension levels. Although the posttest mean score ($M = 12.25$) was higher compared to the pretest mean score ($M = 9.58$), participants' posttest scores were not statistically significantly higher than their pretest scores. More than half of the participants (58.33%) received improved scores on the posttest, whereas there was a decrease in the posttest

scores of the three participants (25%). Furthermore, two (16.66%) of the participants' posttest scores remained the same as their pretest scores.

The difference between the posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group and Conventional Literacy Group

The final research question aimed to answer whether there was a significant difference between the posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group and Conventional Literacy Group or not. To this end, the Mann-Whitney U Test was administered. The data analysis indicated that the experimental group participants' pretest scores were not statistically significantly different than the control group participants' pretest scores, $U = 65.50$, $p = .975$. The test also indicated that the experimental group participants' posttests scores were not statistically significantly higher than the control group participants' posttest scores, $U = 37.00$, $p = .072$ (See Table 7).

Table 7. Comparison of Critical Literacy Group's and Conventional Literacy Group's pretest and posttest scores

| Test | Group | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks | SD | U | p |
|----------|-------|----|-----------|--------------|------|-------|------|
| Pretest | CLG | 11 | 11.95 | 131.50 | 3.13 | 65.50 | .975 |
| | CoLG | 12 | 12.04 | 144.50 | | | |
| | Total | 23 | | | | | |
| Posttest | CLG | 11 | 9.36 | 103.00 | 6.05 | 37.00 | .072 |
| | CoLG | 12 | 14.42 | 173.00 | | | |
| | Total | 23 | | | | | |

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group.

* $p < 0.05$

As can be seen in Table 7, the posttest mean rank for the experimental group was 9.36 while the posttest mean rank for the control group was 14.42. The sum of ranks for the experimental group in the posttest was 103.00, whereas the sum of ranks was 173.00 for the control group. The Critical Literacy Group obtained a lower mean rank (9.36) regarding the posttest scores. Indeed, this group had a lower pretest mean rank (11.95) as well.

Discussion

The findings of the present study did not confirm the results of the studies recently conducted in different EFL contexts (Abbasian & Malae, 2016; Hazaea & Alzubi, 2017; Rashidi & Asgharzadeh, 2012). The findings did not corroborate the findings of Abbasian and Malae's (2016) study which investigated the effect of explicit teaching of some Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) techniques on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. The results showed that the experimental group instructed to read critically obtained higher scores compared to the control group. The present study did not support the findings of Hazaea and Alzubi's (2017) quasi-experimental study conducted in a Saudi Arabian tertiary context to explore the effect of CDA instruction on EFL analytical reading practices as well since the results of this study indicated significant effects on the analytical practices (i.e., description, interpretation and explanation). In other words, a fourteen-week discourse-based instruction enabled the participants, who were preparatory year students, to improve reading skills to go beyond the text rather than merely reading the text. In addition, the critical reading approach that Rashidi and Asgharzadeh (2012) adopted in their empirical study based on CDA had a significantly positive effect on female high school students' reading comprehension.

In the present study, the emphasis was on the instruction of both conventional literacy skills and critical literacy skills. Thus, the lesson plans were designed in accordance with Luke and Freebody's Four Resources Model (1999). Skill-based literacy was combined with critical literacy skills to accomplish the model (Exley & Dooley, 2015). In other words, four components of text engagement, which are code breaking, text participating, text using, and text critiquing, were used in the instruction of the experimental group. During the four-week genre-based instruction, two class hours were allocated for each reading text. This short intervention process may have been perceived to be insufficient and may not have permitted learners to practice the targeted literacy skills effectively.

The results indicated that the genre-based reading curriculum with an emphasis on conventional literacy skills aided most of the participants to enhance their reading comprehension skills. Through the tasks implemented to break the codes, participate in texts, and use texts (Luke & Freebody, 1999), learners could engage more with the texts and, thus, could boost their comprehension. In other words, the dynamic integration of code breaking, text participating, and text using enabled learners to become better readers.

As for the difference between the posttest scores of the two groups, focusing merely on the conventional literacy skills, thus, having a more effective instructors' guidance and scaffolding throughout the instruction, and learning actively through pair work / group work may have contributed to and facilitated the learning process for the participants in the Conventional Literacy Group. As a result, this may have led to enhanced levels of reading comprehension. Scaffolding, or in Donato's (2000) terms, "instructional conversation" (as cited in Ellis, 2008), derives from Sociocultural Theory (Ellis, 2008). According to Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976), scaffolding entails recruiting interest in the task, simplifying the task, maintaining pursuit of the goal, marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been proposed and the ideal solution, controlling frustration during problem solving, and demonstrating an idealized version of the act to be performed (as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 235).

Thus, through 'pedagogic interaction' (Ellis, 2008, p. 528), the instructor and learners could negotiate on meaning for curricular purposes, which promotes the targeted learning

outcomes. The results of the present study were in line with Koç's (2007) study, which investigated the effect of the use of active learning, indicating that active learning methods used in the instruction had a positive impact on participants' reading comprehension.

Conclusion

This small-scale study aimed at unveiling the impact of genre-based critical literacy instruction on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension. A genre-based reading instruction with different foci did not reveal a significant difference in the reading test scores of the experimental group, which received critical literacy instruction, and the control group, which received conventional literacy instruction. A relatively short instruction process may have led to these findings. In addition, as the learners were remedial students who were studying their second year at the preparatory school, they were not highly motivated to improve their critical literacy skills and did not find the target skills being taught relevant.

Although the results did not produce statistically significant results, the findings showed that a critical literacy approach to the instruction of reading through a variety of genres not only led to enhanced comprehension of texts but also to increased critical awareness for some of the participants. Hence, this study has a pedagogical significance in terms of an EFL reading curriculum which places critical literacy at the core. The EFL instructors should design curricula with an emphasis on the development of learners' critical literacy as well as the development of discrete language skills (Luke & Freebody, 1999).

The study was limited to twenty-three preparatory year students studying English at the School of Foreign Languages, at a state university. Therefore, the results of this quasi-experimental study cannot be generalized to all EFL learning contexts. In addition, due to the strict curriculum and time constraints, the treatment is limited to only four weeks.

Suggestions

EFL practices should not solely aim at improving four language skills, they should also develop learners' critical awareness skills and reasoning abilities (i.e., examining authors' intentions and viewpoints, questioning, juxtaposing, reconstructing and exploring multiple perspectives) (Alagözlü, 2006; Papadopoulos & Griva, 2017). When they practice critical literacy skills, learners are also able to develop their ability in English (Kuo, 2013). That is to say, both conventional and critical literacy practices should be incorporated into the curriculum in order to provide the learners who have lower levels of proficiency with assistance. Huh (2016) suggests that a holistic approach between critical literacy and conventional skill instructions would assist EFL learners to cope with the cognitive challenges as it has been reported to help ESL learners in previous research studies (e.g., Exley & Dooley, 2015; Lau, 2013). However, more time should be allocated for the instruction of texts since the curriculum emphasizes both conventional and critical literacy skills. Also, rather than an "instructional" approach, a "programmatic" approach should be adopted in the design of the instructional intervention in order to teach critical literacy skills (Behar-Horenstein & Niu, 2011). In other words, critical literacy skills should be integrated into the school curriculum. Finally, further research with a larger sampling and an extended intervention period may yield more definite conclusions.

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Research Article

Raising awareness of EFL teachers on question types and pedagogical goals: An analysis through classroom modes

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Abstract

Questioning is one of the most frequent strategies used by teachers during classroom interaction. Therefore, teachers employ different type(s) of questions during classroom interaction due to the uniqueness of each language classroom. This study was conducted to identify the question types asked by teachers and discover the pedagogical goals of these questions. Besides, teachers' opinions regarding question types they asked during classroom were investigated. A mixed-method research design was followed. Quantitative data was gathered through a descriptive analysis of questions types used in the classroom. Qualitative data was obtained via semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls based on classroom observations. Three EFL teachers working at a private university preparatory school participated in this study. Their classes were observed by one of the researchers three times. The video and audio recordings were analyzed and then semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls were carried out. The results of the study yielded that referential and display questions were the two most common question types. While referential questions were common in classroom context mode, display questions were much more common than referential questions in materials mode. The number of referential questions mostly doubled the number of display questions in classroom context mode. Even though teachers are not aware of the name of the question types, they use the questions based on the pedagogic goals of the classroom.

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Yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin soru türleri ve pedagojik hedefler konusunda farkındalığını arttırmak: Mikro bağlamlara göre analiz

Öz

Soru sorma sınıf etkileşimi sırasında öğretmenler tarafından en sık kullanılan stratejilerden biridir. Her dil sınıfının eşsiz doğası gereği, öğretmenler farklı soru türleri kullanırlar. Bu çalışma öğretmenler tarafından sorulan soruların türlerini belirlemek ve bu soruların pedagojik hedeflerini keşfetmek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin sınıfta sordukları soru türlerine ilişkin görüşleri de incelenmiştir. Karma yöntem araştırma modeli kullanılmıştır. Nicel veriler, sınıfta kullanılan soru türlerinin tanımlayıcı bir analizi ile toplanmıştır. Niteliksel veriler ise, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve sınıf gözlemlerine dayalı uyarılmış hatırlama röportajları ile elde edilmiştir. Özel bir üniversitenin Hazırlık Programında çalışan üç yabancı dil öğretmeni bu çalışmaya katılmıştır. Dersler, araştırmacı tarafından üçer kez gözlemlenmiştir. Video ve ses kayıtları analiz edildikten sonra yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve uyarılmış hatırlama röportajları gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, öğretmenin cevabını bildiği ve bilmediği soru türlerinin en yaygın kullanılan soru türleri olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Öğretmenin cevabını bilmediği soru türü en çok sınıf bağlamı modunda görünürken, öğretmenin cevabını bildiği sorular en çok malzeme modunda kullanılmıştır. Öğretmenin cevabını bilmediği soruların sayısı sınıf bağlamı modunda öğretmenin cevabını bildiği soruların iki katıdır. Katılımcılar soru türlerini terim olarak farkında olmasalar bile, dersin pedagojik hedefin uygun olarak kullanmışlardır.

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Introduction

Interaction in the classroom is an inevitable part of the language learning process. Being aware of the significance and role of interaction in classroom fosters the quality of the acquisition process. Dagarin (2005) defines interaction as “a two-way process between the participants in the learning process”. In terms of the place of interaction in language learning classrooms, Long (1996) asserted that language acquisition occurs as a result of interaction between the learners' mental abilities and the linguistic environment. Moreover, interaction was defined as the most significant part of the curriculum (Van Lier, 1996) since it creates opportunities for students to receive comprehensible input and feedback (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994). The language learning process becomes more challenging for learners when they do not interact with each other (Riascos, 2014). Thus, interaction is an indispensable component of the second language acquisition process. Creating classroom interaction involves the effective utilization of different techniques (Seedhouse, 1997). The act of questioning is one of the techniques teachers usually implement in their teaching to create and enhance classroom interaction (Lynch, 1991). In addition to this, questioning was assumed as one of the most common forms of teacher talk in language classrooms (Lee, 2006). Therefore, classroom interaction includes a significant amount of questions asked by the teachers (Brown, 2001). Especially, the act of questioning and answering occurring between teachers and students is much more frequent than any other technique employed in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms (Richards, 2003). The amount of the questions identified in the language classrooms provides evidence of the significance of the questioning technique. Plentiful studies proved that a high number of questions are utilized in language classrooms. In earlier studies, Long and Sato (1983) and White and Lightbown (1984) identified a total of 938 questions in six elementary English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms and approximately 200 questions per class period, respectively. Besides, Gall (1984) stated that over a half classroom talk consists of question-answer exchanges. Teachers mostly use questions as initiating the interactions in the classroom (Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010). In consequence, teachers create an atmosphere where learners can express themselves and interact with each other (Walsh, 2013). Hence, teachers' questions cannot be detached from classroom interaction (Vebriyanto, 2015; Center for Faculty Excellence, 2009).

Studies in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) indicate that questioning has a crucial role in language acquisition. As stated by Ellis (1993), learners mostly have a chance to engage in class when they are posed a question. Through questioning, teachers can draw the attention of learners to form or meaning of the target language (Tan, 2007). For this purpose, teachers employ different types of questions during classroom interaction. There have been numerous studies to investigate the question types and their frequency in language classrooms (Döş et al., 2016; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016; Rido, 2017; Inan & Fidan, 2012; Wright, 2016; Suryati, 2015; Erlinda et al., 2014; Farahian, 2012). Moreover, the effect of questioning on classroom interaction was studied by several researchers (Vebriyanto, 2015; Shomossi, 2004; Yang 2010; Hamiloğlu & Temiz, 2012; Özcan, 2010). There are, also, some studies focusing on teachers' questioning skills (Ma, 2008; Şahin, 2013).

A large number of existing studies in the broader literature have examined the questions types, their frequency, and their effects on the language learning process. The results,

in general, indicated that some of the questions achieve the purpose of the interaction, while others fail to do (Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi, 2017) since the act of questioning requires a significant pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986, as cited in Boaler & Brodie, 2004). As it was stated by Şahin (2013), although the majority of teacher and student interaction is comprised of teacher's questioning, we are not sure whether teachers are aware of the purpose of questions. When we take into consideration the significance of teachers' questioning in classroom interaction, it is highly significant to raise awareness about the types and purposes of questions. Not only the type but also the pedagogical goal of the questions is a predictive factor of success in classroom interaction. Therefore, using appropriate question type according to the mode of the classroom is crucial in order to foster the classroom interaction. Since each classroom context has different features, analyzing the question types and purposes with respect to classroom modes, provides an insight into the functions of questions asked during EFL classroom interaction. It is significant to analyze the questions by linking to contexts in which they were utilized. However, previous studies have almost exclusively focused on the question types, frequencies, and effects on classroom interaction. To the best of researchers' knowledge, no prior studies have examined the types of teacher questions and interpreted them according to the pedagogic goals of classroom modes suggested by Steve Walsh (2013). Moreover, only a few works in the literature demonstrate teachers' opinions in regard to classroom interaction and their awareness of question types. To fill this gap in the literature, this study was conducted to identify the question types asked by teachers and discover the pedagogical goals of these questions. Besides, teachers' opinions regarding question types they used during the classroom were investigated.

Types of teacher questions

Several scholars have attempted to describe different question types and named them differently. They can be classified in terms of the answer they seek or the purpose they serve. No matter how they are named, each question type has a place in the classroom interaction (Ma, 2008). Thus, it is of crucial importance to investigate teachers' pedagogical rationale in selecting different question types during classroom interaction.

Various question types have been identified in previous studies. Thompson (1997) categorized question types in terms of their form, content, and purpose. The first question type is related to the grammatical form of the question such as Yes/No questions and Wh- questions. Additionally, the latter focuses on the purpose of the questions such as displaying knowledge or communication. Richards & Lockharts (1994) further classified questions as procedural, convergent, and divergent. The first one, procedural questions, is related to classroom management and routines but the content of the lesson. However, convergent and divergent questions are closely connected with the content of the class. The convergent questions include short answers and learners do not go through the higher thinking process. The main purpose is to encourage learners to participate in class. On the other hand, divergent questions are asked to motivate and include them in the higher thinking process. Nuttall (1982) categorizes question types as literal comprehension questions of which answers can be located in the text, reorganization or reinterpretation questions require the students to obtain the information from different part of the text and put it together, inference questions which ask the students

to read between the lines and make inferences, questions of evaluation through which students make considered decisions and questions of personal response consist of reactions of the learners to the text.

Long and Sato (1983) classified questions as echoic and epistemic questions utilized to ask for a confirmation or clarification and to obtain knowledge, respectively. Echoic questions involve comprehension check, clarification request, and confirmation check questions. On the other hand, epistemic questions include referential, display, expressive, and rhetorical questions. Display questions do not attempt to find new information, on the contrary, they are asked to elicit what the learner has already known. The purpose is to enable learners to display their knowledge and information (Cullen, 1998) and to lead to practice in the target language and expand learners' participation (Ellis, 1993). On the other hand, referential questions are the ones to which the teacher does not know the answer and aim at a genuine communicative purpose (Cullen, 1998). Teachers ask referential questions to produce a social context in the classroom and to enhance learners' communicative skills. Therefore, the answers to referential questions are more meaningful, complex, and subjective in most occurrences (Tsui, 1995). This current study was concerned with echoic and epistemic questions, in general. Specifically, referential and display question types were examined meticulously.

Functions and purposes of teacher questions

Teacher questioning serves different purposes during classroom interaction. Cotton (2001) explained the aim of the questions as; to make learners more motivated, to become active learners in the class, to check assignments, to enhance critical thinking, to review previous lessons, and to maintain class discipline. Christenbury & Kelly (1983) and Kinsella (1991) explained the purpose of the questions as; to generate language, to obtain instant feedback about learners' comprehension, and to create an atmosphere in which the learners can interact with each other. Kauchak and Eggen (1989) described the functions of the questions in three categories that are diagnostic, instructional, and motivational functions. The teacher's questions are utilized to diagnose what students know and think about a certain topic. For the instructional function, teacher's questions can lead learners to study new information and finally, as motivational function, teacher's questions can make learners participate in the class actively.

Pedagogic goals and classroom modes

Seedhouse (2004) stated that there is a need for a closer understanding of the relationship between language use and pedagogic goals. These two, language use and pedagogic goals, cannot be separated from each other (Walsh, 2011). To emphasize this idea, Walsh divided a classroom into *modes* which were defined as 'an L2 classroom micro context which has a clearly defined pedagogic goal and distinctive interactional features determined largely by a teacher's use of language' (Walsh, 2006). He designed a framework that can be utilized by teachers to evaluate interaction in their classes. The framework consisted of four modes; managerial mode, classroom context mode, skills and systems mode, and materials mode. Each mode includes specific interactional features and particular pedagogical goals (Walsh, 2011). The managerial mode is related to the organization of learning and mostly occurs at the

beginning of the lessons. In the materials mode, the interaction develops around a piece of material such as a text, worksheet. The skills and system mode includes language practice focusing on the language system (phonology, grammar, vocabulary, discourse) or language skill (reading, listening, writing, speaking). Finally, the classroom context mode is made of genuine conversation, in which the teacher's role is more passive to provide the interactional space for learners. The pedagogic goals for each mode suggested by Walsh (Walsh, 2011, p.113) were displayed in Figure 1.

| Mode | Pedagogic goals |
|-------------------|--|
| Managerial | To transmit information To organize the physical learning environment To refer learners to materials To introduce or conclude an activity To change from one mode of learning to another |
| Materials | To provide language practice around a piece of material To elicit responses in relation to the material To check and display answers To clarify when necessary To evaluate contributions |
| Skills and system | To enable learners to produce correct forms To enable learners to manipulate the target language To provide corrective feedback To provide learners with practice in sub-skills To display correct answers |
| Classroom context | To enable learners to express context themselves clearly To establish a context To promote oral fluency |

Figure 1. L2 classroom modes by Steve Walsh (2011)

Literature Review

The literature review shows that there is not a single classification utilized for teacher questions, and most of them are overlapping each other (Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016). Numerous studies have investigated the type and frequency of the questions used in language classrooms, and their effects on language acquisition. Additionally, a few studies have been conducted in order to analyze the classroom interaction in terms of micro-contexts; managerial mode, classroom context mode, materials mode, and skills and systems mode. This section presents a review of recent literature on question types used during classroom interaction and modes applied in the classroom.

In Yang's study (2010), it was found that non-native speaker pre-service English teachers frequently asked yes/no questions, and closed and display questions, whilst open and referential questions were rarely or never asked. Erlinda and Dewi (2014) investigated the question types used in the classroom interaction and the results indicated that rhetorical, procedural, closed, open, display, and referential questions were asked. Chafi and Elkhouzai (2014) analyzed the classroom interaction and found that teachers mostly used factual questions while a few questions gathering opinions and hypotheses were identified. Meng,

Zhao and Chattouphonexay (2012) analyzed type of questions used in classroom interaction and the results indicated that even though referential and display questions were employed by the teacher, only display questions were asked as dealing with learning and teaching.

In the Turkish context, Ölmezer-Öztürk (2016) conducted a study to report the types of questions asked by the teacher. The findings yielded that the type of questions asked frequently was convergent questions. However, the number of divergent questions was rare during the interaction. Another study was conducted by Fidan and İnan (2012) to explore the type and functions of teacher questions in a Turkish as a foreign language class. The data were analyzed according to the classification of Long and Sato (1983) which comprises echoic and epistemic questions. The findings yielded that the majority of the questions asked during interaction was of epistemic nature. Whereas the most common epistemic question type was display questions, the most common echoic question type was confirmation checks. Hamiloğlu and Temiz (2012) conducted a study to identify the question types used in the classroom. The findings illustrated that the classroom interaction consisted of mostly yes/no questions and short-answer questions, followed by open-ended questions, display questions, and referential questions. Çakır and Cengiz (2016) conducted a study to see how a training program on open-ended questions motivated teachers to develop their classroom practice. The analysis showed that the training program encouraged teachers to apply a more systematic and reflective pedagogical practice. Teachers used more open-ended questions, which enabled the learners to participate in class.

In their pioneering study, Long and Sato (1983) found that ESL teachers utilized considerably fewer referential questions than display questions during classroom interaction. Similarly, David (2007) carried out a study investigating the distribution of question types and the results showed that the number of display questions is more than referential questions. It was claimed that display questions create more interaction than referential questions. Shomoossi (2004) investigated the teacher questioning in EFL classrooms. The results showed that display questions were more frequent than referential ones that generated more classroom interaction. It was also stated that display questions include a small piece of information on part of speech, word stress, intonation, antonyms, and synonyms, etc. Additionally, display questions can encourage learners to participate in class. Arifin's study conducted in lower secondary school (2012) showed that 66.7% of the questions asked by the teacher were display whereas 33.3% were referential questions. Zohrabi, Notash, and Khiabani (2014) investigated the frequency of two types of questions: referential and display in three different proficiency level classrooms. The study findings demonstrated that the number of display questions at the elementary and intermediate levels was higher than the advanced level. In high-level proficiency classrooms, the number of display questions diminished whereas the referential questions increased. A similar finding regarding the high frequency of display questions in the language classrooms was confirmed by Suryati (2015) who investigated the classroom interaction strategies employed by English teachers in the EFL context. The analysis indicated that the number of display questions (18%) was higher than referential questions (4,3%). Vebriyanto (2015) conducted a study to describe the question types that teachers use in the classroom. The results showed that closed/display questions (69%) were used more frequently than open/referential questions (31%). It was found that open/referential questions elicited longer responses and were used to obtain certain information from students. On the other

hand, closed/display questions were utilized to check comprehension of the material. This study was in line with the study conducted by Rido (2017) examining the questioning strategies of master teachers in the vocational English classroom. According to the researcher, close/display questions were among the frequently asked questions by the master teachers. Open/referential and follow-up questions were the following strategies used by master teachers. On the other hand, Yang (2010) found that teachers employed more referential questions than display questions in the ESL classroom context. It was concluded that referential questions obtained more structures that are complex from students.

Wang and Huan (2011) investigated the relationship between language use and pedagogical purpose through SETT (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk developed by Walsh, 2006). They examined whether the teacher talk is appropriate in terms of classroom context or mode. In a similar vein, Suryati (2015) analyzed interaction strategies used in the lower secondary level of education. The results indicated that the majority of the classroom interaction was revolved around material mode and skill and system mode. Feedback (IRF) patterns, display questions, teacher echo, and extended teacher turns were among the common strategies utilized in the classroom. Soraya (2017) further examined classroom interaction according to micro-contexts and pedagogical goals. Accordingly, teachers frequently used material and managerial mode whereas classroom context and skill and system modes were identified rarely. Moreover, Korkut and Ertuş (2017) discovered interactional features during the material mode. They found that interactional features matched with the ones stated in SETT. However, there were, also, some different features stemmed from cultural and local practices. For instance, Ghafarpour (2017) analyzed classroom interaction according to modes. It was found that the material mode was the most dominant micro context. Classroom and material modes lasted for long periods, whereas managerial and skills and system modes sustained for short periods. These results can be attributed to contextual differences and institutional requirements.

The literature reviewed so far included studies focused on the identification of questions and comparison of them, and the purpose of questions, and their effect on classroom interaction. However, to the best of researchers' knowledge, no study has been conducted to examine and interpret teacher questions according to the pedagogic goals of classroom modes suggested by Walsh (2013). Moreover, only a few studies were conducted to explore teachers' opinions in terms of interaction and their awareness of question types. To fill this gap, this study was carried out to identify question types asked by teachers and examine the pedagogical goal of these questions. As a secondary aim, teachers' opinions pertinent to question types they utilized in the classroom were scrutinized. To this end, the following research questions were asked:

- 1- What are the type(s) of questions that are asked by the university-level EFL teachers during classroom interactions?
- 2- What are the pedagogical goals of the teachers while asking questions in different classroom modes?
- 3- What do teachers think about the question types they use during classroom interaction?

Methodology

Research design

The present study adopted a mixed-method research design. Quantitative data were gathered through a descriptive analysis of question types used in the classroom whereas qualitative data were obtained via semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls based on classroom observations.

Setting

The study was conducted at a preparatory program of a private university in Turkey. This program consists of two language levels, namely, Route 1 and Route 2. The former includes students whose level is from beginner to elementary whereas the latter includes students with intermediate and high-intermediate levels. Route 1 students have 22 hours of English per week as Route 2 students have 18 hours of English per week. There are approximately 15-20 students in each class. Since the number of students is low, the classroom context is mostly interactive and engaging. The duration of the lessons is 80 minutes considered as a block session. At the end of the term, students have to take a proficiency exam and if they get 80 points or above from this exam, they can continue their education at their departments.

Participants

Three EFL teachers working at a preparatory program participated in this study. They were selected according to the non-probability convenience sampling method suggested by Creswell (2005) as the teachers were willing and available during the study. At the beginning of the study, the participants signed a consent form; and thus, the confidentiality of their participation was ensured. They were given a demographic survey in order to elicit information regarding their educational background and previous experiences in teaching. Accordingly, Teacher 1 (hereafter T1) is 25 years old and holds a BA degree in English Language Teaching. She has been teaching for 3 years. Teacher 2 (hereafter T2) is 22 years old and holds a BA degree in English Literature and Language. She has been teaching English for one year. Teacher 3 (hereafter T3) is 25 years old and has been teaching for 3 years. She holds a BA degree in English Language Teaching and continues an MA in the same department. The participants teach reading and listening classes; therefore, the observations were conducted in either reading or listening classes.

Instruments

The study utilized audio and video recordings, as well as observation protocols and field notes form to capture the classroom interaction in detail. One of the researchers of this study was a non-participant observer (Creswell, 2012); therefore, she did not get involved in the activities. The field notes form was designed by the researchers to take notes during observations regarding question types and classroom modes (Appendix A). It included both descriptive field notes of the events and reflective field notes focusing on personal thoughts of the researcher (Creswell, 2012). In addition, semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls were used to gather more in-depth information about the awareness of teachers. Five questions focusing on classroom interaction and question types were prepared for the semi-structured

interview (Appendix B). Three experts in the ELT field were consulted for the interview questions and field-note and necessary changes were done before conducting the study. The last question of the interview serves the purpose of stimulated recalls. Some recording excerpts including various question types from a different mode of the lesson were shown to participants during interviews and their opinions were asked related to excerpts to gather more in-depth information.

Data collection procedure

The research data were collected by following the steps below.

Week 1: Administrative permission was ensured. Afterwards, an email was sent to teachers to notify them about the study. Three teachers were selected based on their voluntary participation. They were given information on the general purpose of the study, but the specific focus of the study was not mentioned in order not to spoil the nature of classroom interaction. They were informed about audio and video recordings and given a consent form to sign.

Week 2: The observer researcher visited the classrooms of three teachers and took field notes in regard to question types.

Week 3: The second observations were carried out and field notes were taken. The observer researcher took notes regarding questions asked by the teachers during classroom interaction.

Week 4: The last observation was conducted and related field notes were taken to support video-recordings.

Week 5: Video recordings were transcribed and analyzed in terms of question types and classroom modes. Audio recordings were utilized in case of necessity.

Week 6: Semi-structured interviews were carried out with all participants. Interviews were conducted in Turkish to help participants feel comfortable with their answers. Afterwards, excerpts from video recordings were given to the teachers. Moreover, they shared their opinions regarding questions in the video. Each participant was given two different excerpts that included display and referential question types. However, they were not informed about the types of questions and differences between these types.

Week 7: The data from interviews and stimulated recalls were analyzed according to the purpose of the study.

Data analysis procedure

This study employed both qualitative and quantitative analysis procedures. The data gathered from video recordings were transcribed using the transcription system adapted from van Lier (1988) and Johnson (1995). The recordings from the first observation were not included in data as the teachers were not familiar with recordings. After the transcription procedure was completed, questions utilized during classroom interaction were highlighted. Afterwards, they were listed and categorized according to question types suggested by Sato and Long (1983). Each question type was counted for the quantitative data. In addition to this, classroom modes were identified, and the two most common question types were analyzed according to classroom modes in which they were applied. The semi-structured interviews were transcribed verbatim. As for the qualitative data gathered from the interview and

stimulated recalls, Content Analysis suggested by Creswell (2012) was conducted with an extension of the Evaluation Coding framework of Miles and Huberman (1994). The data were examined in detail to get a sense of the whole and coded according to relevance to research questions. Afterwards, themes were created.

Findings

To answer the first question focusing on the type(s) of questions asked by the EFL teachers during classroom interaction, quantitative analysis revealed 301 questions in total (Table 2). Accordingly, T1 used 96 questions, T2 used 119 questions, and T3 used 86 questions in recorded lessons. Table 1 below shows the frequency and types of questions used by T1, T2, and T3, respectively. As it can be seen in Table 2, referential questions (n=163) were the most frequent question type, followed by display questions (n=96). The data, also, included rhetorical questions (n=17), confirmation check questions (n=15), comprehension check questions (n=9), and clarification request (n=1). The referential questions were mostly used by T1 (n=71) and T2 (n=42), however, the display questions were applied mostly by T2 (n=42) and T3 (n=35).

Table 1. Frequency and types of questions

| | T1 | T2 | T2 | TOTAL |
|---|----|-----|----|-------|
| Number of referential questions | 70 | 59 | 32 | 163 |
| Number of display questions | 16 | 42 | 35 | 69 |
| Number of rhetorical questions | 3 | 3 | 11 | 17 |
| Number of comprehension check questions | - | 3 | 6 | 9 |
| Number of clarification request | 1 | - | - | 1 |
| Number of confirmation check questions | 6 | 7 | 2 | 15 |
| Total number of questions | 96 | 119 | 86 | 301 |

In order to answer the second research question, based on the pedagogic goals of the teachers while asking a question in different classroom modes, the two most common question types, referential and display questions, were analyzed according to classroom modes in terms of the pedagogic goals of the teachers. Table 2 below displays the question types used by the teachers according to classroom modes identified in the study.

Table 2. Question types according to classroom modes

| | Classroom context mode | | Materials mode | | Skills and system mode | |
|----|------------------------|---------|----------------|---------|------------------------|---------|
| | Referential | Display | Referential | Display | Referential | Display |
| T1 | 56 | 8 | 14 | 8 | - | - |
| T2 | 37 | 5 | 22 | 37 | - | - |
| T3 | 16 | 9 | 16 | 22 | 0 | 4 |

According to Table 2, the data consisted of three modes, which were classroom context mode, materials mode, and skill and system mode. Classroom context mode consisted of 131 questions, materials mode included 119, and skills and system mode included four questions. Accordingly, the number of referential questions (n=109) was much higher than display questions (n=22) in classroom context mode. On the other hand, the number of display questions (n=67) was higher than the referential questions (n=52) in materials mode (Table 3). Moreover, skills and system mode included only four display questions. In the remaining part of the results section regarding the second research question, excerpts taken from different classroom modes were given to exemplify how teachers used questions according to various pedagogical purposes.

Referential questions in classroom context mode were used by the teachers to enable learners to express themselves clearly and to establish a context. Excerpt 1 taken from a lead-in stage in a reading class focusing on music trends exemplifies this function of the referential questions in the classroom context mode.

Excerpt 1 – T1:

T: okay. let's talk about music... **where do you get your music from?**

L: (2)spotify=

T: =where else?

L2: =youtube.

T: youtube.

L3: =itunes.

T: **do you pay for your music?**

LL: /yes/seven lira/no/.

Different from the classroom context mode, the pedagogic goal of referential questions used in materials mode was to elicit responses in relation to the material and to check and display answers. Excerpt 2, taken from the same reading lesson displayed in Excerpt 1 shows the use of referential questions in materials mode.

Excerpt 2 – T2:

T: ...now, please look at these statements. let's start with the first one (3) can you read?

L3: (2)people pay for the music

T: **=do you agree with the statement?**

LL: ...disagree/agree.

T: **=why do you disagree with the statement?**

L3: because...music is (4) art we cannot (2) pay...pay for art.

Despite the function of the referential questions used to take learners' attention and elicit their responses, the main pedagogic goal of display questions utilized in classroom context mode was to establish a clear context. Excerpt 3 taken from a lead-in stage of listening class focusing on gambling is a sample of display questions asked for this purpose.

Excerpt 3 – T3:

T: okay then, **what kind of gambling is legal or illegal in our country?**

LL: nothing legal / horse race... legal / lottery

T: **what about the illegal ones?**

L: poker...

The pedagogic goals of the display questions utilized in materials mode were to check and display answers, to clarify when necessary, and to elicit responses in relation to the material. Excerpt 4 taken from an answer checking section of the listening class focusing on crimes is an example of this pedagogical purpose in materials mode.

Excerpt 4: - T3

T: **what about the reasons for the crime for the 1st speaker?**

LL: psychological problems/illness.

T: actually...he lost his temper...**What is temper?**

L: =akıl hastası mı?

T: no. he can get...angry easily and...quickly. he can't control it

As it was stated earlier in this section, skills, and system mode included only 4 display questions. The pedagogic goal of these questions was to enable learners to produce correct forms. Excerpt 5 gathered from grammar lessons focusing on likely and unlikely, probability topics shows how display questions were used in the skills and system mode.

Excerpt 5 – T2:

T: Antarctica will form a government. **is it likely or unlikely?**

LL: <Unlikely> / unlikely.

T: Antarctica is one of the most important areas in the world. (3) **Likely or unlikely?**

LL: likely/likely/likely

The data gathered from semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls were analyzed and coded to respond to the last research question regarding teachers' opinions about the question types they used during classroom interaction. Accordingly, teachers thought the place of interaction in language classrooms was significant since students were not exposed to foreign language outside the classroom, classroom interaction had a motivational effect to involve students in the lesson, and it was seen as the main facilitator in language teaching.

“Most of the time, the classroom is the only place they use English. Therefore, the interaction is very important to catch their attention and show them that they can speak English if they want. I try to do it by creating a good interaction with them.” (Teacher 2)

Teachers in the study categorized the type of interaction as a *teacher to students*, *students to students*, and *students to materials*. With respect to the role of the questioning

strategy in classroom interaction, they stated that questions could be utilized to catch students' attention, to activate their schemata, to shape the outline of the lesson, and to create a smooth transition between the stages of the lesson. When the participants were asked to name the type of questions they have used in the classroom, they expressed that they used yes/no questions, thought-provoking questions, attention-catching questions, general questions about learners, and specific questions about materials.

“My students cannot easily focus on reading materials during the lesson. In such situations, I prepare thought-provoking questions about reading materials. I let them discuss the questions. This way they feel a connection with materials.”

(Teacher 3)

Finally, for the purpose of stimulated recalls, the participants watched two excerpts including samples of display and referential questions from their classes. Even though they could not state the terminological names of the questions, they were able to identify the purposes of the questions. For the display questions given in the excerpts, they stated that they used this kind of question to review the previous lesson, to check their comprehension, to elicit their background knowledge, and to illustrate the rationale of doing things during the lesson.

“Sometimes, I start my lessons with a revision of previous lessons. I ask many questions to help them remember what we have covered so far. This helps them to connect lessons.”(Teacher 1)

On the other hand, the purposes of referential questions were to catch students' attention, to motivate them, to activate their schemata, and to enable learners to express themselves clearly. These findings supported the quantitative findings and further revealed the pedagogical rationale behind different question types. All in all, the results of the study indicated that teachers used questions in different modes of classroom interaction for different purposes; hence, classroom mode had an effect on their choice of the questions.

Discussion

This study aimed at exploring types of questions asked by the teachers in a higher educational context, unveiling their pedagogical purposes according to different modes of classroom interaction as well as having a deeper insight into their opinions on the selection of different question types. A total of 301 questions were identified regarding two lessons of the participants. Since questioning is one of the main tools of interaction (Qashoa, 2013), teachers in this study engage in a large amount of questioning activity. The results of the study yielded that the number of referential questions was higher than the display questions in general. Although the large body of the previous research highlighted the high number of display questions compared to referential questions in language classrooms in different teaching contexts (e.g. Arifin, 2012; Chafi & Elkhousai, 2014; Fidan & İnan, 2012; Rido, 2017; Suryati, 2015), the findings of the current study revealed a preference for referential questions in the higher education context. This result may stem from the nature of the study context as the

students were university-level students and teachers might have a tendency to ask more referential questions to elicit more answers from the young adult students, to motivate them and involve them in the classroom interaction.

When the data were examined in a close fashion, the number of question types changed according to classroom modes. While referential questions were common in classroom context mode, display questions were much more common than referential questions in materials mode. The number of referential questions mostly doubled the number of display questions in classroom context mode. This finding contradicted the findings of Vebriyanto's (2015) study. We speculate that this might be due to the higher education with young adults, and the interactive and communicative classroom setting the teachers created. The results demonstrated that classroom context and material modes were the most prominent modes in the data. This result contradicted the findings of Suryati (2015). She found that the classroom context mode rarely occurred during classroom interaction, which indicated that teachers were not aware of appropriate interaction strategies. However, in our context, classroom context mode occurred mostly. This may be due to the high level of learners who are willing to communicate and the interactive classroom context in the higher education context. A very small section of the data included skills and system mode. Moreover, the managerial mode was not found in the data. At this stage of understanding, the reason why classroom context and material modes were found mostly can be attributed to the nature of listening and reading classes, which are mostly interactive and based on text-based materials.

This study showed that teachers were aware of the purpose of the questions they were asking. That is, teachers were not posing questions at random; rather, they were using questioning strategy purposefully to engage students in the lesson, to motivate them, and to elicit more responses for effective classroom interaction. Moreover, although teachers were not able to identify the types of questions, they were aware of questions' purposes and functions as echoed by Şahin (2013). The pedagogic goals of the questions according to modes matched with the purposes stated by the participants. This finding highlights that even though the teachers in the study were not familiar with the terminology used to classify question types, they had an awareness of using different question types at different stages of the lesson in accordance with their pedagogical purposes. The common purpose of 'display questions' was to check their background knowledge and to remind them of the things from the previous lesson. This result is in line with Qashoa's study (2013) which revealed that display questions are the most common type of question in class and the purpose of these questions is to review the previous lesson, checking understandings or warm up the class. On the other hand, the common purpose of 'referential questions' was to give an opportunity for students to express themselves and to activate their schemata. As discussed earlier, this may be due to the nature of reading and listening classes. Prior to a listening or a reading text, it is of crucial importance to activate the existing schema and direct learners' attention to the text by posing questions. Moreover, to engage learners in reading and listening, asking purposeful questions can help them to focus on the texts with a purpose in mind and talk about their listening and reading experiences following the texts.

All in all, the findings indicated that the appropriate use of any question type in classroom interaction is significant to enhance the learning process and engage learners more in

the lessons. As long as the purpose of the question is in line with the pedagogic goal of the teacher, any questions type can be utilized during classroom interaction. As it was stated by Walsh (2013), referential and display questions should be aligned with the pedagogic goals of the teacher at the time of the lesson. Thereby, according to the pedagogic goals of the lesson, display, and referential questions can be utilized (Lee, Y. 2006). Even though each question type has a different purpose, none of them is superior to another. All question types have a place in classroom interaction as long as they match with the pedagogical goals of the teachers and serve for fostering more interaction.

Conclusion and Implications

This study attempted to reveal the question types asked by teachers in a Turkish higher education context, the pedagogic goals of the teachers while asking questions and their opinions regarding the questions they asked during classroom interaction. The findings gathered from qualitative and quantitative data yielded that referential and display questions were the two most common question types asked by teachers. When the question types were analyzed according to classroom modes, it was found that in classroom context mode the number of referential questions was higher than display questions since this mode provides an environment where the learners can express themselves and communicate with each other. However, in the materials mode where students focus on a material, the number of display questions was higher than referential questions. The pedagogic goal of the teachers while asking referential questions in classroom context mode was to enable learners to express themselves clearly and to establish a context. However, the purpose of referential questions in materials mode was to elicit responses in relation to the material and to check and display answers. On the other hand, the purpose of the display questions asked by the teachers in materials mode was to check and display answers, to clarify when necessary, and to elicit responses in relation to material whereas the purpose in classroom context mode was to establish a context. The qualitative data obtained from semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls showed that the pedagogic goals of the teachers aligned with classroom modes. The main conclusion that can be drawn is that teachers do not employ only one type of question during classroom interaction. We cannot deduce that referential questions should be utilized more than display questions or vice versa. Both question types have positive effects on classroom interaction as long as they align with pedagogic goals of the classroom modes.

The findings of the study offer some implications for language teachers. One implication is that teachers need to be aware of the pedagogic goals of each classroom context. Instead of posing questions for the sake of asking questions, they can properly decide the type of questions they are going to ask as each question type may serve a different purpose. As it was highlighted in this study, when teachers know the pedagogic goal of lessons, they may choose the appropriate type of question which fosters effective classroom interaction. Thus, another implication might be offering training opportunities for teachers to reflect on their own questioning strategies, gain an understanding of how they use questions in the classrooms, and seek ways to enhance classroom interaction with the use of appropriate questioning strategies tailored to different modes of classroom interaction. Such training can focus on different question types and encourage the teachers to use them in classroom interaction instead of

employing only specific question types. Last but not the least, teachers can be trained in evaluating their own classroom interaction by using various tools such as reflection logs, video analysis of their lessons, and self-evaluation instruments such as SETT.

Although this study stressed the importance of questioning strategy used in different modes of classroom interaction, results are limited only to observations in reading and listening classes. Therefore, future studies could fruitfully explore this issue further by analyzing writing, speaking, and grammar classes. This study was conducted at a private university; hence, a low number of students in classes and a more interactive classroom atmosphere may have an effect on the questioning strategies used by the teachers. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized to all higher education contexts in Turkey. This study can be replicated at state universities with more crowded classes to gain more in-depth information regarding classroom interaction as an issue for future research to explore.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Observation No: _____
Date: ____/____/____

CLASSROOM INTERACTION OBSERVATION FORM

Name of the Teacher:
Teacher Code:
Class:
Level of students:
Type of Lesson:
Book:
Topic:
Objectives:

| NO# | TIME | QUESTION | QUESTION TYPES | FIELD NOTES |
|-----|------|----------|--------------------------------------|-------------|
| 1 | | | REFERENTIAL <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | | | DISPLAY <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 2 | | | REFERENTIAL <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | | | DISPLAY <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 3 | | | REFERENTIAL <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | | | DISPLAY <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 4 | | | REFERENTIAL <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | | | DISPLAY <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 5 | | | REFERENTIAL <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | | | DISPLAY <input type="checkbox"/> | |

Appendix B

Teacher interview questions

- 1- What is the role of classroom interaction in EFL classrooms? Please, explain it.
- 2- What do you think about the role of teacher's questions during classroom interaction?
- 3- What types of questions do you generally ask in class? Can you itemize them?
- 4- What are the purposes of those questions?
- 5- What is the type of this question? Why did you ask this question? Could you explain the reasons?
(Sample excerpts from teachers' classroom video-recordings will be shown to teacher.)

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Research Article

Investigating the underlying constructs of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

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Abstract

Foreign language anxiety has been the subject of research for many years as one of the individual factors affecting the language learning process. In this study, the factor structure of Foreign Language Anxiety Scale was examined in the context of Turkey. The study group consisted of 166 students studying in the English preparatory department of a university in the Marmara Region during the spring semester of the 2017-2018 academic year. Validity and reliability study consists of language validity, scoring, application, item analysis, construct validity and reliability steps. It was found that the Foreign Language Class Anxiety Scale has a factor structure consisting of 3 dimensions: speaking anxiety, failure anxiety and lack of self-confidence. According to the results of exploratory factor analysis, it was determined that the factors explained 57% of the total variance. As a result of the internal consistency analysis regarding the reliability of the scale, it was determined that the internal consistency coefficient received acceptable values in speaking anxiety, failure anxiety and lack of self-confidence factors. In conclusion, the multi-factor structure of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale was examined in the context of Turkey and considered as a reliable and valid tool that can be used to measure foreign language anxiety.

[SEE EXTENDED ABSTRACT](#)

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Keywords

foreign language anxiety
speaking anxiety
fear of failure
lack of self-confidence
validity and reliability

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Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin faktör yapısının incelenmesi

Öz

Yabancı dil kaygısı, dil öğrenme sürecini etkileyen bireysel faktörlerden biri olarak uzun yıllardır araştırmalara konu olmaktadır. Çalışmada, Yabancı Dil Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin faktör yapısının Türkiye bağlamında incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılı bahar döneminde Marmara Bölgesindeki bir üniversitenin İngilizce hazırlık bölümünde öğrenim gören 166 öğrenci oluşturmuştur. Geçerlilik güvenirlik çalışması, dil geçerliği, puanlandırma, uygulama, madde analizi, yapı geçerliği ve güvenirlik basamaklarından oluşmaktadır. Araştırma sonucunda, Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin konuşma kaygısı, başarısızlık kaygısı ve özgüven eksikliği olmak üzere 3 boyuttan oluşan bir faktör yapısına sahip olduğuna ulaşılmıştır. Açımlayıcı faktör analizi sonuçlarına göre faktörlerin toplam varyansın %57'sini açıkladığı saptanmıştır. Ölçeğin güvenirliğine ilişkin uygulanan iç tutarlılık analizi sonucunda konuşma kaygısı, başarısızlık kaygısı ve özgüven eksikliği faktörlerinde iç tutarlılık katsayısının kabul edilebilir değerler aldığı belirlenmiştir. Buna göre, bu çalışmada Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin çoklu faktör yapısı Türkiye bağlamında incelenmiş ve yabancı dil kaygısının ölçülmesinde kullanılabilecek güvenilir ve geçerli bir araç olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Gönderim

30 Nisan 2020

Kabul

13 Mayıs 2020

Anahtar kelimeler

yabancı dil sınıf kaygısı
konuşma kaygısı
başarısızlık kaygısı
özgüven eksikliği
geçerlilik ve güvenirlik

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Giriş

Günümüzde küreselleşme ve bilişim çağıyla birlikte dünyada yabancı dil olarak İngilizcenin kullanımı hayatın her alanına yayılmakta ve İngilizce öğretimi daha da önemli hale gelmektedir. Türkiye’de yabancı dil olarak İngilizce eğitimi ve beraberindeki sorunlar uzun yıllardır gündemden düşmemektedir. Yabancı dil eğitimine ayrılan bunca kaynak, emek ve zamana rağmen bu sürecin verimli işlemediği değerlendirilmektedir (Işık, 2008). Dil öğretimiyle ilgili bunca çabaya karşın sonuç alınamamasını etkileyen bireysel faktörlerden biri yabancı dil kaygısıdır. Birçok yabancı dil öğreneni, dil öğrenmeye karşı psikolojik bir engele sahip olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Horwitz tarafından yabancı dil kaygısı olarak adlandırılan bu durum, özellikle sınıf ortamındaki dil öğrenme sürecini etkilemektedir (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Yabancı dil kaygısının yabancı dil başarısı üzerinde etkisi araştırmacılar tarafından uzun süredir incelenmektedir. Bu kavrama ilişkin alanyazın incelendiğinde yabancı dil kaygısının yabancı dil başarısı üzerinde negatif etkisi olduğu ortaya konulmuştur (Çakıcı, 2016; Deniz & Ilıcalı, 2018; Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018; Doğan & Tuncer, 2016; Gerencheal, 2016; Gökcan & Çobanoğlu, 2018; Kuşçu, 2017; Tuncer & Temur, 2017). Yabancı dil kaygısı öğrenenlerin derse katılımının azalmasına ve dili kullanmaktan kaçınmalarına neden olarak performanslarını etkilemektedir (Xiang, 2004). Böylece, yabancı dil öğretimi sürecinde yabancı dil kaygısının dikkate alınması gereken değişkenlerden biri olarak değerlendirmelidir. Bu nedenle, sınıf ortamında yabancı dil kaygısının ölçümü önem kazanmaktadır.

Yabancı dil kaygısının ölçümünde hem uluslararası hem de ulusal alanyazında yaygın olarak kullanılan Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği Horwitz tarafından tek boyutlu olarak geliştirilmiştir. Bu tek boyutlu ölçeğin Türkiye bağlamında aynı şekilde tek boyutlu olarak uyarlanması yapılmıştır (Aydın, 1999; Gürsu, 2011). Son yıllarda, Horwitz (2016) yabancı dil kaygısının farklı örneklerde ve bağlamlarda açılımlayıcı faktör analiziyle incelenmesinin yerinde olacağını, yabancı dil kaygısı kavramının özellikle kültürel farklılıklar ve farklı dil yeterlilik seviyelerine göre farklı faktör yapısına sahip olabileceğini belirtmiştir. Böylece, bu ölçme aracının örtük yapısını inceleyen çalışmalar yabancı dil kaygısı kavramını doğasını anlamaya yönelik yeni bir bakış açısı kazandırmanın yanında öğretmenlerin sınıf içinde yabancı dil kaygısını yönetmelerine yardımcı olacaktır. Bu anlamda, yabancı dil kaygısı ölçeğinin farklı dil öğrenme bağlamlarında açılımlayıcı faktör analiziyle geçerlilik çalışmasının yapılması önerilmektedir (Park, 2014). Bu sebeple, Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği’nin (YDSKÖ) örtük faktör yapısının Türkiye bağlamında yeniden incelenme ihtiyacı doğmuştur. Bu araştırma, Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği’nin bu öneriler dikkate alınarak faktör yapısının incelenmesini amaçlamaktadır.

Yabancı dil kaygısı

Yabancı dil kaygısı, diğer kaygı türlerinden farklı olarak dil öğrenme sürecine özgü olduğu belirtilen bir kaygı türüdür (Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, 2010). Bu kavram, öğrencilerin dil öğrenmeye karşı olumsuz duygusal tepkileri olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Horwitz, 2001). Diğer bir tanıma göre, yabancı dil kaygısı, konuşma, dinleme gibi becerilerin kazanıldığı ikinci dil ya da yabancı dersi ortamlarına özgü olarak hissedilen, yabancı dili öğrenirken ya da kullanırken ortaya çıkan gerginlik, endişe ve olumsuz duygusal tepki olarak ifade edilmektedir (He, 2018; MacIntyre, 1998; MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Benzer bir şekilde Horwitz

vd. (1991) yabancı dil kaygısını, dil öğrenmeyle ilgili olumsuz algı, inanç, duygu ve davranışların bütünü olarak tanımlamaktadır.

MacIntyre ve Gardner (1989) yabancı dil kaygısının daha genel bir iletişim kaygısının bir parçası olduğunu öne sürmüştür. Böylece yabancı dil kaygısını, yabancı dil sınıf ortamındaki bir yaşantıya karşı olumsuz duygusal tepki olarak ele almıştır. Aynı kaygının dil öğrenme ortamında tekrar yaşanmasıyla birlikte kaygının yabancı dil dersiyle ilişkilendirilmesinin söz konusu olduğunu ve böylece kendini diğer bağlamlardan farklılaştırdığını ifade etmiştir (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Bu anlamda yabancı dil kaygısı, yabancı dil sınıf ortamındaki iletişim kaygısı olarak değerlendirilmektedir.

Horwitz (1986) ve Horwitz vd. (1986) yabancı dil kaygısını genel kaygıyla zayıf bir ilişkiye sahip olduğunu bu anlamda yabancı dil öğretimi bağlamına özgü bir kavram olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Bundan dolayı, yabancı dil kaygısı öğrenenlerin öğretmenleri ve arkadaşlarıyla iletişiminde yaşadıkları yabancı dil sınıfına özgü kaygı olarak ifade edilmektedir. Gardner ve Smythe (1975) Fransızca kaygısı ve genel kaygı ölçeği kullandıkları çalışmalarında iki kavramın birbiriyle ilişkili olduğunu, Fransızca dersinde kaygı duyan öğrencilerin diğer derslerde de kaygılı oldukları sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Ancak, genel kaygı kavramının değil, yabancı dil edinimi sürecine özgü olan kaygının yabancı dil başarısıyla ilişkili olduğu belirtilmektedir. Daha sonraki bir çalışmada Gardner (1985) bütün kaygı türlerinin yabancı dil öğrenmeyi etkilemediğini, yabancı dil öğrenmeye özgü bir kaygı türünün yabancı dil başarısıyla ilişkili olabileceğini belirtmektedir. Bu çalışmada, ikinci dil ya da yabancı dersi ortamlarına özgü olarak hissedilen, yabancı dili öğrenirken ya da kullanırken ortaya çıkan gerginlik, endişe ve olumsuz duygusal tepki olarak ifade edilen (Horwitz, 1986) yabancı dil kaygısı tanımı ve kavramsal çerçevesi benimsenmiştir. Yabancı dil dersi sınıf ortamında yabancı dil kaygısının yanında dil becerilerini temel alan ve konuşma, yazma, okuma ve dinleme olarak adlandırılan kaygı türleri aşağıda incelenmektedir.

Konuşma kaygısı

Yabancı dil kaygısı okuma, yazma, konuşma ve dinleme şeklinde tanımlanan dil becerilerine göre farklılık göstermektedir (Horwitz, 2001). Özellikle konuşma performansı dil öğrenenler için kaygıyı artıran deneyimlerdendir. Bu yüzden 1990'lardaki yabancı dil kaygısıyla ilgili araştırmalar konuşma becerisine daha fazla odaklanmıştır (Kim, 2009). Bununla birlikte Horwitz vd. (1986) yabancı dil kaygısının daha fazla konuşma ve dinleme becerilerinde gözlemlendiğini öne sürmektedir. Bu anlamda, kaygılı öğrencilerin sınıf ortamında özellikle yabancı dilde konuşmaktan çekindikleri ve yine öğretmen tarafından kurulan uzun cümleleri anlamakta güçlük çektiklerini aktarmaktadırlar. Benzer şekilde, Gürsoy ve Karaca (2018) yabancı dil konuşma kaygısı ile konuşma yeterlilik inançları arasında olumsuz ilişki elde etmiştir. Böylece araştırmada konuşmaktan korkan, utangaç ve gergin öğrencilerin konuşmaya ilişkin düşük yeterlilik inancına sahip olduğu ifade edilmiştir. Yine başka bir araştırmada Kim (2009), yabancı dil kaygısının ve motivasyonel hedef yönelimlerinin İngilizce okuma dersi ve konuşma dersi olmak üzere iki sınıf ortamında farklılaşmasını incelemiştir. 59 Koreli öğrenci üzerinde yaptığı bu çalışmada kaygı düzeylerinin sınıf ortamlarına göre farklılık gösterdiğini saptamıştır. Aynı zamanda, araştırma, öğrencilerin okuma dersine nazaran konuşma dersinde daha fazla kaygı duydukları sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Yabancı dil konuşma kaygısını inceleyen çalışmalar kaygının temelinde olumsuz değerlendirilme kaygısı olduğunu belirtmektedir. Tulgar (2018) Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısı kaynaklarını, hata yapma korkusu, olumsuz değerlendirilme kaygısı, beklenmeyen sorular, kendini başkalarıyla karşılaştırma, dilbilgisine ve telaffuza odaklanma ve öz-değerlendirme olarak belirlemiştir. Ayrıca, kaygıya neden olan diğer faktörler anadili Türkçe olanlarla iletişim kurma korkusu, anadili Türkçe olan öğretmenler, farklı aksanlar ve kültürel farklılıklar olarak sıralanmıştır. Sadighi ve Dastpak (2017) İngilizce öğrenen İranlı öğrencilerin yabancı dil konuşma kaygısının kaynaklarını incelediği çalışmasında, hata yapma korkusu ve olumsuz değerlendirilme korkusu yabancı dil konuşma kaygısının nedenleri arasındadır.

Okuma kaygısı

Yabancı dil kaygısı genellikle sözlü olarak dilin kullanımıyla ilişkilendirilse de kaygı diğer dil becerilerinde de gözlenebilmektedir (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991). Altunkaya ve Erdem'in (2017) yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlerin okuma kaygıları ile okuduğunu anlama becerileri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelediği çalışmasında okuduğunu anlama ve okuma kaygısı arasında olumsuz yönde bir ilişki saptamışlardır. Saito, Horwitz ve Garza (1999) çalışmasında yabancı dilde okumanın bazı öğrenciler için kaygıya neden olduğunu ve okuma kaygısının hedef dile göre farklılaştığını belirtmiştir. Bununla birlikte diğer dillere nazaran Japonca öğrenenlerin kaygı seviyesinin daha yüksek olmasının dilin farklı bir alfabeyle sahip olmasından kaynaklanabileceğini ifade etmektedir. Ayrıca, öğrenenlerdeki okuma kaygısı metinlerin zorluğuna göre de artmaktadır. Saito vd. (1999) yabancı dilde okumanın kaygıya neden olmasında iki temel etken bulunduğunu ifade etmektedir. Bunlar öğrencilerin alışkın olmadıkları metin türleri ve kültür farkı olarak belirtilmektedir. Farklı yazı sistemleriyle karşılaşan öğrenen kaygı duymaya başlamaktadır. Ayrıca, öğrenen eksik kültürel bilgiye sahip olduğunu düşündüğü için de yabancı dildeki bir metni okurken kaygı yaşayabilmektedir. Ayrıca, öğretmenlerin tutumunun öğrencilerde okuma kaygısına neden olduğu ifade edilmektedir (Genç, 2016). Güngör (2016) üniversitede Fransızca öğrenen öğrencilerde yapıtı araştırmasında okuma kaygısının nedenleri olarak bilinmeyen sözcükler, anlaşılmayan yönergeler ve sorular, uzun ve zor metinler ve diğer öğrencilerden çekinme gibi faktörler belirlemiştir. Bununla birlikte, öğrenenlerin ilgisine, ihtiyaçlarına ve seviyelerine uygun olmayan metinler yabancı dil okuma kaygısına neden olabilmektedir.

Yazma kaygısı

Yazma kaygısı, yabancı dil kaygısı ve okuma kaygısının birbirinden farklı kavramlar olduğu belirtilmektedir (Horwitz, 2001). Cheng, Horwitz ve Schallert (1999) yabancı dil kaygısı ve yabancı dil yazma kaygısı arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemiş ve bu kaygı türlerinin birbirinden bağımsız olduğunu tespit etmiştir. Elde ettiği bulgular yabancı dil sınıf kaygısının daha fazla konuşma kaygısına odaklanan daha genel bir kaygı türü olduğu, yabancı dil yazma kaygısının ise yazma becerisine özgü bir kaygı olduğunu göstermektedir.

Yazma kaygısıyla ilgili çalışmalar yazma kaygısı ve başarı arasında negatif yönde ilişki olduğunu belirtmektedir (Zheng, 2005; Zhou & Tang, 2010). Guo ve Qin (2010) İngilizce öğrenen öğrenciler üzerinde yaptığı çalışmada öğrencilerin yazma kaygılarının yüksek düzeyde

olduğunu ve yazma performansı ile negatif ilişkili olduğunu tespit etmiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin yazma yetenekleriyle ilgili algılarının yazma kaygılarını etkilediği sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Dinleme kaygısı

Yabancı dilde iletişim için dinleme önemli bir yer tutmaktadır. Dinleme kaygısıyla ilgili çalışmalar dinleme kaygısıyla, dinleme başarısı ve yeterlilikleri arasında ilişki olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Kim (2000) tarafından Kore’de İngilizce öğrenen üniversite öğrencileri üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada yabancı dil dinleme kaygısıyla dinleme başarısı arasında negatif ilişki bulunmuştur. Aynı şekilde, Chen ve Liu (2010) öğrencilerin dinleme kaygıları ve dinleme yeterlilikleri arasında negatif ilişki olduğunu belirtmektedir. Golchi (2012) tarafından yapılan bir çalışmada ise dinleme kaygısının dinlediğini anlama ve dinleme stratejileri kullanımı arasında negatif ilişki belirlenmiştir. Kaygısı düşük olan öğrenenler kaygısı yüksek olan öğrenenlere nazaran metabilşsel stratejileri daha fazla kullanmıştır.

Öğrencilerde dinleme kaygısına neden olan faktörler düşük dinleme becerileri, düşük İngilizce yeterliliği ve önbilgilerin yetersizliği olarak sıralanmaktadır (Liu, 2010). Dinleme kaygısını azaltmak için önerilen stratejiler, öğrencilerin ilgi ve ihtiyaçlarına uygun dinleme parçaları kullanmak, öğrencilerin öz-güvenlerini artırmak, öğrencilere rahatlatma egzersizleri yaptırmak ve öğrencilerin dinleme stratejileri kullanmalarını konusunda teşvik etmektir (Zhou, 2009).

Yabancı dil kaygısının ölçümü

Yabancı dil kaygısıyla ilgili ilk yapılan çalışmalarda sınav kaygısı, kolaylaştırıcı-engelleyici kaygı gibi farklı kaygı türlerini ölçen ölçme araçlarının kullanılması farklı sonuçlar elde edilmesine neden olmuştur. Bundan dolayı, Scovel (1978) yabancı dil sınıfında kaygı ölçümünün diğer kaygı türlerinden farklılaşması gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Benzer şekilde, Gardner (1985) kaygının anlamlı olarak incelenmesi için ikinci dili temel alan bir ölçeğin kullanılması gerektiğini savunmuştur. Bu öneriler, 1986 yılında Horwitz vd. (1986) tarafından yabancı dil kaygısı kavramının öne sürülmesi ve bu kavramı ölçmek amacıyla bir ölçme aracının geliştirilmesiyle karşılık bulmuştur.

Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği (FLCAS) 5’li likert yapıda 33 madde ve tek boyutlu olarak geliştirilmiştir. Horwitz (1986) yaptığı geçerlik çalışmasında Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği’nin olumsuz performans beklentileri, sosyal karşılaştırmalar, psiko-sosyal semptomlar ve kaçınma davranışlarından kaynaklanan kaygıyı ölçtüğünü ifade etmektedir. Horwitz vd.’nin (1986) Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği geliştirme çalışmasında iletişim kaygısı, sınav kaygısı ve olumsuz değerlendirilme kaygısı olarak yapılan tanımların yabancı dil kaygısı için verilen analogiler olduğu ve araştırmacıların bunları yabancı dil kaygısı kavramının boyutları olarak yanlış değerlendirdiği belirtilmektedir (Horwitz, 2016). Park’a (2014) göre Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği’nin araştırmalarca farklı boyutlarının olduğunu iddia etmelerinin ilk nedeni Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği’nin bileşenlerinin belirtilmemiş olmasıdır. İkinci nedense açımlayıcı faktör analizinde faktör rotasyonu ve faktörlerin isimlendirilmesinde araştırmacıların öznel yaklaşımlarıdır. Üçüncüsü ise farklı dillere çevrilmeleridir.

Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği’nin yapı geçerliliğini inceleyen araştırmacılar, ölçeğin faktör yapısının kültürel bağlama göre farklılık gösterdiğini elde etmiştir. Aida (1994)

Amerika'da Japonca'yı yabancı dil olarak öğrenen 96 üniversite öğrencisi üzerinde Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'ni test etmiştir. Temel bileşenler analizinin varimax yöntemiyle gerçekleştirmiş ve 7 faktöre dağılan maddeleri 4 faktöre indirgemıştır. Elde ettiği faktörler Konuşma kaygısı, başarısızlık kaygısı, yabancılardan çekinmeme, ve olumsuz tutumdur. Horwitz'e (2016) göre Aida'nın (1994) araştırmasından sonra araştırmacılar ve uygulayıcılar Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin örtük yapısıyla ilgilenmeye başlamışlardır. Cheng vd. (1999) yabancı dil kaygısı ve yabancı dilde yazma kaygısı arasındaki ilişkiyi incelediği çalışmada Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği için uyguladığı temel bileşenler analizini varimax rotasyonu ile gerçekleştirmiş ve konuşma kaygısı ve performans kaygısı faktörlerini elde etmiştir. Matsuda ve Gobel (2004) Yabancı dil kaygısı ve yabancı dilde okuma kaygısı arasındaki incelediği çalışmada ise aynı şekilde varimax rotasyonu ile temel bileşenler analizini uygulamış ve başlangıçta 7 faktöre dağılan maddeleri performans kaygısı ve konuşma kaygısı olarak iki faktörde toplamıştır. Bu sonuçlar Cheng vd. (1999) tarafından gerçekleştirilen geçerlilik çalışmasıyla benzerlik göstermektedir. Liu ve Jackson (2008) iletişim kurmada isteksizlik ve yabancı dil kaygısının İngilizce yeterliliğiyle ilişkisini araştırdığı çalışmada Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı ölçeğinin faktörlerini diğer çalışmalara benzer şekilde olumsuz değerlendirilme kaygısı, iletişim kaygısı ve sınav kaygısı (Aida, 1994; Liu & Jackson, 2008) şeklinde bulmuştur. Toth (2008) Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin yapı geçerliğini değerlendirdiği çalışmada başlangıçta 8 faktör bulmuş ve bu faktörleri dört faktöre indirgemıştır. Bunlar yabancı dil yeterliği, düşük performans korkusu, tutum ve öğretmenle ilgili kaygılar olarak belirlenmiştir. İlk iki faktörün varyansın %42,3'ünü açıkladığını bu anlamda önemli olduğunu belirtmiştir. Mak (2011) 313 Çinli öğrenci üzerinde yaptığı geçerlik çalışmada konuşma kaygısı, olumsuz değerlendirilme kaygısı, olumsuz öz-değerlendirme, anadili İngilizce olanlarla konuşurken kaygı hissetme ve başarısızlık korkusu olarak beş faktör belirlemiştir. Park (2014) yabancı dil kaygısı ölçeğinin (FLCAS) örtük yapısının ortaya çıkarılması amacıyla iki farklı örneklem üzerinde açımlayıcı ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi uygulamıştır. Maksimum olasılıklı açımlayıcı faktör analizi ve direct oblimin döndürmeyle İletişim kaygısı ve anlama, iletişim kaygısı ve özgüven şeklinde iki faktör elde etmiştir. Horwitz (2016) Park'ın (2014) çalışması örnek göstererek yabancı dil kaygısının kültürlerde yeniden incelenmesinin yerinde olacağını, yabancı dil kaygısı kavramının faktör yapısının kültüre göre değişebileceğini belirtmektedir. Bu sebeple, bu çalışmada Yabancı Dil Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin Türkiye örneğinde faktör yapısı incelenmiştir.

Yöntem

Yapılan alanyazın taramasında Türkiye'de yabancı dil kaygısını ölçmek amacıyla kullanılan ölçeklerin yaygın şekilde Horwitz (1986) tarafından geliştirilen *Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı* ölçeğinin uyarlanması şeklinde olduğu görülmüştür. Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmaları ölçeğin aslına uygun şekilde tek boyutlu yapılmıştır (Aydın, 1999, Gürsu, 2011). Dünyada geniş çapta kullanılan Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin son zamanlarda Horwitz'in (2016) önerisiyle birlikte farklı ülkelerde çoklu faktör yapısı incelenmeye başlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin örtük faktör yapısı açımlayıcı faktör analiziyle incelenmiştir.

Orijinal *Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği* 33 maddeden ve tek boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Ölçek 5'li likert olarak tasarlanmış ve cevaplar "1", "Kesinlikle katılmıyorum."; "5", "Kesinlikle katılıyorum." şeklinde düzenlenmiştir. Ölçekte 4 ters madde bulunmaktadır. Ölçeğin Cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayısı ,93 olarak belirlenmiştir. Ölçekten alınan yüksek puanlar yüksek düzeyde yabancı dil kaygısını ifade etmektedir. Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin geçerlilik güvenilirlik analizleri dil geçerliği, puanlandırma, uygulama, madde analizleri, yapı geçerliği ve güvenilirlik basamaklarıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Dil geçerliği

Yabancı dil sınıf kaygısı ölçeği (FLCAS) maddeleri alanları yabancı dil eğitimi olan 2 uzman tarafından Türkçeye çevrilmiştir. Elde edilen Türkçe maddeler tekrar İngilizceye çevrilmesi için 2 alan uzmanına başvurulmuştur. Formlar arasında yapılan karşılaştırmalardan sonra taslak ölçek 1 Türk dili uzmanı tarafından dil bilgisi ve anlam bakımından incelenmiş ve maddelere son hali verilmiştir.

Puanlandırma

Orijinal *Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği* 5'li likert olarak tasarlanmış ve cevaplar "1", "Kesinlikle katılmıyorum."; "2", "Katılmıyorum."; "3", "Ne katılıyorum, ne katılmıyorum."; "4", "Katılıyorum." ve "5", "Kesinlikle katılıyorum." şeklinde düzenlenmiştir. Ölçekten elde edilen puanların en düşüğü '1,00' ve en yükseği '5,00' olacak şekildedir. Ölçekten alınan puanlara karşılık gelen düzeyler;

1,00 – 1,80 = Çok düşük düzeyde,

1,81 – 2,60 = Düşük düzeyde,

2,61 – 3,40 = Orta düzeyde,

3,41 – 4,20 = İyi düzeyde,

4,21 – 5,00 = Çok iyi düzeyde şeklindedir.

Uygulama

Taslak ölçeğin pilot uygulaması, 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılı bahar döneminde Marmara Bölgesindeki bir üniversitenin İngilizce hazırlık bölümünde öğrenim gören öğrencilere uygulanmıştır. Çalışma grubu olarak 72'si kadın ve 94'ü erkek olmak üzere toplamda 166 kişiye ulaşılmıştır.

Bulgular

Taslak ölçeğin pilot uygulamasından sonra madde toplam korelasyon analizi yapılmış ve daha sonra yapı geçerliğinin test edilmesi amacıyla açımlayıcı faktör analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Son olarak ölçeğin faktörlerine ilişkin güvenilirliğine yer verilmiştir. Bu basamaklar madde analizi, yapı geçerliği ve güvenilirlik başlıklarında verilmiştir.

Madde analizleri

Ölçeğin yapı geçerliğini test etmeden önce elde edilen veriler üzerinde madde analizleri yapılmıştır. Ölçek maddelerinin madde toplam korelasyonlarına bakılarak ,30'un

altında değere sahip olan (5, 14 ve 22) maddeler ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Madde toplam korelasyonları Tablo 1’de gösterilmektedir.

Tablo 1. YDSKÖ madde toplam korelasyonları

| Madde No | Madde Toplam Korelasyonları | Madde Silindiğinde Cronbach Alfa |
|----------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Madde 1 | ,60 | ,92 |
| Madde 2 | ,31 | ,92 |
| Madde 3 | ,63 | ,92 |
| Madde 4 | ,70 | ,92 |
| Madde 5 | ,04 | ,93 |
| Madde 6 | ,36 | ,92 |
| Madde 7 | ,63 | ,92 |
| Madde 8 | ,46 | ,92 |
| Madde 9 | ,66 | ,92 |
| Madde 10 | ,70 | ,92 |
| Madde 11 | ,27 | ,92 |
| Madde 12 | ,58 | ,92 |
| Madde 13 | ,71 | ,92 |
| Madde 14 | ,15 | ,92 |
| Madde 15 | ,59 | ,92 |
| Madde 16 | ,58 | ,92 |
| Madde 17 | ,21 | ,92 |
| Madde 18 | ,56 | ,92 |
| Madde 19 | ,49 | ,92 |
| Madde 20 | ,74 | ,92 |
| Madde 21 | ,49 | ,92 |
| Madde 22 | -,08 | ,93 |
| Madde 23 | ,54 | ,92 |
| Madde 24 | ,65 | ,92 |
| Madde 25 | ,62 | ,92 |
| Madde 26 | ,64 | ,92 |
| Madde 27 | ,68 | ,92 |
| Madde 28 | ,43 | ,92 |
| Madde 29 | ,51 | ,92 |
| Madde 30 | ,64 | ,92 |
| Madde 31 | ,64 | ,92 |
| Madde 32 | ,40 | ,92 |
| Madde 33 | ,66 | ,92 |

Madde test korelasyonu maddelerin bireyleri ölçülen özellik bakımından ne derece ayırt ettiğini göstermektedir. Madde-toplam korelasyonu ,25 ve daha yüksek olan maddelerin bireyleri iyi derecede ayırt ettiği, ,20-,25 arasında kalan maddelerin zorunlu görülmesi durumunda teste alınabileceği ya da düzeltilmesi gerektiği, ,20'den düşük maddelerin ise teste alınmaması gerektiği söylenebilir (Büyüköztürk, 2010).

Yapı geçerliği

Yapı geçerliği, testten elde edilen puanların yorumunun testle ölçülmek istenen kavramsal çerçeveye ne derece örtüştüğünü ifade etmektedir (Creswell, 2012). Madde-toplam puan korelasyonu analizinden sonra ölçeğin yapı geçerliğinin belirlenmesi için açımlayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır. Ölçeğin güvenilirlik geçerlik çalışmasında Kaiser Meyer Olkin ve Bartlett küresellik testleri sonucu KMO= ,89 ve $\chi^2=1314,702$, $df=136$, $p<0,001$ bulunarak faktör analizinin uygunluğuna karar verilmiştir. Ölçek geliştirilmesinde KMO değerinin 0,60 ve daha yüksek olmasının yeterli olduğu belirtilmektedir (Kaiser, 1974). Varimax tekniği kullanılarak açımlayıcı faktör analizi tekrarlanmıştır. Varimax tekniği, faktörlerdeki yük dağılımlarını en geniş şekilde yapmaya zorlamaktadır. Bundan dolayı her faktöre daha az sayıda değişken yükleme yapmaktadır. Böylece, faktörler daha açıklanabilir hale gelmektedir (Field, 2012).

Yapılan analizler sonucunda 30 maddeden faktör yükü ,30'ın altında kalan, birden fazla faktöre yükleme yapan 13 madde (2, 6, 7, 10, 13, 16, 17, 21, 23, 25, 26, 28, 31) ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Ayrıca, ölçekte 4 ters madde (11, 8, 18, 32) bulunmaktadır. Kalan 17 maddenin 3 faktöre dağıldığı ve faktörlerin toplam varyansın %57'sini açıkladığı saptanmıştır. Birinci faktör ölçeğe ilişkin toplam varyansın %27,5'ini, ikinci faktör %18'ini, üçüncü faktör %12,1'ini açıklamaktadır. Bu durum ölçeğin geçerli olması için gerekli bir özelliktir. 3 faktörü oluşturan 17 maddenin faktör yüklerinin ,505 ile ,783 arasında değiştiği bulunmuştur. Ayrıca faktörlerin öz-değerleri 1,189 ile 7,228 arasında değişmektedir. Öz-değer, bir faktör tarafından açıklanan çeşitliliği temsil ettiğinden, 1 ve 1'in üzerinde olan faktörler önemli kabul edilmektedir (Field, 2012). Bu sonuçlar ölçeğin yeterli düzeyde geçerliğe sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Ölçeğin yapı geçerliğine ilişkin açımlayıcı faktör analizi sonuçları Tablo 2'de sunulmuştur.

Tablo 2. YDSKÖ'nin faktör yapısı

| | 1. Faktör | 2. Faktör | 3. Faktör |
|-----|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| M9 | ,783 | | |
| M3 | ,771 | | |
| M33 | ,703 | | |
| M23 | ,701 | | |
| M27 | ,696 | | |
| M24 | ,685 | | |
| M12 | ,643 | | |
| M1 | ,505 | | |
| M29 | | ,759 | |
| M30 | | ,685 | |
| M15 | | ,654 | |

| | | | |
|------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| M4 | | ,643 | |
| M19 | | ,640 | |
| M11 | | | ,765 |
| M8 | | | ,661 |
| M18 | | | ,623 |
| M32 | | | ,557 |
| Öz-değer | 7,228 | 1,409 | 1,189 |
| Açıklanan Varyans: %59 | | | |

Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin faktörleri isimlendirilirken literatürden yararlanılmıştır. Birinci faktör konuşma kaygısı (Aida, 1994; Cheng vd., 1999; Mak, 2011; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004), ikinci faktör başarısızlık kaygısı (Aida, 1994) ve 3. faktör özgüven eksikliği (Park, 2014) olarak adlandırılmıştır.

Güvenirlilik

Ölçeğin güvenirliliği iç tutarlık yöntemi ile incelenmiştir. Ölçeğin faktörlerine ilişkin Cronbach Alfa katsayıları hesaplanmıştır. Sonuçlar Tablo 3'te gösterilmektedir.

Tablo 3. YDSKÖ faktörlerine ilişkin Cronbach Alfa değerleri

| Faktörler | Madde Sayısı | Cronbach Alfa |
|-----------------|--------------|---------------|
| 1- Faktör | 8 | ,88 |
| 2- Faktör | 5 | ,81 |
| 3- Faktör | 4 | ,65 |
| Toplam (n= 166) | 17 | |

Tabloda görüldüğü üzere ölçeğin Cronbach Alfa toplam iç tutarlık kat sayısı faktörlerde ,65 ile ,88 arasında değerler aldığı saptanmıştır. Kabul edilebilir bir güvenirlilik için alfa değeri ,70'in üzerinde olması gerekmektedir. Öte yandan, psikolojik değişkenlerin çeşitliliğinden dolayı aldıkları alfa değerlerinin ,70'in altına düşebileceğini belirtmektedir (Kline, 1999). Bu sonuçlar, ölçeğin yeterli düzeyde bir güvenirliliğe sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Ölçeğin faktörleri arasında korelasyon analizi sonuçları Tablo 4'te gösterilmektedir.

Tablo 4. Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği faktörleri arasındaki korelasyon analizi sonuçları

| Faktörler | | Konuşma Kaygısı | Başarısızlık Kaygısı | Özgüven Eksikliği |
|----------------------|---|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| Konuşma Kaygısı | r | 1 | ,717** | ,499** |
| Başarısızlık Kaygısı | r | ,717** | 1 | ,423** |
| Özgüven Eksikliği | r | ,499** | ,423** | 1 |

** p<,01, n =166

Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin konuşma kaygısı, başarısızlık kaygısı ve özgüven eksikliği faktörleri arasındaki ilişkiler Pearson korelasyon analiziyle hesaplanmıştır. konuşma kaygısının başarısızlık kaygısı faktörüyle $r=,717$; $p<,01$; özgüven eksikliği faktörüyle $r=,499$ $p<,01$ düzeyde; başarısızlık kaygısı faktörünün, özgüven eksikliği faktörüyle $r=,423$; $p<,01$ düzeyde pozitif yönde ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ilişkisi saptanmıştır. Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği maddeleri Tablo 5'te yer almaktadır.

Tablo 5. Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği maddeleri

| Maddeler | Konuşma Kaygısı | Başarısızlık Kaygısı | Özgüven Eksikliği |
|--|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| M9. İngilizce dersinde hazırlıksız konuşmam gerektiğinde paniğe kapılıyorum. | ,783 | | |
| M3. İngilizce dersinde bana söz verileceğini anladığımda çok heyecanlanıyorum. | ,771 | | |
| M33. İngilizce öğretmenim önceden hazırlanmadığım sorular sorduğunda endişeleniyorum. | ,703 | | |
| M20. İngilizce dersinde öğretmen derse kaldıracak diye çok heyecanlanıyorum. | ,701 | | |
| M27. İngilizce dersinde konuşurken heyecanlandığım için kafam karışıyor. | ,696 | | |
| M24. Arkadaşlarımın önünde konuşurken çok heyecanlanıyorum. | ,685 | | |
| M12. İngilizce dersinde çok heyecanlandığımda bildiklerimi unutuyorum. | ,643 | | |
| M1. İngilizce dersinde konuşurken kendimden emin olamıyorum. | ,505 | | |
| M29. İngilizce öğretmenimin söylediği her kelimeyi anlamadığım zaman kaygılanıyorum. | | ,759 | |
| M30. İngilizce konuşmak için öğrenmem gereken kuralların çokluğundan endişe duyuyorum. | | ,685 | |
| M15. Öğretmenin derste düzelttiği hataları anlamadığım zaman endişeleniyorum. | | ,654 | |
| M4. Öğretmenin İngilizce söylediklerini anlamamak beni korkutuyor. | | ,643 | |
| M19. İngilizce öğretmenim yaptığım her hatayı düzelterek diye korkuyorum. | | ,640 | |
| M11. Bazı arkadaşlarımın İngilizce dersi için neden bu kadar endişe duyduğunu anlamıyorum. | | | ,765 |
| M8. İngilizce sınavlarında kendimi rahat hissediyorum | | | ,661 |
| M18. İngilizce dersinde konuşurken kendime güveniyorum. | | | ,623 |
| M32. Anadili İngilizce olanların yanında rahat edebileceğimi düşünüyorum. | | | ,557 |

Tartışma ve Sonuç

Yabancı dil kaygısının dil öğrenme sürecinde olağan ve dikkate değer bir olgu olduğu ve dil öğrenme sürecini anlamaya çalışan her teorinin onu dikkate alması gerektiği ifade edilmektedir (Gardner, 1991). Yabancı dil öğretim sürecini etkileyen faktörlerden biri olarak görülen yabancı dil kaygısının öğrencilerin performanslarını ve yabancı dil başarılarını

etkilediği belirtilmektedir (Ganschow vd. 1994; Horwitz, 2010; Xiang, 2004). Bu anlamda yabancı dil kaygısının geçerli ve güvenilir bir şekilde ölçümü önem kazanmaktadır. Bu kavramın bir öz-bildirim ölçeği olarak ölçülmesi amacıyla tek faktör yapısından oluşan Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı ölçeği (Horwitz, 1986) geliştirilmiştir. Alanyazında yabancı dil kaygısının ölçümünde yaygın olarak kullanılan bu aracın daha sonra farklı kültürlerde faktör yapısının değişebileceği gündeme gelmiş ve örtük yapısının farklı dil öğrenme ortamlarında geçerlilik çalışmasının yapılması önerilmiştir (Horwitz, 2016; Park, 2014). Bu amaçla, bu çalışmada ölçeğin faktör yapısı Türkiye bağlamında İngilizce hazırlık sınıflarında incelenmiştir.

Ölçeğin geçerlik güvenirlik analizinde dil geçerliği, puanlandırma, uygulama, madde analizleri, yapı geçerliği ve güvenirlik basamakları takip edilmiştir. Dil geçerliği çalışmaları sonucunda 33 maddeli orijinal Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı ölçeği aslına uygun şekilde 5'li likert olarak tasarlanmıştır. Ölçek, 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılı bahar döneminde İngilizce hazırlık bölümünde öğrenim gören 166 öğrenciye uygulanmıştır. Uygulama aşamasından sonra elde edilen verilere madde toplam korelasyon analizi uygulanmıştır. Analiz sonucu, madde toplam korelasyonu ,30'un altında olan 3 madde ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Daha sonra, yapı geçerliğinin belirlenmesi üzere açımlayıcı faktör analizi uygulanmıştır. Kaiser Meyer Olkin ve Bartlett küresellik testleri sonucu faktör analizinin uygunluğuna karar verilmiştir. Varimax tekniği kullanılarak açımlayıcı faktör analizi tekrarlanmış ve kalan 30 maddeden faktör yükü ,30'ın altında olan 13 madde ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Kalan 17 maddenin 3 faktöre dağıldığı ve faktörlerin toplam varyansın %57'sini açıkladığı saptanmıştır. Birinci faktör ölçeğe ilişkin toplam varyansın %27,5'ini, ikinci faktör %18'ini, üçüncü faktör %12,1'ini açıklamaktadır. Ayrıca faktörlerin öz-değerleri 1,189 ile 7,228 arasında değişmektedir. Ayrıca, ölçekte 4 ters madde bulunmaktadır. Ölçeğin güvenirliğine ilişkin olarak uygulanan iç tutarlılık analizi sonucuna göre faktörlerin Cronbach Alfa toplam iç tutarlılık kat sayısının faktörlerde yeterli düzeyde saptanmıştır. Bu sonuçlar, ölçeğin yeterli düzeyde geçerlik ve güvenirliğe sahip olduğunu göstermektedir.

Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin Türkiye bağlamında faktör yapısının incelenmesi sonucu ilk faktörün konuşma kaygısı (Aida, 1994; Cheng vd., 1999; Mak, 2011; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004) olarak adlandırılmasına karar verilmiştir. Konuşma kaygısı Aida (1994) tarafından Amerika'da Japonca'yı yabancı dil olarak öğrenen üniversite öğrencileri üzerinde gerçekleştirilen geçerlilik güvenirlik çalışmasında ortaya çıkan faktörlerdendir. Ayrıca, Mak (2011) Çinli öğrenciler üzerinde yaptığı geçerlik çalışmasında aynı şekilde konuşma kaygısı faktörünü elde etmiştir. Bu çalışmada belirlenen ikinci faktör ise başarısızlık kaygısıdır. Başarısızlık kaygısı, Aida'nın (1994) geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması sonucu ortaya çıkan diğer bir faktördür. Son olarak Park (2014) Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin faktör yapısını incelediği çalışmasında öz-güven eksikliği faktörüne benzer şekilde iletişim kaygısı ve özgüven faktörüne ulaşmıştır. Yabancı dil kaygısının ölçümünde kullanılabilecek geçerli ve güvenilir olduğu belirlenen Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği'nin lise, ortaokul veya ilköğretim gibi eğitim kademelerinde geçerlilik ve güvenirliğinin test edilmesi gerekebilir. Ayrıca, ölçeğin İngilizce dışında farklı yabancı dillerin öğretildiği sınıf ortamlarında incelenmesi önerilebilir.

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Extended abstract

Purpose of the study

Foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS- Horwitz, 1986), which has one factor structure, has been used widely to measure foreign language anxiety in classroom. Recently, Horwitz (2016) proposed that the factor structure of the scale could be examined in different cultural context to find out underlying factors which can differ across cultures. It is asserted that the studies examining factor structure of the scale offer a new perspective towards the nature of the concept. In this sense, it is recommended that exploratory factor analysis be conducted in different countries (Park, 2014). This study aimed to examine underlying factor structure of foreign language classroom anxiety scale.

Method

Validity and reliability of foreign language classroom anxiety scale were tested in this study. The process consisted of translation and backtranslation, questionnaire administration, item discrimination, factor analysis and internal consistency assessment. Foreign language classroom anxiety scale was translated into Turkish by two experts on foreign language teaching. Turkish form of the scale was translated back into English by other experts who are blind to the original scale. After reconciling the differences between two forms, the language of the scale was revised by a Turkish language expert. Sample items with 33 items were applied to 166 students studying at English preparation department.

Findings

After the pilot study, item total correlation test was performed to analyse the items on the scale and 3 items were removed from the scale. Exploratory factor analysis was performed with varimax rotation method to identify factor structure of the scale. As a result, 13 factors loaded below .30 and more than one factor were removed. Remaining 17 items were loaded on 3 factors and the factors explained 57% of the total variance. The first factor explained 27,5% of the total variance, the second factor explained 18%, and the third factor explained 12,1%. Factor loads of the items ranged from .505 to .783. In addition, the eigenvalues of the factors vary between 1,189 and 7,228.

The reliability of the scale was examined with internal consistency method. The Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the scale were calculated. Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficients ranged between .65 and .88 for the factors. In addition, significant and positive relationships between the factors support that the scale is a reliable instrument to measure the construct. These results show that the scale is valid and reliable instrument to measure foreign language anxiety.

Discussion and conclusion

Foreign language classroom anxiety scale which was originally a single dimensional instrument to measure anxiety in EFL classroom is claimed to have different underlying factors across cultures. Therefore, it is suggested that exploratory factor analysis be performed to investigate the factor structure of the scale (Horwitz, 2016; Park, 2014). This study examined

the underlying factors of the scale in Turkish EFL classroom. As a result, it was found out that the scale has 3 factors labelled as speaking anxiety, fear of failure and lack of self-confidence (Aida, 1994; Cheng et al., 1999; Mak, 2011; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Speaking anxiety was one of the factors that Aida (1994) determined in a study with the students learning Japanese in the USA. In addition, Mak (2011) found out a factor labelled as speaking anxiety in a validation study with Chinese students. Fear of failure is another factor which Aida (1994) identified in their study. Finally, to do with the third factor, lack of self-confidence, Park (2014) determined communication apprehension and self-confidence as one of the factors in the validation study of FLCAS. For future studies, there is need to test validity and reliability of FLCAS in classroom environments where different foreign languages other than English are taught.

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Research Article

An evaluation of the English preparatory program at İstanbul Medeniyet University

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Abstract

At Turkish universities, schools of foreign languages provide compulsory and voluntary language education for college students before they start their programs. This study aims to evaluate the program implemented for the English preparatory classes at İstanbul Medeniyet University, School of Foreign Languages during 2016-2017 academic year. This study has a mixed approach. 131 students and four instructors evaluated the program in terms of aspects such as the course materials, course contents, testing methods, assignments and the instructors. The data were collected via a questionnaire and semi-structured interview questions. The analysis of the questionnaire data was conducted via descriptive statistics and a descriptive analysis was carried out with the data from the interviews. The findings revealed that the participant students were indecisive about the effectiveness of the language program in general. Moreover, it was seen that the mean scores of the female students, the intermediate level students and the ones attending the program voluntarily were higher when compared with the males, the elementary level students and the ones attending the program obligatorily.

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Note(s) from the author(s)

» *Corresponding author

» This study was presented at the ICPESS-VENICE congress on 28-30 June, 2018 in Venice-ITALY.

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Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: We hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. We take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

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İstanbul Medeniyet Üniversitesi İngilizce hazırlık programının değerlendirilmesi

Öz

Türkiye'deki üniversitelerde, hazırlık okulları öğrencilere lisans eğitimine başlamadan önce zorunlu ve isteğe bağlı dil eğitimini vermektedir. Bu çalışma İstanbul Medeniyet Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'nda 2016-2017 eğitim öğretim yılında verilen İngilizce hazırlık eğitimini değerlendirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma karma desenedir. 131 öğrenci ve 4 öğretim görevlisi verilen eğitimi ders materyalleri, ders içerikleri, ölçme yöntemleri, ödevler ve öğretim görevlileri gibi açılardan değerlendirmiştir. Veri bir anket ve yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme soruları aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Anketin analizi betimsel istatistiklerle yapılmıştır ve görüşme verileri betimsel analiz ile incelenmiştir. Bulgular göstermektedir ki öğrenciler genel manada programın etkinliği konusunda kararsızdır. Ayrıca, kadın öğrencilerin, orta seviye (intermediate level) öğrencilerin ve isteğe bağlı olarak programa katılan öğrencilerin memnuniyetinin erkeklere, başlangıç seviyesi (elementary level) öğrencilere ve zorunlu olarak programa katılan öğrencilere göre daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür.

Gönderim

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Kabul

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Anahtar kelimeler

İngilizce hazırlık sınıfları
program değerlendirme
yükseköğretim
yabancı dil olarak İngilizce

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Introduction

Curriculum design and development not only in language teaching but also in other subject areas are regarded as critically important elements of education. Therefore, much research has been conducted in this field for different reasons, such as offering suggestions for practitioners to present a common base or to understand the effectiveness of the implemented curriculum. Quicke (1999, p.1) proposes that “a curriculum provides a framework for learning.” Since curriculum suggests what we have to teach by giving reference to the educational needs of the students, it includes the “how” and the “what” of learning, which takes place both formally and informally inside educational institutions.

The curriculum process is not effortless or straightforward because of its nature. According to Demirel (2004, p. 17-18), foreign language learning, which is a cumulative process, combines cognitive behaviors and new psychomotor skills. Students are expected to acquire a foreign language system by developing these cognitive behaviors and motor skills through a well-organized foreign language curriculum. However, it is not uncommon to observe mismatch among different components of the suggested curriculum like objectives, content, and teaching and learning process. Nunan (1988, p. 138-141), for instance, emphasizes the frequent mismatch between what the curriculum offers and what occurs in the language classroom. Tollefson (1991, p. 99-100) explains the inconsistency between theories and classroom practices through the ‘modernization theory.’ He claims that even though some educationists widely criticized traditional instruction and many classes shifted to ‘modern’ methods in which students are supposed to take more responsibility for their learning, many teaching practices still place students in paradoxical circumstances.

From a slightly different perspective, Brown (2009) makes recommendations based on his thirty-five years of experience in language curriculum development. He suggests that any language needs analysis must include both language and contextual needs and therefore program-based assessment must be directly connected to the students’ needs, the course objectives, the materials being used, and the activities that are going on in the classrooms (Brown, 2009, p. 87). Besides, he shares his experience in Turkey when he was invited to evaluate a new English curriculum prepared for 11 million students throughout the country. He did not only find materials covered in the curriculum confusing but also cultural content like the royal family, cricket, Benjamin Britten problematic. He adds, “that is when I began to realize that the materials development team had not done any needs analysis or consulted with any real live teachers and students” (Brown, 2009, p. 95). This first-hand experience proves the effectiveness of his curriculum development process theory, which starts with the identification of situation, context, students, or analyzing needs. In his model, the steps of formulating goals, determining course content, designing course units and modules, constructing lesson plans follow the very first step as well as teaching, assessment, and revision of curriculum steps as final ones (Brown, 2007, p. 151). Indeed, it is possible to study ‘the curriculum’ from several different perspectives as offered by Nunan (2002, p. 4). Accordingly, curriculum planning can be examined at a decision-making level concerning different aspects of it, starting from identifying learners’ needs and purposes. Another perspective can be in ‘action’ which takes the evaluators into the classroom itself. Apart from these, a perspective

relates to assessment and evaluation gives the program evaluators a chance to make recommendations for respondents to improve things in the future.

Consequently, if we summarize the role of evaluation with Rea-Dickins and Germanie (2003, p. 20), “evaluation makes teachers aware of parameters in which they are working. Raising awareness in this way helps them to analyse the context for possible openings for innovation or for constraints”. We expect that the study conducted at Istanbul Medeniyet University, School of Foreign Languages, does not only help to raise awareness for the curriculum evaluation process within this specific institution but also makes contributions to other foreign language schools.

This paper aims to answer the following questions in order to evaluate the program implemented for the English preparatory classes at İstanbul Medeniyet University, School of Foreign Languages during the 2016-2017 academic year:

1. How efficiently do the students at İstanbul Medeniyet University (İMÜ) School of Foreign Languages find the English preparatory program implemented during 2016-2017 academic year in terms of the courses, the course materials, assignments, the testing and evaluation processes, the academic staff, perceived learner engagement, other aspects of the instruction and the system?
2. Do the students' opinions about the English preparatory program vary significantly in terms of their gender, preparatory program status (compulsory or voluntary), language level?
3. What do the instructors think about the English preparatory program implemented during the 2016-2017 academic year considering the course books, curriculum, physical and technical conditions, and students' performance?

Literature Review

The main aim of this paper is to evaluate the implemented program of English as a Foreign Language at a state university. For this purpose, we will report related literature and studies focusing on teaching English as a foreign language. We can say that inherent in the term of curriculum evaluation is the concept of perspective. Thus, it is clear that a considerable amount of research has been conducted in this field in light of different perspectives to make an accurate evaluation, and they have proposed some suggestions despite its complexity. Sullivan (2006, p. 591) states that “when we evaluate, we are saying that the process will yield information regarding worthiness, appropriateness, goodness, or validity”. Moreover, because the curriculum implementation process requires a severe evaluation, including opinions gathered from different groups such as students, teachers, material developers, it causes the content of related studies to be widespread. For instance, the study conducted by Coşkun (2013) aimed to evaluate the modular intensive general English language teaching program applied at a university in Turkey. In his research, he collected the qualitative data through interviews with 22 instructors working in the preparatory school, and the quantitative data from 381 preparatory school students through a questionnaire adapted from Tunç's (2010) study. The research question of “What are students' and instructors' perceptions of the effectiveness of the English preparatory program concerning three program dimensions: course materials, the teaching, learning process, and the assessment?” was tried to be answered. The results showed that the materials prepared for different skills and sub-skills were positively

evaluated, whereas many students expressed concerns about the materials for speaking. In addition to this, some instructors claimed that grammar, reading, and writing materials do not help students for their further education. It was also found that instructors mainly used lecturing instead of role-plays, discussions, and presentations. As the study tried to investigate the effectiveness of a modular system, the instructors emphasized the low motivation level of the students and discipline problems.

Similarly, Koçyiğit and Erdem (2018) undertook a study to review English preparation classes in higher education considering the graduate research. Their study found that these studies usually employed a quantitative research design and they generally focused on students' perspective. Accordingly, there is a gap in qualitative studies and there is also a lack of studies on instructors' views. The current study satisfies both gaps by having a mixed-method design and focusing on instructors' views as well. Furthermore, some instructors suggested more academic English in the program. Similarly, Tekin (2015) adopted Tunç's (2010) data collection instrument for evaluation of prep school to evaluate the English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature preparatory classes of a state university in Turkey by interpreting triangulated data with qualitative and quantitative means gathered from 106 students and two lecturers. The study revealed that even though the majority of participants were satisfied with the present language program, there is still a need for change. For example, students stated that the program provides opportunities to improve their grammar, writing, and reading skills but not speaking and listening skills and vocabulary knowledge. Another major issue raised by the participants was the selection of materials, especially for speaking and listening courses and the need for a separate vocabulary course. The findings related to teaching methods in the study revealed that traditional teaching methods such as "lecturing" and "question and answer" dominated the lessons. Therefore, communicative activities such as role-plays, students' presentations did not find many places in the lessons (Tekin, 2015, p. 730-732). An extensive evaluation held both quantitatively and qualitatively by Ünal et. al. (2017, p. 616-617) to evaluate another public university's English Language program reported that the current curriculum was successful, and the school was equipped with sufficient materials and facilities. However, both the instructors and students who participated in the study made some suggestions for a more effective curriculum. Technology integration into the classroom and teaching practice, revision of assessment, teaming instructors as material developers, testers, fewer class hours, and more English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses instead of general English courses were the most suggested items. Lee (2016), likewise, found that the students felt more interested in ESP instruction, and they considered ESP courses could be more useful for their future needs in a study which investigated the perspectives and perceptions of students studying at a technological university in Taiwan.

From a different viewpoint, aiming a kind of internal validity, Çetinavcı and Zehir-Topkaya (2012) evaluated two different regimes of grammar teaching, one that followed its language content and another that followed the language content of the main course in a year-long preparatory English class at a Turkish state university. They interviewed the administrator, five instructors, and 36 students one-on-one and as groups. Also, they observed six classrooms and compared relevant exam results and attendance records. The analysis made

it clear that the program following the language content of the main course was favored much more strongly as a positive step in the course of producing the desired learning outcomes.

Even though there is a high demand for preparatory school evaluation, a deep analysis of foreign language teaching and learning policy has to be invested. Thus, this necessity has taken the attention of some researchers in the field like Dinçer et. al. (2010), who explored viewpoints of university preparatory school students on the English Language Education process in Turkey. They aimed to advise teachers by taking into consideration students' readiness levels and their experiences during their prior education periods. For this aim, 38 preparatory class students from Tourism Vocational College Preparatory Program were asked to write a composition in order to learn their high school years' language experience. Analyzed compositions of the students clearly showed that some frequently experienced problems that they transferred to the undergraduate level negatively affected their foreign language learning experience. The component named "foreign language teachers' teaching capabilities," including sub-components of being unaware of the current methods in language education, use of old-fashioned methods, their disregard towards the course was the most mentioned one. Curriculum and course materials component followed the teacher factor in students' writings. The results showed that students were unpleasant with curriculum, English hours at the high school, and course books. However, students commented that they did not participate in the class effectively, revise what they were taught, and did not give much importance to English (Dinçer et al., 2010, p. 239-241).

Methodology

In this study, the English module at İstanbul Medeniyet University School of Foreign Languages preparatory classes was examined from the following aspects: courses, course materials, assignments, testing and evaluation processes, academic staff, learner engagement, and some other aspects of the instruction and the system. The study followed a mixed method consisting of an interview and a questionnaire as data collection tools. A mixed methods research refers to the design that "focuses on collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study" (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 26; Creswell, 2009, p. 204). This study also adopts the concurrent triangulation approach which aims to reveal any convergence, differences or combination by comparing the quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2009, p. 213-214). For the quantitative data of this study, the students were given a questionnaire that included items for the evaluation of the aspects mentioned above. For the qualitative part, four instructors were interviewed via a semi-structured interview form that covered questions about the same aspects of the language program.

Context

This study aims to evaluate the program implemented for the English preparatory classes at Istanbul Medeniyet University, School of Foreign Languages during the 2016-2017 academic year. The program lasted 32 weeks in total, and this was divided into four periods each of which was 7 or 8 weeks. The students were given a placement test before the classes started and placed to an A level (elementary) or B level (pre-intermediate) class accordingly. The classes were reorganized after each period considering the grades of the students. That is, the students were grouped according to their language levels as well as their achievement in

the tests. The program did not follow a modular system where learners moved to the next level, like from A1 to A2 or from A2 to B1. They were instructed within the same level group throughout the year, and the terms of A and B referred to the groups rather than the language levels at the end of the year. In the last period, when the data for this study were collected, there were 9 language classes at school, and 7 were for A level students while only 2 were for B level ones. The English preparatory year was compulsory for the students admitted to programs in which the medium of instruction was English. The students who volunteered were also accepted to the preparatory school, although they would be entirely instructed in Turkish in their future programs. However, these two groups were instructed in separate classes. The students from the compulsory language program would be expelled from the school if they failed, whereas the ones from the voluntary language program could start their department even if they failed in the language class.

Table 1. The courses and the instructional materials

| Courses | Compulsory Classes (Hours) | Voluntary Classes (Hours) | Instructional Materials |
|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| Main Course | 16 | 18 | New Language Leader by Pearson Education |
| Writing | 4 | 4-6 | Ready to Write by Pearson Education Writing Pack |
| Pre-faculty | 2 | 2 | Course Pack from Reading Passages |
| Listening and Speaking | 4 | x | Real Listening and Speaking by Cambridge University Press |
| Reading | 4 | x | Real Reading and Reading Explorer by Cambridge University Press |
| Terminology | 2 | x | Materials created by the departments |
| Total | 32 | 24-26 | |

The program involves several components that will be briefly described below. First, the courses covered in the language program and the instructional materials for each course are shown in Table 1. As can be seen in Table 1, the language instruction was delivered in six different courses for the students from the compulsory program. They received general English instruction in Main Course classes, and they were instructed separately for reading and writing skills, whereas listening and speaking were presented in an integrated way in the same course. They also followed courses like Pre-faculty and Terminology in which they were provided English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The language instructors gave the Pre-faculty while for Terminology courses, academics from their departments were invited to make the students get familiar with the terminology they would need in their future programs. Listening and Speaking, Reading and Terminology courses were not provided for the students from the

voluntary program. The students followed the materials published by private companies like Cambridge and Pearson as well as some packs prepared by the Material and Curriculum Office in the school. The compulsory groups received 32 hours of instruction per week, and this decreased to 24-26 hours for the voluntary groups due to the different syllabus implemented for them. When it comes to the testing and evaluation processes, Table 2 presents a brief summary.

Table 2. The testing and evaluation processes

| Evaluation process in each period | Periods | Proficiency Test |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|
| Quiz: 20% | 1 st period: 15% | B2 Level 70+ |
| Mid-term: 40% | 2 nd period: 20% | |
| Pop quiz: 5% | 3 rd period: 25% | |
| Assignments: 20% | 4 th period: 40% | |
| Writing portfolio: 15% | ↓ 60+ | |

As can be understood from Table 2, the students were evaluated based on quizzes (20%), a mid-term exam (40%), pop quizzes (5%), assignments (20%), and a writing portfolio (15%) for each period. However, the contribution of the average grade for each period to the final grade was not equal. Considering the difficulty of the instruction throughout the year, the students raised their grades from the 1st to the 4th period (15% for the 1st period, 20% for the 2nd period, 25% for the 3rd period and 40% for the 4th period). The average grade calculated according to these ratios should be 60 or above so that the students were allowed to take the B2 level proficiency test given at the end of the year. The students were required to take 70 or above to be considered as successful in the proficiency test.

Sampling

For the quantitative part of the study, a total population sampling technique was adapted. For this technique, the entire population is included in the research, so it is more commonly used when the number is relatively small (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016, p. 3). Therefore, the questionnaire was delivered to all the 154 preparatory class students studying at İMU in the academic year of 2016-2017. Out of these 154 students, 131 were included in the analysis, which makes up 85% of the population, since some were absent on the data collection date and some others did not fill in the questionnaire properly. The detailed information about the participant students is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The participant students

| Variables | Groups | N |
|-----------------------------|------------|-----|
| Language level | A | 103 |
| | B | 28 |
| Language preparation status | Compulsory | 76 |
| | Voluntary | 55 |
| Gender | Female | 80 |

| | | |
|--------------|------|------------|
| | Male | 51 |
| Total | | 131 |

It is understood from Table 3 that out of 131 participants, 103 were from A level, and 28 were from B level classes. 76 of them received the preparatory language program since it was compulsory, and 55 of them volunteered for it since they were willing to learn English before they started their departments. Finally, 80 of these students were females, whereas 51 of them were males.

For the qualitative part, purposive sampling technique was implemented. In this technique, participants are chosen for a specific purpose that is relevant to the research needs (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005, p. 103). Based on this technique, only 4 of the 20 English instructors were included in the interview. Some of the instructors had been dismissed and the school had recently employed some of them. The four participant instructors were picked for the interviews since they were the ones who had experienced teaching the program under study.

An official document was taken from the institution to get their permission for the data collection. The questionnaire was implemented when the classes were available during the 4th period. As for the interviews, an appointment was made with each participant instructor when they were available and they were visited in their offices.

Data collection instruments

In order to get the quantitative data, the participant students were asked to fill in the Preparatory Language Education Program Evaluation Questionnaire developed by the researchers. The items in the questionnaire were written based on the related literature, the program evaluation tools used by different schools of foreign languages in Turkey and the main features of the implemented program. The draft of the questionnaire was examined by different experts (two faculty members from ELT and Educational Sciences departments and one English instructor) and the items were revised according to their feedback. The final questionnaire consisted of 52 items with which the students expressed their agreement on a 5-point Likert scale: 1: Strongly disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neither agree nor disagree, 4: Agree and 5: Strongly agree. The items included statements about courses, course materials, assignments, testing and evaluation processes, academic staff, learner engagement, and some other aspects of the instruction and the system. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as .907 for the questionnaire and this value indicates a high level of reliability for the tool since a coefficient between 0.65 and 0.8 is considered acceptable in social sciences (Singh, 2017; Vaske, Beaman & Sponarski, 2016).

As for the qualitative data, a semi-structured interview form was used by the researchers to interview the instructors. The form included seven questions that referred to the same aspects of the language program. The questions were directed to the sample group, and the biodata was also obtained. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for the analysis. In order to increase the validity and reliability of the data collection tools, and thus this study, the data collection tools were prepared by first checking the preparatory class evaluation procedures of several other state universities. Then, the questionnaire and interview

questions were prepared by the three authors together, and several meetings were held to consider potential problems and ensure consistency. Finally, the interview questions were sent to an expert specialized in testing. The items of the questionnaire and the interview questions were adapted in accordance with the suggestions.

Data analysis procedures

For the analysis of the quantitative part, the data gathered via the questionnaire were transferred to SPSS 22 software, and Independent Samples T-test and Mann Whitney U test were conducted in addition to the calculations for means, frequencies, percentages, and standard deviation. The results were considered significant at the level of $p < .05$.

As for the qualitative part, the descriptive analysis method was used to analyse the interview data. In descriptive analysis, the data are interpreted according to the pre-defined themes or may be grouped and reported according to the research questions. Direct quotations from the respondents are frequently utilized while reporting the findings. The point is to interpret and present the data in an organized way (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008). The data were categorized according to the interview questions and sub-themes were assigned. Then, as a content, the interview data in this study were analyzed using descriptive analysis in order to understand the preparatory English teaching in İMU through the four aspects: the course books, curriculum, physical and technical conditions, and students' performance.

Results

In this section, the findings from the analysis are presented following the research questions. First, the findings from the quantitative analysis that reflect the students' opinions and then the instructors' views from the descriptive analysis are given.

The questionnaire

The first research question was stated as "How efficient do the students at İMÜ School of Foreign Languages find the English preparatory program implemented during 2016-2017 academic year in terms of the courses, the course materials, assignments, the testing and evaluation processes, the academic staff, learner engagement, other aspects of the instruction and the system?".

The participant students' opinions about the overall efficiency of the preparatory language education program are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Students' mean satisfaction levels for the preparatory language education program

| Questionnaire | n | x | sd |
|---|-----|------|-------|
| preparatory language education program evaluation questionnaire | 131 | 3.27 | .4931 |

Table 4 shows that the mean for the Preparatory Language Education Program Evaluation Questionnaire is 3.27 out of 5. That is, the students were reasonably pleased with the English Preparatory Program implemented during the 2016-17 academic year. They did not

consider the program as inefficient in general, but they also believed that it needed to be improved. Means for the courses covered in the program are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Means for the courses in the program

| Courses | n | x | sd |
|------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Main Course | 130 | 3.45 | 1.1687 |
| Writing | 130 | 4.18 | .9627 |
| Pre-faculty | 131 | 2.67 | 1.2355 |
| Listening and Speaking | 122 | 2.59 | 1.2574 |
| Reading | 118 | 2.64 | 1.2977 |
| Terminology | 114 | 2.39 | 1.3333 |

As can be seen in Table 5, the students found Main Course classes quite efficient ($x=3.45$) whereas they were not satisfied with Pre-faculty ($x=2.67$), Terminology ($x=2.39$), Listening & Speaking ($x=2.59$), and Reading classes ($x=2.64$). Writing was considered as the most effective and beneficial course in the program ($x=4.18$). Means for the course materials used for the language instruction are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Means for the course materials

| Materials | n | x | sd |
|-----------------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Language Leader (Main Course) | 131 | 2.90 | .7958 |
| Ready to Write & Writing Pack | 130 | 3.38 | 1.2721 |
| Real Listening and Speaking | 123 | 2.30 | 1.1157 |
| Real Reading & Reading Explorer | 123 | 2.47 | 1.2369 |
| Supplementary Materials and Packs | 131 | 3.07 | .9866 |

According to Table 6, the students were pleased mostly with the materials of writing classes ($x=3.38$) and the other supplementary materials and packs ($x=3.07$) that were prepared by the instructors of the related office. However, the mean scores show that they were not satisfied with the commercial materials chosen for Main Course ($x=2.90$), Listening and Speaking ($x=2.30$) and Reading ($x=2.47$) courses. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the students were more pleased with the packs and supplementary materials prepared by the Material and Curriculum Development Office compared with the commercial products. Means for the assignments given to the students to support their language learning are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Means for the assignments

| Assignments | n | x | sd |
|------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Writing assignments | 131 | 3.09 | .9152 |
| Online assignments | 129 | 2.31 | 1.3083 |
| Assignments in general | 131 | 3.01 | .8000 |

Table 7 shows that the students were satisfied with the assignments they did for their writing course ($x=3.09$), but they did not find the online assignments efficient ($x=2.31$) for their learning. It is also seen that they were content with the assignments they were required to do throughout the year ($x=3.01$). Means for the testing and evaluation processes are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Means for testing and evaluation processes

| Testing and evaluation processes | n | x | sd |
|---|----------|----------|-----------|
| Use of English | 129 | 3.53 | .9846 |
| Speaking | 131 | 3.67 | 1.0323 |
| Listening | 129 | 3.13 | 1.1345 |
| Writing | 131 | 3.83 | 1.0138 |
| Evaluation | 131 | 3.24 | .8707 |
| Testing and evaluation in general | 131 | 3.35 | .6792 |

The students were tested on different aspects of language throughout the year, and Table 8 shows that they found the testing and evaluation processes efficient in general ($x=3.35$). It is also evident that they were satisfied in each component of the tests (use of English= 3.53 , listening= 3.13 , evaluation= 3.24), but the highest scores were for the testing of productive skills (speaking= 3.67 , writing= 3.83). Taking the items under this category into account, it is possible to conclude that the students considered the testing and evaluation processes appropriate for their level and coherent with the curriculum and also thought that the evaluation procedures were just. Means for the other aspects of language instruction at the School of Foreign Languages are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Means for the other aspects of language instruction

| Different aspects of language instruction | n | x | sd |
|--|----------|----------|-----------|
| Use of ITC in class | 130 | 3.48 | 1.0942 |
| Pair and group work activities | 130 | 3.49 | 1.1959 |

| | | | |
|--|-----|------|--------|
| Re-grouping students for every period | 117 | 3.55 | 1.3610 |
| Putting theoretical info into practice | 131 | 3.55 | .8740 |
| Contribution of prep program to academic and professional life | 131 | 3.81 | .9733 |

When the means presented in Table 9 are considered, it is possible to argue that the students were satisfied with the integration of ITC in language teaching ($x=3.48$). They found the pair and group work activities conducted in the lessons efficient and helpful for their language learning ($x=3.49$). It is also clear that they were pleased with the way they were re-grouped according to their test scores for each period ($x=3.55$). Finally, it is understood that they believed they could put the theoretical info into practice ($x=3.55$) and this one-year language program would contribute to their academic and professional life ($x=3.81$). Finally, means for learner engagement and the academic staff are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Means for learner engagement and the academic staff

| Learner engagement and academic staff | n | x | sd |
|---------------------------------------|-----|------|--------|
| Learner engagement | 131 | 3.10 | 1.0506 |
| Academic staff | 131 | 3.76 | .7611 |

As can be seen in Table 10, the students were content with both their effort and the instructors' contribution to the program throughout the year. However, it is seen that they were more pleased with the instructors ($x=3.76$) than their performance ($x=3.10$).

The second research question was formulated as "Do the students' opinions about the English preparatory program vary significantly in terms of their gender, preparatory program status (compulsory or voluntary), language level?". The t-test results that show a significant difference between the students' opinions in terms of their gender are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. The t-test results for the students' opinions in terms of their gender

| Variables | Groups | n | x | sd | t test | | |
|--|--------|----|------|-------|--------|-----|--------------|
| | | | | | t | df | p |
| Preparatory language education program | Female | 80 | 3.34 | .484 | 2.01 | 129 | .046* |
| | Male | 51 | 3.16 | .492 | | | |
| Writing | Female | 80 | 4.35 | .747 | 2.28 | 128 | .025* |
| | Male | 50 | 3.92 | 1.192 | | | |

* $p < .05$

Table 11 shows that the students' opinions about the preparatory language education program in general ($p=.046$) and writing classes in particular ($p=.025$) differ statistically significantly in terms of their gender. When the means for the groups are checked, it is understood that the female students were more satisfied with both aspects (PLEP=3.34 and writing=4.35) than the males (PLEP=3.16 and writing=3.92). The t-test results that show

significant difference between the students' opinions in terms of their preparatory program status are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. The t-test results for the students' opinions in terms of their preparatory program status

| Variables | Groups | n | x | sd | t test | | |
|-------------|------------|----|------|-------|--------|-----|-------|
| | | | | | t | df | p |
| Terminology | Compulsory | 75 | 2.66 | 1.338 | 3.33 | 112 | .001* |
| | Voluntary | 39 | 1.85 | 1.163 | | | |

*p<.05

As can be seen in Table 12, there is statistically significant difference between the students' opinion about the Terminology course in terms of their preparatory program status (p=.001). When the means are compared, it is seen that the learners from the voluntary program found this course a lot more inefficient than the ones from the compulsory program. This finding can be explained by the fact that the voluntary students were not offered this Terminology course as well as the possibility that they thought they would not need any terminology in English since the medium of instruction was Turkish in their department. Finally, the Mann Whitney-U test results that show a significant difference between the students' opinions in terms of their language levels are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. The Mann Whitney-U test results for the students' opinions in terms of their language levels

| Variable | Language Level | N | Mean of Ranks | Sum of Ranks | U | z | p |
|--|----------------|-----|---------------|--------------|---------|--------|-------|
| Preparatory language education program | B Level | 28 | 83.95 | 2350.50 | 939.50 | -2.822 | .005* |
| | A Level | 103 | 61.12 | 6295.50 | | | |
| | Total | 131 | | | | | |
| Main course | B Level | 28 | 77.45 | 2168.50 | 1093.50 | -1.969 | .049* |
| | A Level | 102 | 62.22 | 6346.50 | | | |
| | Total | 130 | | | | | |
| Reading | B Level | 24 | 72.21 | 1733.00 | 823.00 | -2.096 | .036* |
| | A Level | 94 | 56.26 | 5288.00 | | | |
| | Total | 118 | | | | | |
| Terminology | B Level | 24 | 70.88 | 1701.00 | 759.00 | -2.302 | .021* |
| | A Level | 90 | 53.93 | 4854.00 | | | |
| | Total | 114 | | | | | |
| Language leader | B Level | 28 | 89.05 | 2493.50 | 796.50 | -3.638 | .000* |
| | A Level | 103 | 59.73 | 6152.50 | | | |
| | Total | 131 | | | | | |
| Real reading & Reading explorer | B Level | 25 | 85.88 | 2147.00 | 628.00 | -3.887 | .000* |
| | A Level | 98 | 55.91 | 5479.00 | | | |
| | Total | 123 | | | | | |
| Supplementary materials | B Level | 28 | 84.25 | 2359.00 | 931.00 | -2.914 | .004* |
| | A Level | 103 | 61.04 | 6287.00 | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|-----|-------|---------|---------|--------|--------------|
| | Total | 131 | | | | | |
| Online assignments | B Level | 28 | 82.84 | 2319.50 | | | |
| | A Level | 101 | 60.05 | 6065.50 | 914.50 | -2.948 | .003* |
| | Total | 129 | | | | | |
| Tests for use of English | B Level | 28 | 79.36 | 2222.00 | | | |
| | A Level | 101 | 61.02 | 6163.00 | 1012.00 | -2.433 | .015* |
| | Total | 129 | | | | | |
| Listening tests | B Level | 28 | 80.52 | 2254.50 | | | |
| | A Level | 101 | 60.71 | 6130.50 | 979.50 | -2.567 | .010* |
| | Total | 129 | | | | | |
| Pair and group work activities | B Level | 28 | 81.48 | 2281.50 | | | |
| | A Level | 102 | 61.11 | 6233.50 | 980.50 | -2.629 | .000* |
| | Total | 130 | | | | | |
| Re-grouping students for every period | B Level | 28 | 78.98 | 2211.50 | | | |
| | A Level | 103 | 62.47 | 6434.50 | 1078.50 | -2.087 | .037* |
| | Total | 131 | | | | | |

*p<.05

As can be seen in Table 13, there is statistically significant difference between the A level and B level students' opinions about the preparatory language education program (p=.005), Main Course (p=.049), Reading course (p=.036), Terminology course (p=.021), the instructional materials used for the Main Course classes (p=.000), Reading classes (p=.000), the other supplementary materials (p=.004), online assignments (p=.003), the tests for Use of English (p=.015) and Listening (p=.010), pair and group work activities (p=.000) and re-grouping students for every period (p=.037). When the means are considered, it is seen that the B level students were more satisfied with the mentioned aspects than the A level learners.

Results of the interviews

This section summarizes the findings obtained through Descriptive Analysis from the interviews. In the first question, the aim is to learn about the instructors' overall idea about the program. The participants think that the program is generally fine. They think that the strengths of the program are as follows: the lecturers are passionate and hardworking, and the program offers a variety of teaching which is useful for the students. As P3 states, "*There is more variety of lessons. When I ask my colleagues in other universities, I think that we are one step ahead of them*". So, the instructors, in general, think that the program is better than other public universities. The participants also mention some of the problematic parts. They say that the program is not settled yet as it is a new university. Another problem mentioned is that the program is usually based on the book, not a needs analysis. Students also have a problem with motivation. As P3 explains, "*I believe that students are really demotivated. In the beginning they come very motivated but after a few weeks they start to lose their motivation*".

The second question of the interview is on the books used in the program (See Table 1 for the books used). The analysis demonstrates that the English instructors are all happy with the books in a general sense. However, some issues are commonly mentioned by the interviewees. One significant finding is that they find the New Language Leader to be a successful book. However, they think that it causes some problems in their program mainly

because most of the students start with an A1 level. New Language Leader, on the other hand, is focused on academic skills, and in this sense, it is sometimes too hard for the students. As P1 argues, “*The level of New Language Leader is a little bit demanding for our students as they come as true beginners.*” As for the book selection process, the analysis shows that they are asked to mention their views, but their ideas are not taken into consideration most of the time, which is possibly due to the problems in formalities or practical issues such as lack of a sufficient number of instructors. For instance, P4 says “*The way the process was applied was good but I guess there were formal problems. The books we suggested were not chosen. The process was good but the outcomes were not applied.*”

The next focus of the interview is the curriculum. The analysis suggests that the instructors are often happy with the curriculum. However, two main issues are mentioned. The first one is that the curriculum is overloaded and in turn pacing is fast. P3 explains that this is because “*We have zero beginners.*” The participants suggest that as some of the students have a really weak command of English, too many things are included in the curriculum. This may be a rational choice however, it puts too much stress on the students. P3 argues “*They (the true beginners) are doomed to fail as the program is one year.*”. She suggests that true beginners should study more than one year as it is usually not enough for attaining proficiency at B2 level. The other problem mentioned is that the curriculum does not have obvious objectives and the focus of the books mainly leads it. As P2 argues “*We only follow the book and each week we do a chapter or one and a half chapter. We have no goals.*” So, it seems that following the structure of a book replaces an independent curriculum plan. Regarding this problem, P2 thinks that the main reason is lack of instructors and a regular curriculum office. As the university suffers from lack of English instructors, the instructors in the curriculum office also teach a lot and accordingly, they cannot focus on curriculum development.

The next issue in the interviews is the exams. The responses of the participants show that they find the exams useful and to the point. P1 expresses this as follows: “*Regarding assessments the exams aim to test everything covered in the lessons and also we take sub-skills such as skimming, scanning and listening for details into consideration.*” P1 goes on by saying “*The frequency may be a little bit too many as far as I hear from the students. However, I think frequent exams force students to work harder, which is useful.*”. This is a problem mentioned by the other participants as well. There are mid-terms, quizzes and pop-quizzes. The other instructors tend to think that this is a little bit too much but P1, as seen in her quotation, thinks personally that this is useful. The others say the number should be decreased as students are under constant stress due to having exams all the time.

Another point raised in the interviews is homework. The analysis shows that all of the instructors are unhappy with the online homework system. Online system fails due to several issues such as internet connection problems in the university, students’ difficulty in accessing the internet and software problems in the online system of the books. P2 underlines a severe problem saying “*For instance, a student responds correctly but the system says wrong. Why? Just because s/he did not leave space (between words) or s/he forgot a point or a question mark. It evaluates these kinds of issues as errors.*”. The instructors were also asked about the contribution of homework. They think that the homework in the program is in generally helpful. One issue mentioned is that as the hour of teaching is very high in the program, students cannot find enough time to do the homework. P2 explains this problem as “*Weekly*

hours should be less, because students this year have 22-28 hours of teaching and they cannot find time to do the homework.” One final issue about the homework is whether sufficient feedback is given. This is related to the previous issue. The reason is as there is too much homework and as there are a lot of lessons, instructors also do not have enough time to give feedback. However, students prefer to get corrective feedback for their work and they even “feel cheated” when they cannot get feedback from their teachers (Harmandaoğlu Baz, Balçıkanlı & Cephe, 2016, p. 63). The instructors acknowledge that they can give satisfactory feedback only occasionally. To exemplify, P4 says “*Feedback is not given most of the time. For example, I gave them a worksheet and they only know their mark. We provide the answer key. ... We were all in the office and we had to do some duties. The test office or curriculum office thinks whether to give feedback or do the duties in the office... Consequently, feedback is one step behind.*” However, P4 also suggests that feedback works well in only essay writing as it is taught as a process.

Another issue is the physical conditions of the university and the classrooms. The answers demonstrate that the classrooms have some equipment such as projectors and smartboards and they are in general fine. However, the biggest problems are the frequent relocations between campuses and the physical conditions of the campus. P4 summarizes this as follows: “*There was no canteen for a really long time. The students could not buy water or tea.*”.

The final issue discussed in the interviews is students’ performance. The responses demonstrate that the students usually suffered from lack of motivation. Most of the participants agree that this is worse for the students who attend the preparation class optionally (although it is not compulsory). Furthermore, the participants claim that students lose motivation more and more as the classes get harder in the advanced stages. For instance, P2 says “*Towards the middle of the semester, when they start to be unsuccessful in the exams, they start to cause problems when they start to think that they will already fail.*” The participants also agree that it is often the external factors that result in low motivation among participants. As argued above, lack of a proper campus and frequent relocations among campuses decrease students’ motivation profoundly.

At the end of the interviews, the participants were asked if there was anything else, they wanted to add. Two of them added further ideas. P3 shortly suggested that academic English should definitely be included. P1 on the other hand responded longer and made some suggestions. She argued that main course plus four-skills is too demanding. She explains it as follows: “*When we have four skills, the main course and the English for academic purposes, this is too tiring for the students. The program should move with the main course book and only the needed skills should be added.*” She further suggests that “*Too many hours were tiring for the students. More hours may not necessarily contribute to Ss’ learning.*” So, it may be a good idea to focus on quality rather than quantity. This is also true for the number of lessons as discussed above. There are around 22-28 hours of teaching to ensure the students learn English. However, this may counter react and overwhelm the students.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study aims to evaluate the program implemented for the English preparatory classes at Istanbul Medeniyet University, School of Foreign Languages during the 2016-2017 academic year. The results of the analysis conducted with the qualitative and quantitative data can be summarized in the light of the related literature as follows:

The students were reasonably pleased with the English Preparatory Program implemented during the 2016-17 academic year. In the same vein, the instructors also think that the program is overall successful. This finding is consistent with the other studies exploring the curriculum evaluation of different language programs, which have revealed considerable satisfaction with the overall instruction (e.g., Unal et al., 2017; Tekin, 2015; Coşkun, 2013). The study conducted by Demirtaş and Sert (2010) with 1200 learners, for example, reports that most of the learners had no significant complaints about the program, and the English Language Preparatory Education met their needs.

The students found Main Course classes quite efficient, whereas they were not satisfied with Pre-faculty, Terminology, Listening & Speaking, and Reading classes. According to the findings, the 'Writing Course' was the most effective and beneficial in the program. Tekin (2015) and Coşkun (2013) focused on a desire for an improvement in listening and speaking courses, and Öztürk's study (2014) at a state university similarly emphasizes the "speaking" skill as the learners in the study indicated that "speaking skill is the least developed one during the program" (p. 122). Although the participants of our study found the Terminology course overwhelming, Unal et al. (2017) and Lee (2016) highlighted the importance of EAP and ESP courses based on the results they found. Considering the EAP needs of the first-year undergraduate students at a state university in Turkey, Kırkgöz (2006) developed a reading course based on the specialized corpus from academic texts that students are required to read at the first year of their studies. The interviews with the students revealed that a corpus-based reading course helped them to become familiar with essential lexical items of their field. Another very detailed study conducted by Kırkgöz (2009) shows that most students (93.5%) perceived a gap between the requirements of disciplinary courses and what they learned at the Foreign Language Center (p. 88). As a result, the findings of our study are not compatible with Kırkgöz's study in this sense. Based on the results, it can be suggested that to explain the importance of learning the discipline-specific language and providing a suitable environment for the learners to experience EAP during the preparatory language program can help learners internalize it as a part of language learning.

The students were more pleased with the packs and supplementary materials prepared by the Material and Curriculum Development Office compared with the commercial products. This comment is quite understandable since the related office had the opportunity to meet the needs of the local group directly, whereas the commercial products address a larger audience. Additionally, the instructors also accept that the commercial products could be overwhelming for low level learners although they are pleased with using them in their teaching.

Although the students believed that the assignments were beneficial and appropriate for them in general, they found the online assignments insufficient due to the technical issues they had to cope with throughout the academic year. The instructors shared the same issue as well, and they suggest not to integrate online assignments to the program anymore. Ünal et al. (2017) stated that more technology should be integrated into the curriculum, but it is essential

to remember that too many technical problems may frustrate learners and instructors, resulting in negative attitudes.

The students considered the testing and evaluation processes appropriate for their level and coherent with the curriculum and also thought that the evaluation procedures were just. The Testing Office prepared all the tests within the school, considering the implemented program and the characteristics of the target group. Öz and Atay's study with lecturers teaching at the preparatory program (2017) revealed that there is a mismatch between Turkish EFL instructors' in-class assessment literacy and its reflection in practice. Therefore, the assessment process at Istanbul Medeniyet University, School of Foreign Languages, can be regarded as one of the strongest aspects of the implemented program.

Although the students were content with both their effort and the instructors' contribution to the program throughout the year, it is seen that they were more pleased with the instructors than their performance. The female students were significantly more content with the English preparatory program and the Writing Course than the males. Tekin (2015) and Coşkun (2013) revealed that the participants were dissatisfied with the instructors' teaching styles and demanded more communicative activities. However, this study revealed that the students were more critic of themselves than their teachers.

The students who attended the program voluntarily were more content with it than the ones for whom it was a requirement to start their undergraduate program. However, they were less pleased with the Terminology course, which is quite understandable since the course was not offered to them and the medium of instruction would be Turkish in the following years, so they might have considered this course unnecessary. The students from B level classes were more content with the overall program as well as the following components than the ones from A level classes: Main Course, Reading and Terminology courses, Language Leader, Reading Explorer and supplementary materials, online assignments, use of English and listening tests, pair and group work activities, re-grouping students for every period. It is also understandable since A level students found it tougher to cope with the language learning process in many aspects due to their lower language competency.

Harrison (1996) emphasizes the difficulty of curriculum renewal in terms of evaluation based on his external study in the country of Omani in which there was an extensive renewal including the development of books, materials, examination system, orientation programs for all teachers and even development programs for inspectors. This is also the case in Turkey and pre-service English teacher programs have changed considerably due to the changing position of English globally (Köksal & Ulum, 2018). Harrison (1996) suggested in the longitudinal data which were drawn upon four types of the collection that teachers and inspectors can contribute to material development and more importantly classroom interactions must be monitored not only by external visitors but by getting teachers and learners to reflect upon their teaching and learning, in a systematic and structured way. His suggestion of an approach for professional development involving both self and peer observation can also be a logical way for our recent study of program evaluation to provide a vehicle for the formative curriculum evaluation process (Harrison, 1996, p. 302). Since "Communicative Language Teaching" has been the widely used, sometimes, namely used, approach all over the world, the goals and aims of curriculum and language teaching programs have been shifted from more grammar-based

accuracy to fluency. Besides, the latest developments in “approaches and methods in foreign language teaching” umbrella term such as the post-method era, task-based teaching, and few others affect curriculum designers to cover different aspects of language. As discussed by Widdowson (1984) long ago, a learner’s task involves communicative competence in the language, whether the emphasis is on productive or receptive behavior. As a result, the aim of language learning should be to develop the underlying interpreting ability, and an integrated approach should be adopted to achieve this aim. Widdowson continues the discussion by stating that on the contrary to what this aim requires, language teaching courses commonly consist of units which are separate like language practice books and criticizes the language teaching materials. Students and instructors who participated in this study shared similar concerns with Widdowson (1984) in their own words. Thus, we can conclude that preparatory language programs and materials used in language preparatory programs must primarily focus on including language functions and how to help learners to transfer the functions accordingly in their studies.

The following suggestions can be made to improve the English preparatory program following the findings summarized above: First of all, Terminology and Pre-faculty courses should be removed from the program since these courses are perceived as an extra burden, especially for the low level learners. Second, there is no need to have a separate Listening & Speaking course since Main Course is a skills-based class. The sections for these skills within the Main Course can be focused more efficiently. Third, Reading can be integrated with the Writing classes to reduce the boredom and to make it more meaningful for the learners. Fourth, students should be supported by supplementary materials that are designed considering their specific needs. Moreover, commercial coursebooks should be updated or changed to pick the more appropriate ones for the target group. Also, online assignments should be removed from the program since the technical issues do not seem likely to be fixed. In addition to these, students should be motivated to ensure successful learning as it is one of the most significant issues mentioned by the participant teachers. The interview data demonstrate that students lose motivation, especially towards the end of the program. Accordingly, this should be taken into consideration, and via further studies, the reasons for this problem can be unearthed which, then, may be used to increase their motivation. Finally, the program should be revised based on a needs analysis to set clear objectives rather than following a coursebook-based syllabus which is a similar problem revealed by some studies (e.g. Erdem & Atar, 2018) in the context of compulsory English courses at a higher education level.

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Analysis of Graduate Dissertations Examining the Effects of Creative Thinking Practices

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Research Article

Analysis of graduate dissertations examining the effects of creative thinking practices

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Abstract

This study examined the master and doctoral dissertations related to the application of creative thinking skills in the National Council of Higher Education Thesis Center. For this purpose, 18 master and 4 doctoral dissertations published in Turkish since 2007, which were determined as the starting year within the scope of the study, were analyzed. According to the findings of the study, it was determined that the number of related studies increased in 2011 and 2016. Studies have generally focused on the effect of creative thinking skill on some dependent variables and on the perception/beliefs about creative thinking. Creative thinking skills were analyzed mostly in the context of Social Studies, Science and Technology and Life Science courses. It is seen that the studies are often carried out on quantitative and mixed method patterns and medium-sized samples. In the studies, it was determined that the questionnaire-scale, document and interview were frequently used as data collection method. In the studies, content analysis, descriptive analysis, parametric and non-parametric methods were mostly used as data analysis method. When the results of the studies are examined, it can be stated that the applications put into work generally have a positive effect on creative thinking.

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Note(s) from the author(s)

» *Corresponding author

» This paper does not require an ethics approval document considering its methodology (document analysis), and the date of data collection which is before 2020.

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Yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarının etkisinin incelendiği lisansüstü tezlerin analizi

Öz

Bu çalışmada Türkiye’de yaratıcı düşünme becerisine ilişkin bir ders bağlamında yapılan uygulamaları konu edinen ve Yükseköğretim Kurulu Ulusal Tez Merkezinde indekslenen yüksek lisans ve doktora tezleri incelenmiştir. Bu amaçla, çalışma kapsamında başlangıç yılı olarak 2007 yılından itibaren Türkçe olarak yayımlanmış 18 lisansüstü tez ve 4 doktora tezi analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmanın bulgularına göre ilgili araştırmaların 2011 ve 2016 yıllarında artış gösterdiği belirlenmiştir. Çalışmalar genellikle yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin bazı bağımlı değişkenler üzerindeki etkisi ve yaratıcı düşünmeye dair algı/inanç üzerinde yoğunlaşmıştır. Dersler içinde de yaratıcı düşünme becerisi en çok Sosyal Bilgiler, Fen ve Teknoloji ve Hayat Bilgisi bağlamında incelenmiştir. Çalışmaların sıklıkla nicel yöntem ve karma yöntem desenleri ile orta büyüklükte örneklem üzerine gerçekleştirildiği görülmektedir. Çalışmalarda genellikle anket-ölçek, doküman ve görüşmenin veri toplama yöntemi olarak kullanıldığı belirlenmiştir. Çalışmalarda veri analiz yöntemi olarak içerik analizi, betimsel analiz, parametrik ve non-parametrik yöntemler kullanılmıştır. Çalışmaların sonuçları incelendiğinde işe koşulan uygulamaların genellikle yaratıcı düşünme üzerine olumlu etki yaptığı ifade edilmektedir.

Gönderim

25 Mart 2020

Kabul

04 Mayıs 2020

Anahtar kelimeler

düşünme
üst düzey düşünme
yaratıcı düşünme
lisansüstü tez

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Giriş

Günümüzde eğitim, ilerlemenin ve gelişimin en etkili unsurları olarak ifade edilmektedir (Aydın, 2011). Bu sebeple modern eğitim sistemi bilgi çağına uygun olarak araştıran, bilgiye ulaşan, bilgiyi uygun şekilde kullanan ve hatta bilgi üreten bireyler yetiştirmeye yönelik olmalıdır. Bilgi, genel hatlarıyla akıl yürütmek, okumak, yargılamak, düşünmek, gözlem ve deney yapmak yoluyla oluşturulan düşünce ürünü veya öğrenilenler olarak ifade edilmektedir (Balay, 2004). Bireyin çevresi ile olan ilişkisi bilgisiyle bağlantılıdır. Programdaki insan ögesi ise düşünme becerilerinde gelişimin amaçlandığı kişidir.

Program aracılığıyla bireye kazandırılacak becerilerin işlevselliği bilgi biçiminde ifade edilip değerlendirilebilir (Sönmez, 2016). Bilgi akışının çok olduğu günümüzde eğitimde hedef öğrenenlere var olan bilgileri vermekten ziyade bilgiye ulaşma becerisini benimsetmek olmalıdır (Doğru ve Aydoğdu, 2003). Bunun yanında birbiriyle ilgisiz ezberlenmiş bilgi parçalarına sahip bireyler değil, bilgiler arasındaki ilgileri fark eden, bilgileri analiz edip sentezleyen ve problemin çözümüne bunu yansıtıp kullanan üst düzey düşünme becerilerine sahip bireyler yetiştirilmesi çağdaş eğitim sistemlerinin önemli bir hedefidir (Çelik, vd. 2005).

Düşünme ise ayırmak, birleştirmek, karşılaştırmak, unsurları kavramak ve aralarında ilgi kurarak yeni düşünce oluşturma yeteneği; bireyi olumsuz etkileyen unsurların kaldırılması için kasıtlı zihinsel davranış; var olanı anlamak gayesiyle yapılan aktif, hedefe yönelik sistemli zihinsel süreç olarak ifade edilmektedir. (Cüceloğlu, 1994; Öncül, 2000). MEB (2007)'e göre düşünme, sonuca ulaşmak için verileri, kavramları değerlendirmek, kıyaslamak, aralarında ilişki kurarak farklı düşünceler oluşturmaktır. Bu tanıma göre düşünme süreci sonunda özgün bir ürün ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Düşünme, bireyi, yaşamını ve çevresini etkileyen önemli becerilerdendir. Bu sebeple birçok ülke öğrenenlerin üst düzey düşünme becerilerini belirledikleri yeterli bir düzeye ulaştırmayı önemsemektedir (Güneş, 2012). Üst düzey düşünme becerileri, anlamak, sorun çözmek, karar vermek, yansıtıcı, ilişkisel ve eleştirel düşünmek, yaratıcı olmak, çözümlenmek, sentezlemek, değerlendirmek, sorgulamak, açıklama yapmak, doğru kestirim ve çıkarımda bulunmak, öz düzenleme yapmak, sınıflamak gibi becerileri kapsamaktadır (Geertsen, 2011). Üst düzey düşünme becerilerinin öğretiminde ve derse karşı olumlu tutum kazanmada öğrenenlerin süreçte bireysel öğrenmelerinin sorumluluğunu aldığı, öğrenenlere öz düzenleme, karar alabilme imkanının sunulduğu ve karmaşık öğretimsel işlerle öğrenenlerin, zihinsel yeteneklerini kullanmaya zorlandığı aktif öğrenmelerden yararlanılmaktadır (Çelik vd., 2005; Eğmir & Ocak, 2018; Kurnaz, 2013).

Yaratıcılık ve düşünme

Günümüzdeki eğitim yaklaşımı, öğreneni eğitim faaliyetlerinin merkezine almayı ve zihinsel becerilerini üst düzeyde geliştirmeyi hedeflemektedir. Dünyadaki hızlı gelişim, zihinlerin yapısını ve işlevlerini etkilemekte ve zihinlerin karmaşık işlere adapte olması için üst düzeyde geliştirilmesini gerekli kılmaktadır. Üst düzey beceriler içerisinde yaratıcılık özellikle vurgulanmaktadır. Bu vurgu nedeniyle son yıllarda öğrencilerin yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin iyileştirilmesi noktasında ısrarla durulmaktadır (Güneş, 2012). Çağımızda yaratıcılıkla ilgili çokça tanım yapılmıştır. Yaygın anlayışa göre yaratıcılık farklı bir şeydir ve görülebilen çıktılara göre değerlendirilebilecek bir beceridir (Erdoğan, 2006).

Yaratıcılık Batı dilinde “kreativitaet, creativity” olarak ifade edilir. Latince ise “creare” sözcüğünden gelmektedir. Bu kavram, “yaratmak, meydana getirmek” anlamındadır (Yenilmez, 2007). Başka bir ifadeyle yaratıcılık, bir takım klişeleri yıkmak, yenilikçi fikirlere sahip olmak, alışılmış düzenin dışına çıkmak, yeni formüller ortaya koymak, yaşama farklı açılardan bakmak, bilinmeyenlere karşı meraklı olmak, zorla benimsetilmiş düşünce mantığını yok saymak ve yeni bir düşünce açığa çıkarmak, belirli sorunlarla başa çıkmak için alışılmışın dışında farklı çözüm yolları üretmek, başkalarının izlediği yoldan çıkıp başka sonuçları doğuran yeni yollar bulmak, mevcut düşünceler arasında yeni ilişkiler kurmak, yeni bir düşünce öne sürmek, hiç uygulanmamış yeni bir yöntem veya teknik icat etmek ya da herhangi bir icada eklemeler yapabilmektir (Özerbaş, 2011).

Yaratıcı düşünme kavramı yaratıcılık ile ortaya çıkan ve bunun özelliklerini yansıtan düşünme çeşididir. Bu düşünme çeşidinde birleştirip ayrıştırmak, düşünmek, unsurlar arasındaki bağlantıları görmek, düzenlemeleri yapabilmek bulunmaktadır (Kırıçoğlu, 2002). Özben ve Argun’a göre (2002) yaratıcı düşünme problemlere karşı değişik önerilerde bulunan ve yenilik getiren düşünme şeklidir.

Yaratıcı düşünme ve eğitim

Çağımızda eğitim süreçlerinde yaratıcı düşünme önemini oldukça hissettirmiştir. Bireylerin yaratıcı düşünüp bunu uyarlayabilmesi ve kullanması bir seçim değil artık ihtiyaçtır. Hızla devam eden bilimsel büyüme ve teknoloji ile bireylerin bu beceriyi nasıl kullanacağını kavramaları önemli bir ihtiyaç olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Yaratıcı düşünme olgular arasında önceden kurulmamış ilintileri oluşturma, önceden akla gelmeyi düşünme, orijinal fikirler, çıktılar meydana getirme ve düşünme becerisidir (Özözer, 2008).

Yaratıcı düşünme becerisi bireylere ve olaylara değişik yönden bakabilme ve kimsenin göremediğini görme, bilginin bilgisine ulaşma imkânı sağlar. Yaratıcı düşünmenin eğitim kademesinde kullanılması bilgilerin kalıp olarak öğrenilmesini ve onunla idare edilmesini engellemektedir. Buna karşın yaratıcı düşünmenin ham maddesi olan bilginin farklı sahalarda değerlendirilmesine imkân verir. Bireylerin gereksinimlerine, problemlerine duyarlı ve çözüm önerileri üretebilen vatandaş yetiştirmek eğitimin hedeflerindedir. Bu sebeple eğitim alanlarında, bilgili olduğu kadar yaratıcı düşünebilme yeteneği gelişmiş bireyler yetiştirmek amaçtır (Çelik, 2015).

Yaratıcı düşünme sürecinin aşamaları mantık ve akıl çerçevesinde ele alınarak bilimsel yaklaşım ile birlikte ele alınmaktadır. Yaratıcı düşünme bağlamında dikkat edilmesi gereken nihai nokta sonuç çıkarmak veya ürün oluşturmak olmamalı bunların yanında bu beceriyi hayatın her kısmında uygulamak da sürecin merkezine alınmalıdır (Koray, 2003). Yaratıcı düşünme süreci altı basamaktan oluşmaktadır (Harris, 1960; akt. Aydın, 2011):

1. İhtiyaçların belirlenmesi (Konu ve problem tespiti)
2. Konu ile ilgili bilgi toplanması
3. Bilgiyi işleyen düşünme etkinliği yapılması
4. Konu ile ilgili çözümlerin ele alınması
5. Çözümlerin doğruluğunun tespit edilmesi
6. Eldeki veriler eşliğinde uygulamaya geçilmesi

Yaratıcı düşünmenin gelişmesi, bireyin bazı tutum ve becerilere sahip olmasına bağlıdır. Yıldırım'a (1998) göre, yaratıcı düşünmenin gelişmesi için gerekli tutumlar şu şekilde özetlenmektedir:

- Farklı olmayı kabul etme,
- Daha çok düşünerek karar verme,
- Akıl yürütmede hızlı olma,
- Konuya daha çabuk odaklaşma,
- Özgüvene sahip olma,
- Yapıcı ve destekleyici olma,
- Olumlu benlik algısına sahip olma,
- Esnek düşünme,
- Hayal kurma.

Yaratıcı düşünen bireyler bu özelliklerden birkaçına sahiptirler ve bu yönleriyle diğer bireylerden ayrılmaktadırlar. Yaratıcı düşünen bireylerin sahip olduğu özellikler incelendiğinde hem bilişsel hem de duyuşsal yapıya sahip becerileri içerdiği görülmektedir. Bununla birlikte yaratıcı düşünmenin akıl yürütme, eleştirel düşünme, yansıtıcı düşünme, metabiliş gibi düşünme becerileri ile ilişkili olduğu da ifade edilebilir. Bu yönüyle yaratıcı düşünme birçok alt beceriyi içeren bütünleşik bir beceri olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Araştırmanın amacı

Bu bilgiler ışığında bu çalışmada amaç, Türkiye'de yayımlanmış yaratıcı düşünmenin bir dersin bağlamında kullanılmasına dönük etkiyi araştıran lisansüstü tezleri birtakım değişkenler ışığında incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda çalışmada, YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezinde indekslenen yüksek lisans ve doktora tezleri, tür, yıl, konu, kademe, yöntem, desen, örneklem türü, örneklem büyüklüğü, veri toplama aracı, veri analiz yöntemi ve çalışmanın sonucu değişkenleri açısından sistematik bir şekilde incelenerek metodolojik ve tematik eğilimler belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Araştırmanın önemi

Yaratıcılığın eğitimde hangi disiplinde olursa olsun öğretim programının içine yerleştirilebilmesi için sınıf ortamında yaratıcılığın terminolojik yapısına açıklık getirilmelidir. İngiltere'de bir hükümet raporu olan, All Our Futures adlı rapor, okullarda yaratıcılığı olumlu bir bakış açısıyla desteklemekte ve günlük olarak kullanılan bazı terimlerin anlaşılmasına yardımcı olmaktadır (NACCE, 1999). Yaratıcılıkla ilgili öğretim ve öğrenme bağlamı içerisinde tartışırken sınıf ortamında yaratıcı öğretim, yaratıcılık için öğretim ve yaratıcı öğrenme kavramları açıkça anlaşılmalı ve sınıf ortamında hayata geçirilmelidir (Avcu, 2014). Eğitim alanında üzerinde sıklıkla durulan ve literatürde birçok ilgili çalışma bulunan yaratıcı düşünme konusu öğrencilerin hayatlarında karşılaştıkları problemleri daha kolay çözmelerinden, ihtiyaçlarına çözüm üretebilmelerine kadar birçok alanda gereklidir.

Yaratıcı düşünmenin eğitimdeki önemi göz önüne alındığında, bu çalışmada Türkiye'de derslerde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin yapılan tezlerin analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu araştırma, yaratıcı düşünme becerisine ilişkin tez çalışmalarını derleyerek, bu bağlamdaki

boşluğu gidermeyi amaçlamaktadır. Derslere ilişkin yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin analizi ile yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin bağlamı hakkında bir bakış geliştirilmesi çalışmanın hedeflerindedir. Yapılan bu çalışma ile dersler bağlamında yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarının etkisi bütüncül bir şekilde gözler önüne serilecek ve program ve öğretime dair teorik ve pratik çalışmalara birtakım katkı ve öneriler sunulacaktır.

Yöntem

Yapılan bu çalışma nitel bir meta-sentez çalışmasıdır. Meta-sentez, çalışmaların sonuçlarını resmetmek için kullanılan sistematik bir karşılaştırma, sonuçların birleştirilmesi ile oluşturulan kuramlar, üst anlatılar, genellemeler ve yorumlayıcı dönüşümlerdir (Polat & Ay, 2016). Meta-sentez çalışmalarında amaç aynı konu üzerinde yapılan çalışmaların tema ve alt temalar oluşturularak yorumlanması ve sentezlenmesidir (Çalık & Sözbilir, 2014). Araştırmada veriler, nitel araştırma ilkeleri doğrultusunda doküman incelemesi yöntemi ile toplanmıştır. Günlük, özel mektuplar, anılar, kişisel belge ve dokümanların yanında yazılı basın, dergi ve kitaplar da doküman analizine konu olabilirler (Bailey, 1982; akt. Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). Burada da incelenen tezler birer dokümanı oluşturmaktadır. Doküman incelemesi verilerin araştırılması hedeflenen olgu veya olgular hakkında bilgi içeren yazılı materyallerden araştırma amacına uygun biçimde toplanmasını kapsamaktadır (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018).

Araştırmanın kapsamı, verilerin toplanması ve analizi

Bu araştırmada 10 Aralık 2019 tarihi baz alınarak YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezinden PDF uzantılı olarak erişilebilir 22 adet tez üzerinde çalışılmıştır. Çalışmada, amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden ölçüt örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Ölçüt örneklemede, gözlem birimleri belli niteliklere sahip kişi, nesne, olay ya da durumlardan oluşabilir (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz ve Demirel, 2012).

Bu araştırmada örneklem oluşturulurken şu ölçütler dikkate alınmıştır;

- Çalışmalar “yaratıcı düşünme”, “yaratıcı” anahtar kelimeleri ile sınırlandırılmıştır.
- Ayrıca arama yapıldıktan sonra filtreleme kısmına ‘dersi’ ifadesi eklenerek araştırma daraltılmıştır.
- Araştırmanın örnekleme dâhil edilen çalışmaların dili Türkçe seçilmiştir.

Çalışma kapsamındaki veriler doküman incelemesi yoluyla toplanmıştır. Veri analizi olarak içerik analizi kullanılmıştır. İçerik analizinde kişi araştırmasına uygun olarak araştırma sonunda alt tema, tema ve kodlar oluşturur (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2018). Çalışmada ortaya çıkan her kategori için frekans ve yüzdeler hesaplanmıştır. Çalışmanın türü, yapıldığı yıl, konu alanı, yöntemi, deseni, örneklem türü, örneklem büyüklüğü, veri toplama aracı, veri analiz yöntemi, çalışmanın yapıldığı kademe ve elde edilen sonuçlar olmak üzere 11 kategoriden oluşmuştur. Çalışma yürütülürken analizi yapılan toplam 22 adet çalışma incelenerek çalışmada odaklanılan her bir değişken için “alt temalar” oluşturulmuştur. Bunun ardından her çalışma tekrar incelenerek kodlamalar yapılmıştır.

Bulgular

Bu kısımda araştırma sürecinde belirlenen temalara göre incelenen 22 tez çalışmasına ilişkin edilen veriler frekans ve yüzde değerlerine göre sunulmuştur.

Araştırmada ilk olarak eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye’de yapılmış tez çalışmalarının türlerine göre dağılımı Tablo 1’de gösterilmektedir.

Tablo 1. Çalışmanın tür temasına göre dağılımı

| Yayın Türü | f |
|--------------------|-----------|
| Yüksek Lisans Tezi | 18 |
| Doktora Tezi | 4 |
| Toplam | 22 |

Tablo 1’deki veriler incelendiğinde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye’de yapılmış tez çalışmalarının daha çok yüksek lisans türünde olduğu ifade edilebilir. Elde edilen verilere göre çalışmaların 4 tanesinin doktora tezi 18 tanesinin ise yüksek lisans tezi olduğu görülmektedir.

Araştırmada ikinci olarak tez çalışmalarının yapıldığı yıl temasına göre dağılımı Tablo 2’de gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 2. Çalışmaların yıl temasına göre dağılımı

| Yayın Yılı | f |
|---------------|-----------|
| 2007 | 1 |
| 2008 | 1 |
| 2009 | 1 |
| 2010 | 2 |
| 2011 | 3 |
| 2012 | 1 |
| 2013 | 1 |
| 2014 | 2 |
| 2015 | 2 |
| 2016 | 3 |
| 2017 | 2 |
| 2018 | 2 |
| 2019 | 1 |
| Toplam | 22 |

Tablo 2’deki veriler incelendiğinde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye’de yapılmış tez çalışmalarının 2007’de başladığı görülmektedir. Bu yıldan itibaren 2019 yılına kadar neredeyse her sene bu konu üzerine çalışma gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bunun yanında özellikle 2011 ve 2016 yıllarında tez yayınlarının sayısında artış gözlemlenmektedir. Günümüze doğru yaklaşıldığında dersler bazında yaratıcı düşünme çalışmalarında durağanlık vardır.

Araştırmada üçüncü olarak tez çalışmalarının yapıldığı kademe temasına göre dağılımı Tablo 3'te gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 3. Çalışmanın kademe temasına göre dağılımı

| Çalışmanın Yapıldığı Kademe | f |
|------------------------------------|-----------|
| İlkokul | 8 |
| Ortaokul | 12 |
| Lise | 2 |
| Toplam | 22 |

Tablo 3'teki veriler incelendiğinde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış tez çalışmalarının daha çok ilkokul ve ortaokul kademesinde yoğunlaştığı görülmektedir. Ayrıca yapılan çalışmaların tümüne bakıldığında ortaokul kademesindeki çalışmaların daha fazla olduğu görülmektedir.

Araştırmada dördüncü olarak tez çalışmalarının yapıldığı ders temasına göre dağılımı Tablo 4'te gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 4. Çalışmanın yapıldığı ders temasına göre dağılımı

| Çalışmanın Yapıldığı Ders | f |
|----------------------------------|-----------|
| Sosyal Bilgiler | 7 |
| Fen ve Teknoloji | 5 |
| Hayat Bilgisi | 4 |
| Matematik | 2 |
| Türkçe | 1 |
| Coğrafya | 1 |
| Görsel Sanatlar | 1 |
| Düşünme Eğitimi | 1 |
| Toplam | 22 |

Tablo 3'teki veriler incelendiğinde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış çalışmaların Hayat Bilgisi, Sosyal Bilgiler, Fen ve Teknoloji, Matematik, Türkçe, Coğrafya, Görsel sanatlar ve Düşünme Eğitimi derslerinde yapıldığı görülmektedir. Dersler içinde de yaratıcı düşünme becerisi en çok Sosyal Bilgiler, Fen ve Teknoloji ve Hayat Bilgisi bağlamında incelenmiştir.

Araştırmada beşinci olarak tez çalışmalarının yöntemlerine göre dağılımı Tablo 5'te verilmiştir.

Tablo 5. Çalışmaların yöntem temasına göre dağılımı

| Araştırma Yöntemi | f |
|--------------------------|----------|
| Nicel | 13 |
| Karma | 7 |
| Nitel | 2 |

Toplam**22**

Tablo 5'teki veriler incelendiğinde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış tez çalışmalarının çoğunlukla nicel ve karma yöntemlerle yürütüldüğü görülmektedir.

Araştırmada altıncı olarak tez çalışmalarının desenlerine göre dağılımı Tablo 6'da verilmiştir.

Tablo 6. Çalışmaların desen temasına göre dağılımı

| Araştırma yöntemi | Araştırma deseni | Alt başlık | f |
|-------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-----------|
| Nicel | deneysel | yarı deneysel | 7 |
| | | gerçek deneysel | 2 |
| | deneysel olmayan | kesitsel | 2 |
| | | tarama | 2 |
| | | Toplam | 13 |
| Nitel | | doküman analizi | 1 |
| | | eylem araştırması | 1 |
| | | Toplam | 2 |
| Karma | | iç içe karma desen | 2 |
| | | açıklayıcı | 2 |
| | | eş zamanlı gömülü desen | 2 |
| | | keşfedici | 1 |
| | | Toplam | 7 |

Tablo 6'daki veriler incelendiğinde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış tez çalışmalarının çoğunlukla yarı deneysel yöntemle gerçekleştirildiği görülmektedir. Bunu nicel araştırma desenlerinden gerçek deneysel, kesitsel ve tarama yöntemi ile karma araştırma desenlerinden iç içe karma desen, açıklayıcı karma desen ve eş zamanlı gömülü desenle yapılan çalışmaların takip ettiği görülmektedir.

Araştırmada yedinci olarak tez çalışmalarının örneklem türüne göre dağılımı Tablo 7'de verilmiştir. Çalışmada eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış tez çalışmalarında örneklem çoğunlukla ilkökul öğrencilerinden seçilmiştir. Ancak çalışma sınıf seviyesi açısından farklılaşmaktadır. Sadece öğrencilerle çalışma yapılmadığı uygulayıcı olan öğretmenlerle de yapılan çalışmalar bulunmaktadır.

Tablo 7. Çalışmaların örneklem türü temasına göre dağılımı

| | Örneklem türü | f | Sınıf seviyesi | f |
|------------|----------------------|----|----------------|---|
| Öğrenciler | ilkökul öğrencileri | 3 | 3.sınıf | 1 |
| | | | 4.sınıf | 2 |
| | | | 5.sınıf | 2 |
| | ortaokul öğrencileri | 10 | 6.sınıf | 4 |
| | | | 7.sınıf | 3 |

| | | | | |
|----------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------|
| | | | 8.sınıf | 1 |
| Öğretmenler | ilkokul öğretmeni | 4 | 1., 2., 3. sınıf | 3 |
| | | | 4.sınıf | 1 |
| | ortaokul öğretmeni | 3 | 5.sınıf | 3 |
| | | | 6., 7., 8. sınıf | 1 |
| lise öğretmeni | 1 | 9.,10.,11.,12.sınıf | 1 | |
| Doküman | kitap ve program | 2 | 4. ve 5. sınıf | 1 |
| | | | 1924...2007 programları | 1 |
| Toplam | | 23 | | 24 |

Tablo 7 incelendiğinde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye’de yapılmış tez çalışmalarında en çok ortaokul kademesinde çalışıldığı görülmektedir. Bunu ilkokul kademesi izlemektedir. Elde edilen verilere göre sınıfa ilişkin dağılımda nerede ise tüm sınıflar üzerinde en az bir çalışma yapıldığı görülmektedir. Ayrıca öğretmenlerle yapılan çalışmalarda ilkokul düzeyinde daha fazla tez çalışmasının olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Tablo 7 incelendiğinde tez çalışmalarının örneklem değişkenine göre dengeli dağılmadığı ifade edilebilir. Örneklem seçiminde öğrenci ve öğretmen grupları farklı oranlarda seçilmiştir.

Araştırmada sekizinci olarak çalışmaların örneklem büyüklüğüne göre dağılımı Tablo 8’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 8. Çalışmaların örneklem büyüklüğü temasına göre dağılımı

| | |
|---------------------------|-----------|
| Örneklem büyüklüğü | f |
| 1-30 | 1 |
| 31-60 | 12 |
| 61-90 | 4 |
| 91 ve üzeri | 5 |
| Toplam | 22 |

Tablo 8’deki veriler incelendiğinde araştırma kapsamında incelenen çalışmaların çoğunlukla küçük örneklem üzerinde gerçekleştirildiği görülmektedir. Ancak orta düzeyde örneklem sayıları ile yapılan çalışmaların oranı da bunu takip etmektedir. Bu bulgunun çalışmaların çoğunun deneysel ve karma araştırma olarak yapıldığı bulguları ile uyumlu olduğu ifade edilebilir. Çalışmalarda eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye’de yapılmış çalışmaların genellikle yapılan çalışma türüyle bağlantılı olarak küçük ve orta düzeyde gruplara dengeli olarak dağılmadığı söylenebilir.

Araştırmada dokuzuncu olarak tez çalışmalarının veri toplama araçlarına göre dağılımı Tablo 9’da verilmiştir.

Tablo 9. Çalışmaların veri toplama aracı temasına göre dağılımı

| | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------|----------|
| Veri toplama aracı | Alt kategori | f |
| Anket/ölçek | Likert | 24 |
| | yarı yapılandırılmış | 8 |

| | | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|-----------|
| Görüşme | yapılandırılmış | 1 |
| | Toplam | 9 |
| Gözlem | yarı yapılandırılmış | 1 |
| | yapılandırılmış | 1 |
| | Toplam | 2 |
| Başarı/beceri testi | Torrance yaratıcı düşünme testi | 10 |
| | çoktan seçmeli | 8 |
| | Toplam | 18 |
| Doküman | program | 1 |
| | kitap | 1 |
| | belge | 1 |
| | günlük | 1 |
| | Toplam | 4 |
| Mülakat | yarı yapılandırılmış | 2 |

Tablo 9'daki veriler incelendiğinde çalışmalarda ölçek/anketin ve başarı/beceri testleri veri toplama araçları içinde en çok kullanılanlarıdır. Bunlarda ise likert tipinde ve çoktan seçmeli test daha fazla tercih edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte görüşme, gözlem, doküman, araştırmacı günlüğü ve mülakatta araştırmalarda veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmada onuncu olarak tez çalışmalarının veri analiz yöntemine göre dağılımı Tablo 10'da verilmiştir.

Tablo 10. Çalışmaların veri analiz yöntemi temasına göre dağılımı

| Veri analiz yöntemi | Alt kategori | f |
|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------|
| Betimsel | frekans/yüzde | 6 |
| | ortalama/standart sapma | 5 |
| | Toplam | 11 |
| Kestirimsel | t-testi | 10 |
| | non-parametrik testler | 9 |
| | ANOVA/ANCOVA | 5 |
| | ki-kare | 2 |
| | MANOVA/MANCOVA | 2 |
| | Toplam | 28 |
| Nitel | içerik analizi | 5 |
| | betimsel analiz | 3 |
| | Toplam | 8 |

Tablo 10'daki veriler incelendiğinde çalışmalarda sıklıkla nicel veri analiz yöntemleri kullanıldığı belirlenmiştir. Nicel analiz yöntemlerinden t-testi, ANOVA, MANOVA, Ki-Kare ve Non-Parametrik testler tercih edilmiştir. Betimsel analiz yöntemlerinden frekans/yüzde ve ortalama/standart sapma kullanılmıştır. Nitel analiz yöntemlerinden ise içerik analizi ve betimsel analiz yöntemleri kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmada on birinci olarak çalışmaların konusuna göre dağılımı Tablo 11'de verilmiştir.

Tablo 11. Çalışmaların konularına göre dağılımı

| Yayın konusu | Alt başlık | f |
|---|-----------------------------------|---|
| Bir program/uygulama/yöntemin yaratıcı düşünmeye etkisi | proje tabanlı öğretim(2) | 6 |
| | materyalle öğretim(1) | |
| | aktif temelli öğretim(1) | |
| | problem tabanlı öğretim(1) | |
| | eleştirel düşünme(1) | |
| Toplam | | |
| Yaratıcı düşünmenin değerlendirilmesi | etkinlikler açısından | 6 |
| Yaratıcı düşünme ve uygulamalarına dair algı/inanç | öğretmen görüşleri | 5 |
| Yaratıcı düşünmenin bağımsız değişken olduğu çalışmalar | akademik başarı üzerindeki etkisi | 4 |
| Yaratıcı düşünmenin kullanım sıklığı | öğretmen tarafından | 1 |

Tablo 11'deki veriler incelendiğinde ülkemizde eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış tez çalışmalarının genellikle bir program, uygulama veya yöntemin yansıtıcı düşünmeye etkisi ve yaratıcı düşünme ve uygulamalarına dair algı/inanç konusunda yapıldığı görülmektedir. Bir program/uygulama/yöntemin yaratıcı düşünmeye etkisi konusunda etkisi en çok araştırılan uygulama proje tabanlı öğretim olmuştur. Bunu takiben yaratıcı düşünme ve uygulamalarına dair algı/inanç sıklıkla incelenen bir konu olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Burada ise sıklıkla yaratıcı düşünme hakkındaki öğretmen görüşleri incelenmiştir.

Eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış çalışmalara bakıldığında yaratıcı düşünmenin öğrenci etkinlikleri yoluyla değerlendirilmesini konu edinen çalışmalara da rastlanmaktadır. Yaratıcı düşünmenin bağımsız değişken olduğu çalışmada ise bağımlı değişken olarak akademik başarı seçilmiştir.

Tartışma ve Yorum

Bu çalışmada eğitimde yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış tez çalışmaları belirlenen değişkenler ışığında analiz edilmiştir. Yaratıcı düşünme, yeniliği araştırmaya, problemlere çözüm bulmaya ve orijinal fikirleri oluşturmaya imkân sağlayan bir düşüncedir (Yenilmez ve Yolcu, 2007). Türkiye'de bireyleri yetiştiren okullar gerçekleştirdikleri disiplin öğretiminin yanı sıra öğrencilere birçok düşünme becerisi ile birlikte özellikle yaratıcı düşünme becerisini de kazandırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Böylece bireylerin eğitimde ve günlük hayatta karşılaştıkları durumlarda ilgili durumun farklı yönlerini görebilme ve daha önce denenmemiş özgün çözüm yolları bulma yetilerini geliştirmeleri beklenmektedir (Çelik, 2015).

Bu çalışmada da yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış tezler bir takım değişkenlere göre incelenmiştir. Çalışma kapsamında Türkçe olarak yayımlanmış 4'ü doktora tezi, 18'i ise yüksek lisans tezi olmak üzere toplam 22 çalışma incelenmiştir. Öncelikli

olarak becerinin modern eğitim sistemleri açısından önemi de göz önüne alındığında bu becerinin öğretimdeki etkisine dönük yapılan çalışmaların sayısının artması gerektiği ifade edilebilir. İncelenen çalışmalara bakıldığında ilk çalışma 2007 yılında gerçekleştirilmiş ve çalışmalar 2019 yılına kadar devam etmiştir. 2011 ve 2016 yıllarında yaratıcı düşünmenin bir ders bağlamındaki etkisinin incelendiği araştırmalar artış göstermiştir.

Bununla birlikte 2007-2019 yılları arasında her yıl en az bir tez çalışmasının yapılmış olması bu yıllar arasında yaratıcı düşünmenin etkisine dönük ilginin devam ettiğini göstermektedir. Literatür incelendiğinde yaratıcı düşünme ile ilgili farklı türlere sahip çok daha fazla çalışma olduğu görülmektedir. Bu çalışmada hem sadece tez çalışmalarının dikkate alınması hem de yaratıcı düşünmenin bir ders bağlamındaki etkisinin belirlenmesine dönük incelemenin amaçlanması çalışmanın kapsamını daraltıcı bir etki yapmıştır.

Yapılan çalışmalar genellikle ortaokul ve ilkokul kademesi ile sınırlı tutulmuş ve bu kademedeki öğretmen ve öğrenciler çalışılan grubu oluşturmuştur. Çalışmalar genellikle deneysel çalışmalara da uygun düşen 31-60 kişi aralığında örneklemelerden oluşmaktadır. Alanyazında yapılan birtakım çalışmalarda da aynı durumla karşılaşılmaktadır (Varışoğlu, Şahin ve Göktaş, 2013). Araştırmada elde edilen verilere göre çalışmaların nicel çalışma desenlerine uygun örneklemeler üzerinde ve örneklem sayıları ile yapıldığı görülmektedir. Bu durum örneklemeler üzerinden elde edilen sonuçların genellenebilir bir yapıya sahip olmasının istenmesiyle ilişkilendirilebilir. Göktaş vd. (2012) tarafından yapılan araştırmada 31-100 kişi arasında değişen örneklem grupları ile 101-300 kişi arasında değişen örneklem gruplarının daha çok tercih edildiği, buna karşın 1000'den fazla kişiden oluşan örneklemelerin çok az tercih edildiği belirlenmiştir. Yayınların örneklem düzeyleri incelendiğinde ise ilköğretim birinci ve ikinci kademedeki öğrencilerden yararlanılmıştır. Bu sonuçlar yaratıcı düşünme uygulamalarına ilişkin Türkiye'de yapılmış çalışmaların analizi ile paraleldir.

Araştırma kapsamındaki çalışmaların, yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin hangi ders bağlamındaki etkisine ilişkin yapıldığı incelendiğinde, çalışmaların yapıldığı kademe ile paralel olarak genellikle ilkokul ve ortaokul kademelerindeki derslerin yoğunlukta olduğu görülmektedir. Dersler içinde de yaratıcı düşünme becerisi en çok Sosyal Bilgiler, Fen ve Teknoloji ve Hayat Bilgisi bağlamında incelenmiştir. Belirtilen derslerin özellikle yaşama yakın problemleri barındıran dersler olması da bu durumu ortaya çıkaran etmenlerden biri olabilir. Zira problem çözme süreçlerinde daha iyi gözlemlenebilen yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin bu tarz problemleri yoğun olarak içeren dersler bağlamında çalışılması uygun bir yaklaşımdır.

Araştırmada analiz edilen çalışmalar yöntemlerine göre incelendiğinde genellikle nicel çalışmalar olduğu ancak bunun yanında karma ve nitel çalışmaların da yapıldığı ifade edilebilir. Nicel çalışmaların sıklıkla deneysel çalışma deseninde yapılması da çalışmaların bulguları arasındadır. Bu çalışmada yaratıcı düşünmenin bir ders bağlamında uygulanmasına dair etkiler araştırıldığı için deneysel çalışmaların en sık tercih edilen araştırma yöntemi olması beklenen bir durumdur. Karma çalışmalarda ise açıklayıcı, iç içe karma desen ve eş zamanlı gömülü desenlerin öne çıktığı görülmektedir. Yaratıcı düşünme becerisi hakkında yapılan çalışmalarda nicel desenin sıklıkla kullanıldığına ilişkin çalışmalar alanyazında bulunmaktadır (Gök ve Erdoğan, 2011; Koray, 2004; Köse, Çelik Ercoşkun ve Balcı, 2016; Öztürk, 2010; Sönmez, 2016; Şensoy ve Yıldırım, 2017; Ülger, 2014). Düşünme becerilerine dair çalışmalarda karma

araştırma desenlerine de rastlanmasına karşın nitel araştırma desenleri daha az tercih edilmektedir (Göktaş vd., 2012; Karadağ, 2009).

Çalışmada incelenen araştırmalarda, veri toplama aracı olarak dokümanlar, ölçek-anket, gözlem, görüşme, başarı testi ve alternatif değerlendirme yöntemlerinin kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Doküman olarak genellikle kitap ve belge kullanıldığı belirlenmiştir. Ölçek/anket kategorisinde açık uçlu ve likert ölçeklerin kullanılmış olduğu ifade edilebilir. Likert ölçekler yaratıcı düşünmenin bağımsız değişken olarak araştırılmaya dâhil edildiği ve bir program/uygulama/yöntemin yaratıcı düşünmeye etkisi veya yaratıcı düşünmeye dair algı ve tutumların ortaya çıkarılması için yapılan çalışmalarda sıklıkla kullanılmıştır.

Açık uçlu anketler ise genellikle yaratıcı düşünme üzerine odaklanılan sürecin ayrıntılarını, aşamalarını, bu aşamalara ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerini ve materyallerin kapsam ve etkililik düzeyini ortaya koymak için kullanılmıştır. Bunun yanında gözlem ve görüşmeler de süreçte kullanılan veri toplama araçları olarak belirtilebilir. Arık ve Türkmen (2009) eğitim bilimleri alanında bilimsel dergilerde yayınlanan makalelerde genellikle derecelendirme ölçekleri kullanıldığını ifade etmiş ve hem nitel hem nicel araştırmalarda aynı sayıda ölçek kullanılmasına rağmen nitel araştırmalarda daha fazla veri elde edildiğini de belirtmişlerdir. Bu sonuçlar yapılan bu çalışma ile paralellik göstermektedir.

Araştırmalarda veri analiz yöntemleri, araştırma desenlerine paralel biçimde sıklıkla nicel veri analizi yöntemlerinden seçilmiştir. Nitel veriler için de içerik analizi ve betimsel analiz yapılması tercih edilmiştir. Kestirimsel veri analiz yöntemlerinden t testi ve ANOVA sıklıkla kullanılmıştır. Normal dağılım göstermeyen gruplar için ise non-parametrik testler kullanılmıştır. Betimsel olarak ise frekans, yüzde, ortalama ve standart sapmaya dönük belirlemeler araştırmalarda görülmektedir. Erdem (2011)'in çalışmasında incelenen makalelerde veri çözümleme tekniği olarak çoğunlukla betimsel analizlerin, t-testi ve ANOVA'nın kullanılması (%82) bu sonuçlarla tutarlıdır.

Çalışma kapsamında incelenen temalardan biri çalışmaların konuları olmuştur. Buna göre, yapılan çalışmaların genellikle bir program/uygulama/yöntemin yaratıcı düşünmeye etkisine ilişkin olduğu görülmektedir. Bu bağlamda ise proje tabanlı öğretim, materyalle öğretim, aktif temelli öğretim ve problem tabanlı öğretim uygulamalarının yaratıcı düşünmeye etkisinin incelenen konular arasındadır. Bunun yanında yaratıcı düşünme ve uygulamalarına dair algı/inanç öğretmen görüşlerine yer verilerek incelenmiştir. Yaratıcı düşünmenin kullanım sıklığı yine veri kaynağı olarak seçilen öğretmenlerle ilişkilendirilerek araştırılmıştır. Yaratıcı düşünmenin bağımsız değişken olduğu çalışmalarda ise bu becerinin akademik başarıya etkisi yoğun biçimde incelenmiştir.

Son olarak alanyazında yaratıcı düşünmenin etkinlikler açısından değerlendirilmesine odaklanan çalışmalara da rastlanmaktadır. Buradan hareketle yaratıcı düşünmenin kişisel ve öğretimsel olarak birçok değişkenle ilişkilendirilebilen bir beceri olduğu ifade edilebilir. Kuyubaşoğlu (2009) yaptığı çalışmada ilköğretim sosyal bilgiler dersinde yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin kazandırılmasına dair öğretmen ve öğrenci görüşleri üzerine bir çalışma yürütmüştür. Uğraş (2011) ise öğrencilerin hayat bilgisi dersinde eleştirel ve yaratıcı düşünme becerilerini kazanma düzeylerine ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerini incelenmiştir.

Yapılan araştırmalarda, bir program/uygulama/yöntemin yaratıcı düşünmeye etkisi, yaratıcı düşünmenin değerlendirilmesi, yaratıcı düşünme ve uygulamalarına dair algı/inanç,

yaratıcı düşünmenin bağımsız değişken olduğu çalışmalar, yaratıcı düşünmenin kullanım sıklığı ile ilgili çalışmalar ortaya koyulmuştur (Abu, 2017; Aydın, 2011; Çeliker, 2012; Doğan, 2011; Işık, 2007; Kutanoğlu, 2014; Kuyubaşoğlu, 2009; Öztürk, 2010; Palandökenlier, 2008; Sayan, 2010; Uğraş, 2011; Yasavur, 2013). Bireylerin becerilerini en iyi şekilde ortaya koyabilecek unsurlara sahip olması gerekliliği literatürdeki çalışmalarda ifade edilmektedir (Koray, 2003; Seferoğlu ve Akbıyık, 2006; Sönmez, 2016; Şahiner ve Kert, 2016; Tok ve Sevinç, 2012; Yüksel, 2019).

Bu sonuçlar ışığında yaratıcı düşünme becerisi için işlevsel materyaller seviyelerine uygun olarak öğrencilere sağlanmalı ve öğrencilerin bireysel farklılıkları programda dikkate alınmalıdır. Ayrıca incelenen çalışmalar dikkate alındığında yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin kullanılmasının çok önemli olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Bu becerinin her bireyde gelişim göstermesi bireylerin eğitim öğretim hayatında hatta gündelik yaşantısında işine yarayacaktır. Öğrencilerdeki yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin geliştirilmesi için çağdaş yöntem ve tekniklerin ve alternatif ölçme yaklaşımlarının öğretim sürecinde işe koşulması gerekmektedir.

Öneriler

Çalışmadan elde edilen veriler ve sonuçlardan hareketle birtakım öneriler geliştirilmiştir. Bu öneriler şu şekilde sıralanabilir:

1. Yaratıcılığı geliştirmek, 1739 sayılı Türk Milli Eğitim Temel Kanunu'nda belirtilen amaçlardan biridir. Dolayısıyla, sadece birkaç ders ile sınırlı kalmayıp, başka derslerde de yaratıcılığı geliştirmeye yönelik çalışmaların yapılması önerilebilir. Günümüzde bilişim teknolojilerinin yaygınlığı göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, bu etkinlikler gerçekleştirilirken bilişim teknolojilerinden de destek alınabilir.

2. Öğretmenler ve öğrenciler üzerinde yapılan yaratıcılık becerisini ölçme ve geliştirme araştırmaları okulun diğer bir paydaşı olan ailelere de uygulanabilir.

3. Yaratıcılık becerileri gelişiminin, Türkiye'deki uygulamaları ile yurt dışındaki uygulamalarını kıyaslayan karşılaştırmalı eğitim çalışmalarına yer verilebilir.

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Extended abstract

Purpose of the study

Thinking is one of the important skills that affect the individual, his/her life and environment. For this reason, many countries care to raise the high level thinking skills of learners to a sufficient level that they determine (Güneş, 2012). High-level thinking skills include skills such as understanding, solving problems, making decisions, reflective, relational and critical thinking, being creative, analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating, questioning, explaining, making correct predictions and inferences, self-regulation, classification (Geertsen, 2011). The concept of creative thinking is a type of thinking that occurs with creativity and reflects its characteristics. This type of thinking includes combining and decomposing, thinking, seeing the connections between the elements, and making arrangements (Kırıçoğlu, 2002). According to Özben and Argun (2002), creative thinking is a way of thinking that offers different suggestions and innovates against problems.

In our age, creative thinking has felt its importance in educational processes. With rapidly growing scientific growth and technology, individuals' understanding of how to use this skill is considered as an important need. Creative thinking ability provides an opportunity to view individuals and events from different perspectives and to see what nobody can see, to reach the knowledge of information. The use of creative thinking at the educational level prevents the information to be learned and managed with it.

In this study, master and doctoral dissertations which deal with applications of creative thinking skill in the context of a course were investigated. All of these theses are indexed in National Council of Higher education Thesis Center. For this purpose, eighteen postgraduate and four doctoral theses which were published in Turkish were analyzed. The studies were systematically examined in terms of type, year, subject, stage of sample, method, pattern, sample type, sample size, data collection tool, data analysis method and result of the study, and methodological and thematic trends were tried to be determined.

Method

This study is a qualitative meta-synthesis research. In the research, the data were collected by document review method in line with the qualitative research principles. In the study, criterion sampling method, one of the purposeful sampling methods, was used. In this research, the following criteria were taken into account while creating the sample;

- Studies are limited to the words "creative thinking" and "creative".
- Also, after searching, the research was narrowed by adding the term 'course' to the filtering section.
- The language of the studies included in the sample of the study was chosen in Turkish.

Findings and discussion

According to the findings of the study, it was determined that the related researches increased in 2011 and 2016. The studies are generally focused on the effect of creative thinking skill on some dependent variables and on the perception/belief about creative thinking. Accordingly, the application in which the impact on creative thinking skills was most

researched was project-based teaching. Following this, perception / beliefs about creative thinking and practices emerge as a subject that is frequently examined. Here, the opinions of teachers about creative thinking are frequently examined.

It is seen that thesis studies on creative thinking applications in education are mostly concentrated in primary and secondary school levels. In addition, when all the studies done are examined, it is seen that the studies in middle school level are more. According to the data obtained, it is seen that there is at least one study on all classes in the distribution of the class. In addition, it was determined that there are more thesis studies at primary level in the studies conducted with teachers. Creative thinking skills were analyzed mostly in the context of Social Studies, Science and Technology and Life Science courses. It has been observed that the studies are often carried out by quantitative and mixed method and on medium-sized samples. In studies, it has been determined that survey/scale, document and interview are generally used as data collection method. In the studies, content analysis, descriptive analysis, parametric and non-parametric methods were used as data analysis method. When the results of the studies are examined, it is stated that the applications put into work generally have a positive effect on creative thinking.

Conclusion and recommendations

In the light of these results, functional materials for creativity should be provided to the students in accordance with their levels and the individual differences of the students should be taken into consideration in the curriculum. Also, considering the studies examined, the development of this skill will be useful for individuals in their education and even in their daily lives. In order to develop creative thinking skills of students, contemporary methods and techniques and alternative measurement approaches must be employed in the teaching process.

Based on the data and results obtained from the study, some suggestions have been developed. Developing creativity is one of the objectives of the Turkish education system. Therefore, developing creativity should not only be limited to a few courses. Considering the prevalence of information technologies today, these technologies can also support creative thinking activities. Also, research on measuring and developing creativity skills on teachers and students can also be applied to parents who are another stakeholder of the school.

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Research Article

Perceptions on an EFL teacher education program: Voices from teacher candidates

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Abstract

The present study aims to discover the perceptions of teacher candidates about a teacher education program, which is a reflection of the overall education system, in a foundation university based in Turkey. Since teacher candidates are part of the system of teacher education, it might be crucial to gather their insights about the program that they are provided with. In this light, this study examines teacher candidates (n=33) perceptions through a questionnaire, which has been prepared by using Peacock's (2009) evaluation model. In addition to the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews (n=3) have been held to gather in-depth qualitative data. This study might have implications for the evaluation of the ELT program from teacher candidates' point of view. The findings of the study indicate the participants' perceptions on the harmony among courses, balance of teacher and student centeredness, effectiveness of training on the usage and adaptation of materials, transferability of skills to the local context, etc. The teacher candidates also have revealed their thoughts on the strengths and weaknesses of the program while they come up with suggestions to overcome the weaknesses.

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Note(s) from the author(s)

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» This paper does not require an ethics approval document according to ULAKBİM's (TR INDEX) new coverage criteria as the data were collected before 2020.

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: We hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. We take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

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Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce bağlamında İngilizce öğretmenliği programına ilişkin algılar: Öğretmen adaylarının görüşleri

Öz

Bu çalışma, öğretmen adaylarının, genel eğitim sisteminin bir yansıması olan öğretmen eğitimi programı hakkındaki algılarını, Türkiye merkezli bir vakıf üniversitesi bazında ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Öğretmen adayları, öğretmen eğitimi sisteminin bir parçası oldukları için, kendilerine sağlanan programla ilgili görüşlerini toplamak değerli olabilir. Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma öğretmen adaylarının (n=33) algılarını Peacock'un (2009) değerlendirme modeli kullanılarak hazırlanan bir anket aracılığıyla incelemektedir. Ankete ek olarak, derinlemesine nitel veri toplamak için yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler (n=3) yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmanın İngilizce Öğretmenliği programındaki öğretmen adaylarının bakış açısından değerlendirilmesi açısından önemli etkileri olabilir. Çalışmanın bulguları, katılımcıların dersler arasındaki uyum, öğretmen dengesi ve öğrenci merkezli olma, materyal kullanımı ve adaptasyonu üzerine eğitimin etkinliği, becerilerin yerel bağlama aktarılabilmesi ve benzeri konulardaki algılarını göstermektedir. Öğretmen adayları ayrıca incelenen lisans programının zayıf yönlerinin üstesinden gelmek için öneriler getirirken programın güçlü yönleri üzerine de görüşlerini paylaşmıştır.

Gönderim

06 Kasım 2019

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Anahtar kelimeler

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algılar
değerlendirme
öğretmen adayları

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Introduction

Considering the education of English teachers, it is very crucial to have a structured pre-service education program besides an evaluation design so that necessary adaptations could be made. With rapid developments in the field of education, there seems to be a need to assess the effectiveness of the programs provided by education departments. At this point, internal evaluation of such programs might yield the strengths and weaknesses; thus, suggestions might eventually inform future adaptations (Peacock, 2009; Musset, 2010). According to Peacock (2009), evaluation of such programs is the first step to the professionalization of English Language Teaching (ELT) field. To this end, systematic and regular evaluation of these programs is supposed to be at the core of the education system. (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998).

In the present study, the program of an ELT department at a private university is examined from the students' perspective. Undergraduate ELT programs in Turkey were unified as one national curriculum in the academic year of 2018-2019. However, the present study was conducted with senior students, pertaining to a different, non-standardized program. Since teacher candidates are the ones who will benefit from the teacher education program and who are in the process of equipping themselves with required knowledge about their field of education, it might be crucial to gather their perspectives and opinions about the educational program that they study in. In this way, the standards of the programs might be tailored according to the perceived needs of the learners and future teachers, which would eventually make the program more dynamic and practical. However, there has been little research concerning the perceptions of teacher candidates on the teacher education programs that they are provided with. According to Brown, Lee, and Collins (2015), teacher candidates' perceptions of their readiness have a great role in their future teaching practice, which is regarded to be influenced by the departmental program after all. Thus, it is assumed that teacher candidates' perspectives of their readiness are affected by their evaluation of the program. As stated by Eret-Orhan, Ok, and Capa-Aydin (2017), there is a necessity of more studies examining the quality of teacher education from the teacher candidates' stand in a more holistic way. Although it is vital in equipping future teachers to provide a safe English learning environment for learners, the education program for EFL teacher seems to be underestimated considering the low number of studies related to this issue (e.g., Agudo, 2017; Akcan, 2016; Coşkun & Daloğlu, 2010; Karakaş, 2012). Therefore, this research aims to investigate teacher candidates' evaluations of an ELT program by applying Peacock's (2009) framework in an EFL context. To this extent, this article might provide an interpretation of a recent ELT program and teacher candidates' holistic reflections on the national program.

Literature Review

Research pertaining to the field of ELT has been subjected to investigate diverse aspects such as English teacher education, which is dedicated to those studies examining the education programs at university level and their reflections in classroom practice. Such studies largely focus on the effects of in-service education. Nonetheless, Coşkun and Daloğlu (2010) emphasized the need for an evaluation system of pre-service education programs so that appropriate modifications could be tailored for teacher candidates. Considering the studies

related to the evaluation of English teacher education programs in Turkey, Coşkun and Daloğlu (2010) investigated teacher candidates' perspectives of the program by using Peacock's (2009) framework. It has been found that the teacher candidates regard the program as lacking practice opportunities and pedagogical strength. On the other hand, using the same framework in Spanish context, Agudo (2017) reported that linguistic component was regarded weak rather than pedagogic component of the program by teacher candidates. Additionally, the studies implied the need for further research on the evaluation of programs to raise awareness on the importance of evaluation.

Exploiting a case study design, Durdukoca (2018) examined the views of teachers on the teacher training system in Turkey, which was based on qualitative data obtained from 55 interviews. After content analysis, it revealed that the participants had mostly negative opinions since they perceived the teacher training system as lacking nation-wide policy, coordination between trainers and employers, and they also highlighted the need for more studies to improve the quality of training. In addition to these opinions, Karakaş (2012) found out that culture specific courses were regarded as a lacking point in English language teacher education program. Besides these studies, some studies such as Mahalingappa and Polat (2013) covered the perceptions of program directors' opinions on the programs they have developed in the field of English language teacher education; based on the qualitative data gathered from program directors (n=8), student admission test scores, teacher education standard manuals. Findings of the aforementioned study revealed the reflections on the programs (i.e., 8 English language teacher education programs) such as having a consistent curriculum with almost same balance of course and credit and having a stabilized coverage for each area of competency; whereas they also reflected on weaknesses of these programs compared to international counterparts like TESOL. Perceived by program directors, weaknesses were regarded as lacking in some aspects related to the language, delivery of instruction, culture, assessment and professionalism. Additionally, the participants expressed their concerns about limitations for developing a qualified program for teacher education.

Some studies investigated a certain aspect of a program to gather a deeper insight considering a feature such as micro teaching practices. In Sariçoban's (2016) study, beliefs of ELT teacher trainees were analyzed using a questionnaire with four main topics; content area knowledge and training, instructional and learning period, assessment and keeping records, other professional competencies. Findings reflected positive notions towards their practices of microteaching and appropriateness of training regarding four main topics assigned in the questionnaire. Likewise, in Celen and Akcan's (2017) study, a practicum of a state university was investigated to examine strengths and weaknesses, demands and challenges experienced by teacher candidates and graduates via exploiting the adapted version of Survey of Teacher Education Programs (STEP) (Williams-Pettway, 2005). Findings included that perceived aspects of the practicum program such as an opportunity to teach in real classrooms, discussion and feedback from peers, observation, guidance from supervisors, developing relationship with cooperating teachers were regarded as strengths; and perceived aspects of improvements such as room for more observation, experiencing different school contexts, more cooperation with teachers, developing better assessment procedures and technology usage were reported as weaknesses.

On the other hand, some studies focus on novice English teachers and fresh graduates to gather their opinions about a teacher education program. For instance, Akcan (2016) scrutinized novice non-native English teachers' thoughts about the efficacy of their education program and struggles during their first years of teaching. Survey and follow up interview applied to 55 novice teachers showed that the content of their courses in their teacher education programs differed significantly and there are some challenges such as management of behavior, unmotivated learners, students with learning disadvantages, delivery of classes. It might be beneficial for pre-service teacher candidates to learn about those difficulties and to be trained accordingly beforehand. In a similar vein, Kıldan, İbret, Pektaş, Aydınöz, İncikabı, and Reçepoğlu (2013) conducted a qualitative descriptive study to examine the views of novice teachers in their first years. Interviews (n= 58) yielded that insufficiency was considered regarding curriculum and content knowledge. It might be beneficial for pre-service teacher candidates to learn about those difficulties and to be trained accordingly beforehand.

The studies administered so far focus on different EFL context, scrutinizing the perceptions of teacher candidates considering some aspects of the teacher education programs mostly done in state universities. Thus, this article adds to the existing literature by reporting teacher candidates' opinions on the national undergraduate ELT program at a private university. Looking from teacher candidates point of view, this study examines the way they evaluate the national program while they are about to graduate and take the stage as fresh English teachers. Therefore, it is important to delve into their reflective thinking skills during the process of evaluation in this research. Thus, the present study revolves around the following research question:

What are the teacher candidates' perceptions of the undergraduate ELT program?

Methodology

Context

The program under investigation is an undergraduate, non-standard English Language Education program. To gain insights from teacher candidates on the aforementioned program, this study was conducted at a private university in the Turkish EFL context. The main objective of the program is to provide an educational scheme for some courses such as Contextual Grammar, ELT Methodology, Linguistics and elective courses of diverse interests. To this end, the program aims at providing prospective teachers with critical and analytical thinking skills, communicative competence and sophisticated personal values, pertaining to the globalized world. Additionally, the program coheres with the Bologna process, which provides ECTS, Erasmus mobility, quality assurance and entailment of necessary European aspects in higher education institutions.

The undergraduate program of ELT receives approximately 60 students every year based on the Central Placement Examination results announced by the Measuring, Selection and Placement Center, ÖSYM. Before starting their journey with departmental courses, students are supposed to take one-year English preparatory education so that language proficiency would not be a barrier to them during teacher education. In the course of education, students are provided with some opportunities such as having a minor program certificate and/or a double major program alongside their curriculum if they meet extra

requirements. The program covers compulsory and elective courses and learners are presented with general knowledge about basic aspects of English and education (e.g., introduction to educational sciences, oral communication skills, listening and pronunciation) in the first and second semester. In the third and fourth semester, other aspects of teaching English such as translation, literature, linguistics and integration of technology (e.g., teaching technologies, approaches to ELT, language acquisition) are provided. Towards fifth and sixth semesters, students are supposed to take more practical courses (e.g., teaching English to young learners, literature and language teaching, classroom management); while seventh and eighth semesters are reserved for providing guidance in classroom teaching and assessment (e.g., school experience, English language testing and assessment, language and culture).

Since harmony among competencies covered in the program has a room in this evaluation study, compulsory courses provided by the educational context in this study are presented in three main categories such as linguistic, pedagogic and managerial competencies after a content analysis of each course. Correspondingly, the results yield that pedagogic competence related courses make up 60.41% and linguistic competence related courses cover 39.58% of all compulsory courses in the program.

Data collection

Data for the present study have been collected through mixed-methods design, namely via quantitative and qualitative instruments. For triangulation of the data, questionnaires have been followed by semi-structured interviews and the program to be evaluated has been analysed by two categories (i.e., pedagogical and linguistic courses). As for the quantitative data collection tool, Peacock's (2009) framework of evaluation has been selected since it provides extensive coverage of the issue, and as Coşkun & Daloğlu (2010) suggest, it encourages the researcher to gather meaningful information. It has 22 items generated from related literature and it is designed as a 5-point Likert scale. After the implementation of the questionnaires, 3 out of 33 participants have expressed an interest to take part in the interviews by marking "I would like to take part in the further step of this research. (Interview)" and leaving a signature below this statement. According to Barribal & While (1994), semi-structured interviews are appropriate means for the investigation of perceptions of participants regarding complicated and delicate issues to encourage a deeper clarification and elaboration of information. Thus, as a mean of collecting data from those participants, semi-structured interviews have been chosen. In the semi-structured interviews, those participants have been encouraged to express their views of the program that they study in and they have been triggered to reflect on their evaluation of the program. In the interviews, Turkish has been used as the medium of communication since it is the mother tongue of the participants, which would encourage them to reflect their thoughts without any language barrier or pressure.

Lastly, compulsory courses offered by the departmental program of ELT have been categorized under two main competences as linguistic and pedagogic so that overall harmony among the main courses could be revealed. Three postgraduate researchers have checked the courses to ensure an appropriate categorization. Percentages of the distribution have been presented while describing the context of the study as following:

Table 1. Competence type distribution of compulsory courses

| | Percentage (n=48) |
|------------|-------------------|
| Linguistic | 39.58% |
| Pedagogic | 60.41% |

The participants are 33 senior students and also teacher candidates in ELT department at a foundation university. The majority of the participants are female (n=23) and the rest of them are male (n=10). The age range is between 21 and 40 with the average of 23. 3 out of 33 teacher candidates have joined to the semi-structured interview. Using SPSS 22, data collected via the questionnaire have been analyzed descriptively. Before the analysis, Cronbach's Alpha has been computed as 0.913, indicating that the questionnaire is highly reliable. As for the analysis of qualitative data, content analysis by Creswell (2012) is used. During analysis, as suggested by Brown (1995), emerging patterns in the semi-structured interviews lead the way to a correspondence with the results of the questionnaire.

Findings

There have been some common patterns derived from the questionnaire as for the items developed by Peacock (2009). As can be seen from the Table 2, content of the program is the leading theme scrutinized in the questionnaire, followed by practice, overall evaluation and self-evaluation.

Table 2. Emerging themes in the questionnaire

| | Item numbers |
|--------------------|-----------------------|
| Content | 1,2,10,13,14,15,17,19 |
| Practice | 3,4,5,9,20 |
| Overall evaluation | 6,11,18,21,22 |
| Self evaluation | 7,8,12,16 |

As for the items covering the aspects of content evaluation of the program, item 1 has the highest agreement on the good linkage between courses (n=27), while item 2 reveals a good portion of uncertainty and disagreement (n=13) about the statement of avoidance of overlapping information between courses. Regarding the balance of teacher-centered and student-centeredness stated in item 10, some teacher candidates (n=9) stay uncertain although the majority (n=24) state agreement on the existence of a balance. Likewise, in item 13, coverage of classroom management in the program has been agreed upon by the majority of the teacher candidates (n=24), while the rest (n=9) state otherwise. As for the usage and the adaptation of materials expressed in item 14 and item 15, efficiency of the content of the program has been acknowledged by the most of the teacher candidates whereas some (n=6) are uncertain about their training on the use of the materials and some (n=7) are uncertain or disagree about their training on the adaptation of the materials. Interestingly enough, in item 17, one third of the participants (n=11) state their uncertainty and disagreement upon the

effectiveness of the training about testing and evaluation, while the rest of them expresses otherwise (n=22). Regarding the balance of the courses taught, in item 19, the majority of the participants (n=26) agree on the existence of an overall balance while some (n=7) disagree or stay uncertain.

Considering the practical dimension provided by the program to be evaluated, item 4 has attracted the highest frequency (n=32) of an agreement on the coverage of training in teaching skills by the teacher candidates; whereas a few teacher candidates (n=4) have expressed their uncertainty about the coverage of different teaching practices in item 9. As for the item 3, which questions the teacher candidates' perceptions about the adequacy of training in English, most of the teacher candidates (n=26) have agreed that it is adequate while some (n=7) have expressed their uncertainty or disagreement. Considering preparedness to teach English stated as in item 20, only some (n=5) have stated their perception of insufficiency; however, as for item 5, the number of the uncertain participants has been doubled (n=10) when the needs of the local context (i.e., Turkey) has been scrutinized.

On the other hand, the items reflecting overall evaluative perceptions of the teacher candidates yielded a good portion of positive reactions towards the program. For instance, in item 6, only a few participants (n=5) have expressed their uncertainty and disagreement upon the fact that it is up-to-date. Similarly, the teacher candidates are usually on the same page in item 11 considering the coverage of the program in terms of teaching how to teach English with a good number (n=30). With respect to the item 18 and 21, the majority of the participants agree on the relevancy and meeting their needs; although a good portion of them (n=8) has remained uncertain or disagreed on the fact that they would be ready to teach at the end of the program.

Taking self-evaluation skills into account, teacher candidates usually have expressed their positive perception for the program. Interestingly enough, in item 8, when they regard their reflections on their self-evaluation skills as a teacher in the future, only a small portion (n=4) relates their self-evaluation skill development within the program; however, in item 7, reflection on experiences has attracted a double portion of uncertainty (n=8) among participants. Considering item 12 and 16, except for a good portion of teacher candidates (n=7), the majority of teacher candidates think that the program has implications over increasing their potential of self-evaluation and eventually leading them to evaluate themselves as a teacher.

As for the semi-structured interviews, similar to those of the questionnaire, some themes have emerged during the content analysis such as general perceptions, weaknesses and strengths of the program, role of material design, self-evaluation and classroom management in the program and future reflections as a teacher.

General perceptions of the teacher candidates indicate comprehensively positive reflections. For instance, Teacher Candidate A states that the program is beneficial and up-to-date. She further exemplifies through an experience in which she has witnessed that in a recent seminar she has participated, some implications have been given; which have been turned out to be already embedded in the courses of the current program; whereas Teacher Candidate B associates being up-to-date with integrating the latest technological materials. On the other hand, Teacher Candidate B and C emphasize the importance of the wish to become a teacher

when they present their evaluation of the program. They state that since they have aimed to become a teacher before, the program helps even more to increase their teaching skills. However, while Teacher Candidate B emphasizes methodology courses, Teacher C emphasizes the improvement of the linguistic skills with the help of the program. As for the content of the program, nearly all participants have expressed that the courses are intertwined and linked to one another following a sequential order. Additionally, Teacher Candidate C thinks that the program is neither teacher-centered nor student-centered; it has a healthy balance.

As for the weaknesses and strengths, some similarities and differences in the perceptions have been observed. For instance, Teacher Candidate A has stated being student-centered is the strength; Teacher B has emphasized being able to teach someone a language and/or teaching how to teach is empowering on its own; whereas Teacher Candidate C has reported that being able to experience to teach as if in the real classroom without having the need to be in one is the strength of the program, quoted as in the following:

“...Sınıf ortamını staja gerek kalmadan sınıfta öğretmenin bize sunduğu şekilde yaşayabilmemiz...” (...being able to experience the classroom environment provided by the teacher without practicum...) (Teacher Candidate C, April 12th 2019)

On the other hand, weaknesses of the program have attracted similar answers, focusing on the need for more practice through a longer practicum period. Furthermore, Teacher Candidate A has suggested enriching the context that they are provided with during practicum such as an opportunity to experience teaching in both private and state schools. Interestingly enough, mostly, teacher candidates are not aware of the process of the assigning practicum schools to the teacher candidates; yet they are respectful to the end-results they are provided, it is rather an unknown procedure involving a surprise element according to them.

In the interviews, some features of the program such as training of material development and adaptation, self-evaluation and classroom management have been commented on by the participants. As for material development and adaptation, Teacher Candidate A states that having a course on technological integrated material design and development in the program is innovative. Similarly, using technology during the development and usage of the materials is of future use and practical according to Teacher Candidate B. Moreover, Teacher C has expressed that the courses have raised their awareness on different tools to be used in the classrooms. Considering classroom management courses, participants comprehensively think that the program provides sufficient courses while Teacher Candidate B has emphasized that he increases his potential by giving lessons and modelling new techniques in a private language course at weekends. Furthermore, the participants have explained that the overall program and its features have helped them to develop their self-evaluation skills and to reflect on their learning progress. For instance, Teacher Candidate B has expressed his perception on the development of questioning and self-reflective skills as follows:

“...Aslında gerçekten ben bu mesleği istiyor muyum, yapabilir miyimi düşündüm bir açıdan da. Ve ben bu meslek için yeterli miyim bilgi birikimim yeterli mi, üzerine daha çok ne katabilirim ya da en çok beni ne geliştirebilir... Biraz da bunun sorgusunu yapmaya başladım, özellikle bu yıl...” (... In a way, I

have started to think if I really want this profession and if I could do it. Moreover, I have started to question if I was sufficient for this profession and what I could do more or what might improve my skills... I have started to question those, especially this year...) (Teacher Candidate B, April 12th 2019)

Lastly, the participants have comprehensively high levels of perceptions of their self-efficacy upon graduating from the program. For instance, Teacher Candidate A has given an anecdote in which she has had the opportunity to compare the program with another one. She has concluded that the program in which she studies has distinctive superiorities such as having a course on teaching English to young learners. Similarly, Teacher Candidate C asserts that despite the fact that most of the educational resources used in the program have been “foreign”, the program has broad and practical implications for an EFL context, especially Turkey.

Discussion

This study has aimed to gather teacher candidates’ (i.e., senior year ELT students) perceptions of their program at a private university. The findings of the present study might help to gain insights about the perceptions of teacher candidates on an ELT program and to engage them into the evaluation of the program, which might even raise awareness on the process of education and encourage questioning skills.

In the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview, teacher candidates mostly have held the view that there is a harmony among the courses taught following a sequential order. However, there might be some overlapping courses or repetition of some aspects in the program since some teacher candidates have reflected so. When it comes to the balance of teacher-centeredness and student-centeredness, the program seems to have a healthy mixture, although it has been reported in one of the interviews that being student-centered is one of the strengths of the program. As for the use and adaptation of materials, teacher candidates have brought up the notion of technology integration and the awareness of using different tools in different contexts. On the other hand, the training on testing and evaluation seems to be a fuzzy concept for a good portion of participants. Similarly, some teacher candidates have doubts about the transferability of the skills to the local context, Turkey; although almost all of the teacher candidates feel adequately trained and ready to teach.

While evaluating the program, the interviews have shown that having the aim to become a teacher contributes to benefitting from the program; thus, teacher candidates have had the urge to tell that they have aimed to become an English teacher before they have started to evaluate the program. Upon evaluating the program, they have mentioned development of proficiency, training of different methodologies on teaching English, having an opportunity to practice as if they were in a “real” classroom. On the other hand, as weaker points, they have emphasized the need for a longer practicum period, which corroborates with previous studies (e.g., Coşkun & Daloğlu, 2010; Erozan, 2005; Seferoğlu, 2006; Şallı-Çopur, 2008). Apart from this, the participants have suggested that they could have several distinct contexts (e.g., private schools, state schools) at practicum so that they would have experience in each of them. Furthermore, the findings of the present study have yielded that some features of the

practicum process are not transparent to the teacher candidates such as the procedure of assigning practicum schools.

Based on the call for more evaluation studies of pre-service teacher education programs by Coşkun and Daloğlu (2010), the present study attempted to fill the related research gap. Previous studies have revealed insights of teacher candidates' insights about diverse undergraduate programs over their strengths and weaknesses. Unlike Agudo (2017), this study found out that there seems to be a harmony between linguistic and pedagogic components of the program. Similarly, Karakaş (2012) asserted that culture-specific courses were required, yet the participants of the present study did not report such need while reflecting on the program. Rather than lacking practice opportunities and pedagogical strength as Coşkun and Daloğlu (2010) discovered, this study underlined that there are opportunities of practice and balanced pedagogical courses, yet there is a need for more real-classroom based practices. Overall, it can be observed that the participants held positive impressions over their microteaching journeys, which is in line with other studies (Celen & Akcan, 2017; Sariçoban, 2016). The participants of this study reflected that coverage of diverse competencies is at moderate level, corroborating with the study of Mahalingappa and Polat (2013). On the other hand, the situation of lacking nation-wide policy indicated by some scholars such as Akcan (2016) and Durdukoca (2018) has been addressed to via update and standardization of the national curriculum of undergraduate ELT program in the 2018-2019 academic year. Thus, a new field of inquiry has been initiated over the new standardized program and its reflections on the teacher candidates.

Conclusion

According to the findings of qualitative and quantitative data, being up-to-date has been acknowledged as a feature of the program by most of the participants and associated with covering latest trends in the field or integrating technological tools by some participants. Furthermore, the present study has revealed the teacher candidates' perception of their self-evaluation skills in which they involve in their educational process actively. By doing so, the participants mostly have reported that the order and harmony among the courses taught are appropriately designed. Nonetheless, some practical issues such as classroom management have been reported to be in need of support outside the program, such as teaching in a real classroom at weekends.

This study is not without its limitations. Firstly, a broader sample size would yield more reliable results. Furthermore, data collection procedure might include academic staff and program design stakeholders to gather their insights and perceptions. Even graduate teachers from the same program to be evaluated might be taken as participants to get their perceptions of the practical use of the program. Although it has limitations, the present study might contain a small contribution to the evaluative studies and inform learners, teacher candidates, teachers, program designers who are thought to benefit from the findings of this study.

Implications

All in all, this study has been triggered by previous evaluation studies and it intends to encourage even more studies pertaining to this field of research. Especially in EFL contexts, in which the programs of English teacher education play a major role in the qualified teacher

training, there needs to be more evaluation studies. In this way, the educational process becomes much transparent and ready to be developed by following the genuine needs of the learners and teachers-to-be. Thus, further research might include an analysis of perceptions of the learners of the program and its graduates upon the features of the program. By doing so, further studies might shed light on the optimal balance of the courses associated with different needs of the learners, which might help them become equipped teachers in the future with tailored programs.

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Wait-time in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) Context: A Conversation Analytic Perspective

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Research Article

Wait-time in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) context: A conversation analytic perspective

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Abstract

This study aims to discover to what extent native ESL teachers utilize wait-time in their classes and to what extent wait-time gives way to more student contribution. Wait-time is considered as a part of classroom interactional competence, and relevant utilization of it may improve learning in the classroom. Accordingly, six classroom hours of data were analyzed via Conversation Analysis (CA) and whether teachers implement wait-time or not during their lessons were analyzed qualitatively. The participants of the research are teachers and students in a higher education setting in the UK. In order to analyze the data collected, all the videos were transcribed in accordance with the conventions of the Conversation Analysis (CA). The findings suggest that the teachers frequently implement wait-time in their classes. It has been found that wait-time usually leads to students' contribution in language classes, which may lead to creating space for interaction and language learning.

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Akademik amaçlı İngilizce bağlamında bekleme süresi: Konuşma analizi bakış açısı

Öz

Bu araştırmanın amacı İngiliz uyruklu ikinci dil olarak İngilizce öğreten öğretmenlerin sınıflarında bekleme süresini ne derece kullandıklarını ve kullanımları sonucunda öğrencilerin derse yaptıkları katılımın ne derece arttığını saptamaktır. Bekleme süresi, sınıf içi etkileşimsel becerinin bir parçası olarak kabul edilir ve yerinde kullanımı sınıf içi öğrenmeyi artırabilir. Bu amaçla, 6 ders saatlik veri Konuşma Analizi'ne göre analiz edildi ve öğretmenlerin derslerini işlerken bekleme süresini uygulayıp uygulamadıkları nitel yaklaşımla incelendi. Çalışmanın katılımcıları Birleşik Krallık'taki bir yüksek öğrenim bağlamında öğretmenlerden ve öğrencilerden oluşmaktadır. Toplanan verileri analiz etmek için tüm videolar Konuşma Analizi prensiplerine göre yazıldı. Veri analizinin sonucu, öğretmenlerin sıklıkla bekleme süresini uyguladıklarını göstermiştir. Bekleme süresinin dil sınıflarında etkileşim ve dil öğrenmeyi sağlayan öğrenci katılımına zemin hazırladığı bulunmuştur.

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Introduction

Many approaches and methods have been developed in order to discover the best way to learn-teach foreign languages. In the methods era, firstly the grammar-focused methods such as Grammar Translation Method (GTM) were in fashion. Then, communication-focused methods such as Direct Method (DM), Community Language Learning (CLL), and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged consequentially. As Atar (2016) stated, “initial studies usually focused on grammar and formal aspects of language use in classrooms, but in recent decades the focus has shifted to communication and interactional skills” (p. 1). In the beginning, writing and reading skills were in demand, however, listening and speaking skills gained importance in language teaching eventually. Hence, it can be inferred from this change that interaction has become in vogue in language classrooms. Many scholars also touch upon the importance of communication in learning. To illustrate, Ellis (2000) stated that “learning arises not through interaction, but in interaction” (p. 209). It means that students learn better in a social environment rather than only speaking to someone. Hall (2008) stressed the interaction “in language classrooms” (p. 7) and Vygotsky (1978) argued for Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) within the scope of the social interactionist theory based on the idea of communication between the learner and a more knowledgeable other. That is why language classes must be the center of communication including student-student or teacher-student. Myslihaka (2016) also claimed that using more interaction is beneficial in order to create a student-centered lesson. Walsh & Li (2013) highlighted the significance of interactional competence for more successful classrooms in terms of learning. Choudhury (2005) emphasized the teacher’s role in fostering classroom interaction by suggesting that “one of the most important keys to create an interactive language classroom is the initiation of interaction by the teacher” (p. 77).

Wait-time which means the pauses for a few seconds (3-5 for this study) between teachers’ utterance and students’ contribution can be offered as an important way of increasing communication in language classrooms. As it is suggested by Alsaadi & Atar (2019), wait-time is “the extended time of three to five seconds” after teacher initiation (p. 53), which may be an effective factor contributing to classroom interaction. That is to say, it can be a part of successful classroom interaction. The pauses of teachers that allow learners to speak can create meaningful conversations in the classroom. In this way, meaningful conversations make a ground for learning (Atar & Seedhouse, 2018; Walsh, 2011). Arguably, if teachers allocate enough wait-time for students, their readiness required to answer a question may be improved and it may result in further interaction. In classroom interaction, wait-time can be effective. It can be elaborated in the following definition by Duncan and Southon (2006) as well: “wait-time is the amount of time after an initial question has been posed before the teacher answers it him or herself; repeats, rephrases, or adds further information to the question; or accepts an answer from a student” (p. 1). Besides, it is defined in different ways by several scholars. The scholars conducted studies on wait-time defined the term in various explanations. Considering different definitions will be useful to comprehend the scope of the term. For this reason, the wait-time perceptions of Rowe, Lake, and Fowler are specifically given in Figure 1 below by Tobin and Capie (1983) (as cited in Alsaadi & Atar, 2019, p. 54).

| | | | |
|------------------------------------|--|-------|-----------------------------|
| Wait-time I: | Rowe's definitions of wait-time | | |
| Wait-time II: | Teacher question | pause | Teacher or student talk |
| | Student response | pause | Teacher comment or question |
| | Lake's definitions of wait-time | | |
| <i>Teacher wait-time:</i> | | | |
| Example 1: | Student talk | pause | Teacher talk |
| Example 2: | Teacher talk | pause | Teacher talk |
| <i>Student wait-time</i> | | | |
| Example 1: | Teacher talk | pause | Student talk |
| Example 2: | Student talk | pause | Student talk |
| | Fowler's definitions of wait-time | | |
| <i>Teacher reaction wait-time</i> | | | |
| Example: | Student talk | pause | Teacher talk |
| <i>Student reaction wait-time</i> | | | |
| Example: | Teacher talk | pause | Student talk |
| <i>Teacher-initiated wait-time</i> | | | |
| Example: | Student talk | pause | Student talk |
| <i>Student-initiated wait-time</i> | | | |
| Example: | Teacher talk | pause | Teacher talk |

Figure 1. Definitions of wait-time

Rowe (1974a, 1974b) groups wait-time in two types including the pause that teacher gives before student's initiation and the pause after student's commencement before teacher's initiation. In other words, Rowe (1986) describes as "there is a threshold value below which changes in wait-time produce little effect and above which (2.7 seconds) there are marked consequences for both teachers and students" (p. 43).

Regarding Lake's definition (1973), it can be inferred from the Figure 1 that he categorized wait-time as two components which are "teacher wait-time" and "student wait-time". In "teacher wait-time" there are two examples containing the orders student-pause-teacher and teacher-pause-teacher. In addition, in "student wait-time" there are also two examples comprising the orders teacher-pause-student and student-pause-student. Considering Fowler's (1975) definition of wait-time, it can be expressed that he divided wait-time into four categories which are teacher reaction wait-time, student reaction wait-time, teacher-initiated wait-time, and student-initiated wait-time.

The definitions offered above in the Figure 1 are developed through the first one by Rowe (1974a, 1974b, 1978); the researcher attempted to determine a general classroom interaction design by means of over 6 years of study implemented on the science lesson. She discovered a system throughout the classroom talks and called it as "wait-time". Rowe (1986) indicates that there are certain influences of wait-time on both students and teachers. In the literature, there are numerous studies on wait-time including both positive and negative findings and perspectives towards it. Considering the studies with the positive outcomes, a plethora of studies can be mentioned (e.g., Alsaadi & Atar, 2019; Altieri & Duell, 1991; Aras, 2007; Baysen & Baysen, 2010; Davenport, 2003; Mak, 2011; Morgan & Saxton, 1994; Riley, 1986; Rowe, 1974a, 1974c, 1986; Samiroden, 1983; Swift & Gooding, 1983; Şahin, 2015; Tobin, 1986; Tobin & Capie, 1982; Yaqubi & Rokni, 2012; Yataganbaba & Yıldırım, 2016) while there are also those with the negative outcomes (e.g., Duell, 1994, 1995; Honea, 1982; Ingram & Elliott, 2015; Matt & Shannon, 2007).

Morgan & Saxton (1994) perceive that wait-time is “an active silence” in which students can think and develop a response for the question posed (p. 80). It can be considered that those muted moments are not passive waitings, but they are active engagements. While waiting, the students are in a process in which they decode the question and create the best answer for it. Furthermore, Aras (2007) also contributes to the positive effects of wait-time on students by stating that “this study indicated the importance of providing a better learning opportunity for students by extending the wait-time as a teaching variable in language classrooms” (p. 69). The study shows that wait-time is a useful tool for EFL classes. Moreover, Mak (2011) suggests that wait-time use can be an effective way in lowering students’ anxiety and gaining their confidence. To exemplify, a student with speaking anxiety may feel anxious when a question is asked to him/her; however, using wait-time can help the student for preparing his/her answer. In this way, wait-time can increase self-confidence as lowering anxiety. Melder (2011) also results his study with the positive findings on applying “increased wait time into everyday practice of the classroom” (p. 3). In accordance with the research by Melder (2011), extended wait-time rather than brief wait-time can be quite useful in each class. Additionally, the findings of Yataganbaba & Yıldırım’s study (2016) reveal that “limited wait-time” prevented students’ classroom contribution. This finding also refers to Melder’s (2011) in terms of promoting extended wait-time. In addition, Şahin (2015), in his study on teacher questioning, finds out that sufficient wait-time allocates time for teachers “to ask better and longer guiding questions” (p. 109). Regarding Şahin’s (2015) study, wait-time can be helpful for teachers as well. Therefore, it can be inferred from this study that making use of wait-time is advantageous for both students and teachers.

In contrast, Allwright (1988) states that wait-time can be useless based on his own experiences with an ESL student. Duell (1994, 1995) also claims that wait-time use at university level can decrease higher cognitive achievement. In a study on teachers’ perspective on wait-time, it is found that teachers may feel anxiety while implementing wait-time in their classes (Honea, 1982). Another research conducted by Tincani & Crozier (2007) indicates that while brief wait-time can be beneficial for children, extended wait-time can be useless. Thus, it can be interpreted that wait-time has been perceived as both beneficial and useless at increasing student interaction in classrooms.

In the literature, most of the previous studies have been mentioned. Considering current reports on wait-time, the literature is quite limited, especially done on language classrooms. When these points are taken into consideration, this paper will provide a fresh perspective and fill a gap in the literature.

Research questions

1. Do the native ESL teachers in the UK utilize wait-time in their classes?
2. Does wait-time give way to more student contribution?

Methodology

Regarding the literature, there have been plenty of studies done on wait-time; however, the current research specifically focuses on the influence of utilizing wait-time on ESL classes by experienced British teachers at university level. The purpose of this qualitative

research study was to discover to what extent native ESL teachers utilize wait-time in their classes and to what extent wait-time gives way to more student contribution. In this way, the following steps are completed.

Participants and context

The study was conducted in a university setting consisting of around 15 students per class in Newcastle, UK. It was an English for Academic purposes higher education setting. The students had been learning English as a second language to proceed to their degrees at undergraduate, graduate or post-graduate level. The classes were mostly consisted of Asian students studying Economics in the preparatory classes of the university. They had been taking the language courses including reading, writing, listening, and speaking integrated with the courses belonging to the Department of Economics. In consequence, the education system in the university was based on Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). The teachers were experienced teachers who were native speakers of English. These teachers were observed in different lessons which were speaking, listening, and writing.

Data collection

The data were collected through video recordings via 2 video recorders and 2 audio recorders. The data include six classroom hours (each session lasts around 50 minutes) based on non-participant classroom observations. No observational guidelines were used as Conversation Analysis methodology relies on the emic perspective, which requires analyzing the recordings from the perspective of the participants. While collecting data, the classroom had been recorded from two opposite angles via two different cameras in order to obtain the best vision and also the voices in the classroom had been recorded through two audio recorders. The lessons were implemented as block lessons (2 lessons without a break). Hence, the classrooms had been recorded for each session. In a detailed way; the first session had been recorded for 1 hour and 34 minutes, the second session had been recorded for 1 hour and 36 minutes, the last session had been recorded for 1 hour and 52 minutes. The observations were conducted in a non-participant setting without using any checklist. In other words, the classroom recordings had been done in the most natural way paying attention not to affect both the students and the teachers involved. In order to obtain more reliable data, three different teachers were monitored in dissimilar classroom settings than each other.

Data analysis

The data collected via recordings were analyzed through CA (Conversational Analysis) conventions. The following framework of Seedhouse (2004) (cited in Seedhouse & Sert, 2011) was utilized as it provides a patterned way for analyzing the data from a conversation-analytical perspective. Conversation Analysis studies rely on a detailed transcription of the data as no detail can be dismissed (Liddicoat, 2011).

1) There is order at all point in interaction: Talk in interaction is systematically organized, deeply ordered and methodic.

2) Contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing: Contributions to interaction cannot be adequately understood except by reference to the sequential environment in which they occur and in which the participants design them to occur. They also form part of the sequential environment in which a next contribution will occur.

3) No order of detail can be dismissed a priori as disorderly, accidental, or irrelevant (Heritage 1984, p. 241): CA has a detailed transcription system, and a highly empirical orientation.

4) Analysis is bottom-up and data driven: The data should not be approached with any prior theoretical assumptions, regarding, for example, power, gender, or race; unless there is evidence in the details of the interaction that the interactants themselves are orienting to it. (Seedhouse & Sert, 2011, p. 1-2)

In the first article, it is explicated that interaction occurs between its two components which are sender and receiver in a certain way. Thus, it can be examined in accordance with the conventions of it. In the second article, it is mentioned that the elements causing communication are formed based on the context. In other words, the context containing sender, receiver, channel, and setting has an impact on the message that will be sent. As the participants, sender and receiver will create contributions to interaction by communicating. Regarding the third article, it is significant to consider every single detail, even if there are accidental, irrelevant, and disorderly ones. Therefore, not a minute detail can be neglected. In the last article, it is highlighted that Conversation Analysis pursues a bottom-up, data driven path which means that the analysis is done pursuant to what is found from the data. It concentrates on the pure data collected without any restriction applied beforehand. Firstly, the data is collected, then the study is shaped by means of the findings.

The transcription conventions of Jefferson (2004) were used to code the data. While coding the data, a specific transcription language was used. For instance, the lines were written on the left and the speakers' names are only coded as T (Teacher) and S (Student). If there were more than one student, they were named as S 1, S 2 etc. In order to indicate the length of a pause the periods were simply used. As an important point, the moments occurring wait-time were displayed through the small arrows.

Findings

The study was conducted in order to observe if the native ESL teachers utilize wait-time in their classes and if wait-time gives way to more student contribution. As a result of the data collection process through six classroom hours records, it is reached that all three teachers (Teacher A, Teacher B, Teacher C) who lecture in the videos made use of wait-time in their lessons. When the data were analyzed through transcribing the videos, it is revealed that the teacher participants (Teacher A, Teacher B, Teacher C) got benefit from wait-time in their classes. Considering each time they paused enough, Teacher A regarded wait-time 11 times in a block class consisting two classroom hours, Teacher B applied 6 times in a block session including two classroom hours, and Teacher C implemented 30 times in a block lesson containing two classroom hours; in total 47 times in three block lessons comprising 6 classroom

hours. Throughout the sessions which were conducted by Teacher A and Teacher B, each time the teacher waited for the student to talk led a way to classroom interaction. Furthermore, the students got confidence to talk more and tried to answer the teachers after their encouraging pauses.

To illustrate, it can be examined in the following extract from Teacher A's class.

Extract 1.

Teacher A's writing class

- 1 T: give examples (.) it does not give a definition (.) doesn't explain how it works (.) and it doesn't talk about types of business (.) so what's the second section doing (.) er (.) (Bert)
(3) → (3.5)
2 S: (definition of franchising)
3 T: yeah (.) thank you (.) yeh quite a long definition (.)

In the instance offered above, the teacher's wait-time is demonstrated through the arrow. In addition, the student's contribution to the conversation is offered after the arrow. The long version of the response cannot be given due to the student's low voice. As Mak (2011) indicated that wait-time can help students gain their confidence to talk; even if Teacher A directly says his name, the student can prepare a long answer without any hesitation by means of the wait-time given in the Extract 1.

Extract 2.

Teacher A's writing class

- 1 T: these two here (.) they are all (.) (2.0) all (.) what
→ (2.7)
2 S: all restaurant
3 T: absolutely (.) or some kind of fast food (.) fast food outlets (.)
um
4 S: ((speaks in Chinese))

Considering Extract 2, it can be interpreted that the student finds the answer by the help of Teacher A's directing pauses. Wait-time which Teacher A applied in the Extract 2 is shown through the arrow. As a response to the teacher's question, the student gave the answer saying "all restaurants". As Morgan & Saxton (1994) offered, wait-time fosters students to use the silence in an active way.

Extract 3.

Teacher A's writing class

- 1 T: absolute (.) er (.) yes (.) the police catch me (.) mmm the police
(holds hand up)
→ (2.0)
2 S: stopped you

3 T: absolutely yes (.) a police lady

Regarding the Extract 3, it can be inferred that Teacher A allows the students to answer his question with the help of both wait-time and using his gestures and body movements. That is to say that, Teacher A chooses the way letting students guess rather than completing the sentence himself as a spoon-feeding activity. On the contrary, even though Teacher C regards wait-time in classroom interaction, out of 30, only 7 times she gets a response back from the students. The reasons behind this situation can be interpreted in terms of some other factors such as students' level of proficiency, speaking ability, anxiety, etc.

Extract 4.

Teacher C's listening class

1 T: When you put this information together...

2 T: What do you think about all?

→ (11)

3 T: Do you think he is...?

In the Extract 4, Teacher C gives a pause for 11 seconds, however, she cannot get an answer from the students. At this point, it is crucial to generate a plan B in order to overcome the silence in the classroom. In the Extract 4, she asks more questions to make the question straightforward. As Şahin (2015) touched upon, wait-time can allocate time for teachers to generate better guiding questions. In the Extract 4, Teacher C also gets benefit from wait-time to establish more effective questions.

Extract 5.

Teacher C's listening class

1 T: Do you think that he is qualified enough to talk about
climate change

→ (3.7)

2 S: Yes

3 T: (indistinctly speaking) Yes, why? (2)

4 S: (student explains indistinctly)

Focusing on the Extract 5, it can be monitored that the pause of Teacher C allowed the student to think and find the right answer. In addition, it gives way to classroom interaction. Therefore, Teacher C took advantage of the ways she improved to handle silent classes. As Alsaadi & Atar (2019) suggested, extended wait-time can be beneficial for raising the classroom interaction.

Discussion

The findings of the current research revealed that the native ESL teachers in total 47 times implemented wait-time in their classes in order to advance interaction by students in the classroom. In accordance with the Extract 1, Extract 2, and Extract 3, it can be inferred that the teachers' use of wait-time allows the students to think a while for formulating their answers

and then to respond to the teacher. Considering the Extract 1, 2, 3, and 5, wait-time had positive influences on the students in contrast to Allwright’s study (1988). To elaborate, using wait-time provided the ESL students with necessary time to think and consist their sentences. Additionally, there was no clue that the students’ higher cognitive achievements decreased by contrast with Duell (1994, 1995). Regarding the teachers’ perspective towards utilizing wait-time in their classes, it can be inferred from the classroom records that the teachers seemed cheerful and qualified counter to the study by Honea (1982).

According to Extract 4, wait-time may not always serve the teachers’ aim. At this point, some other strategies can be developed to break the silence. To illustrate, Teacher C uses her own techniques. She does not expose the answer instead she clarifies the question by asking more questions on it. Atar & Seedhouse (2018) also suggest using “further resources when students fail to answer” (p. 145). For instance, another question was posed to reveal the student’s answer by Teacher C in the Extract 5. She got benefit from asking more questions that led students to propose explanatory responses. In order to deal with this problem, every teacher can develop his/her way of fitting their students best and meeting their needs; however, the questions they choose must be in point. As Good and Brophy (2000) offer that teacher questions “appear to be rather mechanical time-filling rather than thought-provoking” (p. 11), it is important to find the right time to ask the right question leading the student to the accuracy.

Consistent with the Extract 5, it can be monitored that Teacher C’s pause makes a ground for a classroom interaction which means elaborative answer rather than a simple answer. The situation can be also observed when it is looked at the Figure 2.

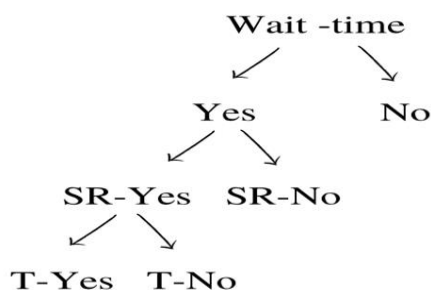


Figure 2. Explanation of the Extract 5

Considering the Figure 2, it can be said that there is a wait-time serving the teacher’s aim because when the teacher applies the pause, the student takes part in the conversation, after that the teacher goes on the explanation. There may be some further issues to consider utilizing wait-time in the classroom. To exemplify,

“Through interactions with others, we not only engage in socialisation, but we also talk institutions into being. Social institutions, including parliaments, courtrooms, and schools, have become the institutions they are and will be

through social interactions. This also includes language classrooms.” (Sert, 2015, p. 10)

Considering the quote given above, as a convention of the institutional talk, it cannot be given such kind of pauses in a daily conversation in different contexts. However, in a language classroom, it can be helpful to implement wait-time in terms of classroom interaction since second language classroom is an institution with its own rules and conventions. All in all, it can be said that the findings of the current research have parallelism with the review of the literature in terms of positive outcomes (Alsaadi & Atar, 2019; Altieri & Duell, 1991; Aras, 2007; Baysen & Baysen, 2010; Davenport, 2003; Mak, 2011; Morgan & Saxton, 1994; Riley, 1986; Rowe, 1974a, 1974c, 1986; Samiroden, 1983; Swift & Gooding, 1983; Şahin, 2015; Tobin, 1986; Tobin & Capie, 1982; Yaqubi & Rokni 2012) of wait-time.

Conclusion

The study revealed that the native ESL teachers took advantage of wait-time while teaching English to foreigners. As a result, they achieved to create a learner-centered classroom environment and encouraged their students to respond with the help of providing them with only 3-5 seconds after asking a question. The research conducted demonstrated that the impact of wait-time on classroom interaction should not be underestimated because it is a beneficial and an easy way to increase student contribution to the lesson especially in language classes. Briefly, wait-time can be quite helpful for both teachers and students in order to increase classroom interaction and student contribution throughout the lessons.

As observed in the Methodology, the study has some limitations such as limited grade range, student profile, teacher profile, etc. For further studies, the current study can be a model. In addition, limitations cannot be neglected. The study could be conducted with a different group of participants whose profiles are not the same with this one, and also the classroom observations are restricted to 6 classroom hours due to the facilities. That is to say, the study can be applied on a different group in a different place in a dissimilar way.

Suggestions

There are also specific suggestions for scholars in this report. The study can be conducted with a larger group in terms of better results. Therefore, the number of the participants including the teachers and the students can be increased in order to reach more generalizable findings. For further studies, it can be suggested that throughout the data collection, the teachers' compensation strategies for the unsuccessful pauses can be examined in more depth and detail.

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Review Article

Language and culture

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Abstract

Language, in the simplest form, is a natural tool for communication. As the cornerstone of human life, language is the most influential transmitter of culture and in this context; it has a natural relationship with culture. We can think of neither language separately from culture, nor culture from language. These two terms form society, and/or society forms language and culture. Therefore, there is a mutual interaction between languages, culture, and society. Language and culture are both intertwined, and language is the carrier of culture. In this sense, language is also the source of new ideas and creativity. These two main features of language have made it the biggest protector, creator, and developer of the society and nation identity, which we call culture. That is, language is a reflection and a voice expression of the culture that enables individuals to develop a sense of belonging to the society they are in. It carries pieces of culture in it and transfers these pieces with sounds and symbols. Within this context, the main aim of this study is to create a framework on the relationship and interaction between these two concepts.

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Dil ve kültür üzerine

Öz

En yalın ifadeyle dil, insanlar arasında iletişim kurmayı sağlayan doğal bir araçtır. İnsan yaşamının temel taşı olan dil kültürün en etkili aktarıcısıdır ve bu bağlamda kültür ile arasında doğal bir ilişki vardır. Ne dil kültürden ayrı, ne de kültür dilden ayrı düşünülebilir. Birbirinden ayrı düşünemeyeceğimiz bu iki unsur toplumu oluşturur ve/veya toplum dil ve kültürü oluşturur. Bir başka ifadeyle, dil ve kültür ait olduğu toplumu biçimlendirdiği gibi toplum da sahip olduğu dil ve kültürü biçimlendirmektedir. Dolayısıyla dil-kültür ve toplum arasında karşılıklı bir etkileşim vardır. Dil ile kültür hem iç içedir hem de dil kültürün taşıyıcısıdır. Bu anlamda dil, yeni fikirlerin ve yaratıcılığın da kaynağıdır. Dilin bu iki temel özelliği, onu kültür dediğimiz toplum ve millet kimliğinin en büyük koruyucusu, yaratıcısı ve geliştiricisi durumuna getirmiştir. Yani dil, bireylerin içinde buldukları topluma karşı bir aidiyet duygusu geliştirmelerini sağlayan kültürün bir yansıması, sesli ifadesidir. İçinde kültürden parçalar taşır ve bu parçaları sesle, sembollerle aktarır. Bu düşünceler ışığında çalışmada dil, kültür ve bu iki kavram arasındaki ilişki ve etkileşim üzerine kuramsal bir çerçeve oluşturmak amaçlanmıştır.

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21 Nisan 2020

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Anahtar kelimeler
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Giriş

Dil, kişiler arası iletişimi sağlayan bir araç olmanın ötesinde, düşünme etkinliğine mantıksal temel sağlayan sürecin başlıca yapıtaşlarından birisidir. Bir dile ait kelimelerle birlikte, en soyut düşünceler belleklerde somut bir biçim kazanır. Öte yandan, dil, konuşulduğu toplumun kültürel özgünlüklerini besleyen bir kanaldır. Bu anlamda kültür ve dil iç içedir. Kültür bir dile ait kelime zenginliği ile doğrudan ilgilidir. Mevcut kelime varlığı, insanların kendilerini ifade ederken bir araya getirerek oluşturdukları bütünlük ve kurallı kullanım çerçevesinde anlam kodlarını içerir. Böylelikle toplumsal anlaşma biçiminin parametreleri kurulmuş olur.

Dilden kesinlikle soyutlayamayacağımız kültür günlük yaşantımızın hemen her aşamasında karşımıza çıkan bir kavramdır. Kavramın çok farklı alanlarda ve çok farklı anlamlarda kullanılması anlamını genişleterek kafa karışıklığı oluşturmaktadır. Toplumda bilgili, görgülü kişilere genellikle "kültürlü" denmekte, dünyada olup bitenlere karşı duyarsız, sosyal aktivitelerde bulunmayan kişilere ise "kültürsüz" sıfatı uygun görülmektedir. Gayet eğitilmiş, bilgili, sanat camiasından kişilerin de bazen kendileri gibi olmayan, bekledikleri davranışları göstermeyen kişilere de bu sıfatı uygun görmesi "kültür"ün entelektüel seviyeyi gösterdiği anlamına ters düşmektedir. Yine şehirde yetişmiş birinin kırsalda yetişmiş birini "kültürlü" olarak görmemesi farklı bir anlam ifade etmektedir. Kültür kavramı aslında pek çok kelimeyle birlikte kullanılmaktadır: Yemek kültürü, tatil kültürü, sokak kültürü, vb. Aslında tüm bu anlamlarda kültür kavramıyla belli bir yaşam şekli ifade edilmeye çalışılmaktadır, yani birine göre kültürlü olan diğerine göre kültürsüz olarak görülebilir, bunu da kişilerin yaşam şekillerinin, alışkanlıklarının benzerlikleri belirler. İnsanların yaşamlarındaki her şey kültürü oluşturur ve bu kültürü aktaran en önemli araç dildir.

Bu çalışma, bu çok önemli iki dinamiği çeşitli tanımlar çerçevesinde birbirleriyle olan etkileşimleri bağlamında ele almayı amaçlamaktadır.

Kültür

Kültür kavramı, tarih boyunca yazardan yazara ve dönemden döneme değişen anlamları içermiştir. Romalılar döneminde dile kazandırılmış bir kelime olan kültürün anlamı da, 16. yüzyıldan itibaren genişlemiş ve değişime uğramıştır. 17. yüzyılda "kültürlü" sıfatı günlük dilde de kullanılmaya başlanmıştır. 18. yüzyılda kültür kavramı değer taşıyan ürünler için de kullanılmış, kültüre bir de seçkin bir tanımlama getirilmiştir. 19. yüzyılın ortalarında ise kitle kültürü ve popüler kültür kavramları ortaya çıkmıştır (Dollot, 1991, s.25).

Kültür kelimesindeki en önemli değişimin, anlamına yüklenen soyut kavramlardan sonra gerçekleştiğini söyleyebiliriz. Kimi çalışmalarda kültür teriminin, insanın yetiştirilmesi, işlenmesi, eğitilmesi anlamında ilk kez kullananların Romalı filozoflar Cicero ve Horatius olduğu belirtilmektedir. Cicero'ya göre kültür, insan nefsinin terbiyesidir, insanın belli ilkelere göre davranması, kişilik sahibi olması halidir (Özlem, 2000, s. 142).

Ünlü Fransız bilim adamı/filozof Abraham A. Moles (1920-1992) kültür kavramının ilk olarak 1793'te basılan bir Alman sözlüğünde kullanıldığını belirtirken (1983, s.1); ünlü antropolog Bozkurt Güvenç (2002, s.96) "culture" sözcüğünün ilk olarak Voltaire tarafından kullanıldığını ve insan zekâsının oluşumu, gelişimi, geliştirilmesi, yüceltilmesi anlamında kullanıldığını belirtmektedir. Voltaire burada kültür ile entelektüaliteyi kastetmektedir. Burada

kültürün diğer bir boyutu dile getirilmekte, kavram toplum bilimsel anlamının dışında kullanılmaktadır.

Modernist şiirin dünyadaki en önemli temsilcisi olan T.S.Eliot'un (1888-1965) kültür tanımı ise kültürün ikinci anlamını içermektedir. Eliot'a göre: Doğumdan ölüme, sabahdan akşama kadar ve hatta uykuda bile bir halkın sahip olduğu inanca, bir bakıma "bütün bir yaşama şekli" olarak görebiliriz ve bu hayat şekline de kültür diyebiliriz (Eliot, 1962, s.21). Burada kültür, gündelik yaşam içerisinde öğrenilen "her şey" olarak görülmektedir. T.S.Eliot'a göre; bireyin kültürü, içinde yaşadığı topluluk ya da sınıfın kültürü ile ilişkilidir; topluluk ya da sınıfın kültürü ise parçası olduğu topluma dayanır. Bu durumda asıl olan toplumun kültürüdür ve terim olarak kültür öncelikle toplumun tamamı ile ilişkili olarak incelenmelidir. İngiliz antropolog Edward Burnett Tylor (1832-1917), 1871 yılında kültür sözcüğüne bilimsel bir içerik kazandırmıştır. O'na göre kültür, toplumun bir üyesi olan insanın öğrendiği, edindiği, bilgi, sanat, gelenek, görenek yanında yetenek, beceri ve alışkanlıkları da içine alan karmaşık bir bütündür (Tylor, 1920, s.13).

20. yüzyılın en büyük düşünürlerinden Jean Paul Sartre'a (1905-1980) göre kültür, içerisinde yer alan bireylerin kişilik yapılarını etkileyerek şekillendirmektedir. Bu nedenle bir ABD'li ile bir Alman ya da bir Japon arasında belirgin kişilik farklılıklarına rastlanılmaktadır. Jean Paul Sartre için kültür "ben"in yaratıcısıdır. İnsan orada yansır, kendini orada tanır; imgesini, yalnızca bu ilkçağdan kalma aynada yakalayabilir. Bu doğrultuda olayları ve olguları birbirinden çok farklı algılayan ve yorumlayan insan grupları ile karşı karşıya kalınmaktadır. İnsanların içinde buldukları kültür, bireyleri o kadar etkilemektedir ki renkler bile farklı anlamlar kazanabilmektedir. Kültür (ya da bir kültür) her iki kullanımda da aynı şeyleri hissetmeyen ya da yapmayan diğerlerinin aksine, bazı kişilerin hissettikleri ya da yaptıkları şeydir (Wallerstein, 1998, s.121). Kültür konusunda en önemli isimlerden biri olan Edward Twitchell Hall (1914-2009) ise "Kültür iletişimdir, iletişim kültürüdür" diyerek kültüre iletişim açısından yaklaşmıştır. Hall'a göre, kültür hayatımızı kontrol eder. Kültür, güneyde seçkin bir grup tarafından incelenmiş egzotik bir kavram değildir, umulmadık şekillerde hepimizin günlük hayatına sevil veren bir harçtır. Kültür, evrensel olduğunu varsaydığımız veya kendimize özgü olduğunu düşündüğümüz için üzerine düşünmediğimiz davranışlarımızdır. (Hall, 1959).

Polonyalı ünlü antropolog Bronislaw Malinowski'nin (1884-1942) tanımlamasına göre (1990, s.39) kültür, aletlerden ve tüketim mallarından, çeşitli toplumsal gruplaşmalar için yapılan anayasal belgelerden, insana özgü düşün ve becerilerden, inanç ve törelerden oluşan bütünsel bir toplamdır. Bu tanımda, insanın doğaya karşıt olarak kendi yaşam evreninde oluşturduklarına yönelik bir niteleme vardır. Ünlü sosyolog Meryl Aldridge'e (1945-) göre (2006, s.47) tarihsel anlamda kültür, doğaya karşıt olarak tanımlanmıştır. Tarımsal kabiliyetler bitki ve hayvan dünyasını daha üretken hale getirmek için yapılan uygulamalardır; bundan dolayı, mecazi olarak, insan zekası ve yaratıcılığı da fikirler alanında bir uygarlık yetiştirmesiydi/ekip biçmesiydi.

Malinowski yaptığı kültür tanımına, insanın ürettiği araç ve gereçleri de katmakta, kültürün üretilmesinde ve geliştirilmesinde bunun önemini belirtmektedir. O'na göre kültür, insanın gereksinimlerinin karşılanması için doğrudan doğruya ya da dolaylı olarak çalışan araç ve gereçler ile gelenek görenekler ve bedensel veya düşünceyle ilişkili alışkanlıkların tümüdür

(Malinowski, 1990, s.45). Buradan hareketle, kültürün üretilmesinde insanın doğayla başa çıkabilmek için geliştirdiği araç ve gereçlerin oldukça önemli olduğu söylenebilir. Uzun yolların kat edilmesi için geliştirilmiş otomobil, rahat yemek yememizi sağlayan çatal, kaşık, bıçak, tabak gibi gereçler ve bilgisayarlar; içinde buldukları toplumların kültürlerini değişime uğratmakta ve yeni bir kültürün geliştirilmesine yol açmaktadır. Örneğin elle yeme kültürü bıçak ve çatalın icat edilmesinden sonra değişime uğramış ve yerini yeni bir sofraya kültürü almıştır.

Kramsch'a göre (1998, s.4-6) kültürün tanımlarından biri doğa ile zıt olandır. Doğal olan kendiliğinden doğmuş ve organik olarak büyümüş olandır ve Latince *nascere* (doğmak)'tan gelir. Kültür ise bakılmış, büyütülmüş olandır ve Latince *toprağı ekip biçmek, geliştirmek, yetiştirmek* anlamlarına gelen *cultivate* kelimesinden gelir. Kramsch'a göre doğa ve kültür ayrı düşünülemez, birbirini tamamlarlar, doğadan gelen özellikleri kültür sosyal yaşam içinde anlamlandırır. Kramsch, Emily Dickinson'un "The General Rose" şiiri doğa fenomenini ve kültürün doğal olan ile ilişkisini gül örneği üzerinden açıklar. Çiçeklerle dolu bir yerde gül güzeldir fakat isimsizdir, kimliği belirsizdir, unutulmaya mahkûmdur. Doğa tek başına gülün özelliğini, farklılığını, kendine özgü güzelliğini ortaya çıkaramaz. Buna karşılık kültür, gülün doğadan gelen kendine has özelliklerini ortaya çıkarır. Kültür o gülden yüksek ücretle satılan az bulunur bir parfüm esansı yapılmasına teknoloji yardımı ile neden olur. Bu da gösterir ki doğa ve kültür birbirini destekler ve birbirlerine ihtiyaç duyar (Kramsch, 1998, s.5).

Williams'a (1977, s.80) göre, tarihte kültür kelimesinin kullanımı ile ilgili farklılıklar kültür kavramının üç boyutunu oluşturmuştur. Bunlardan ilki, bireyin, toplulukların ya da toplumların düşünsel, dinsel ve estetik gelişimini ifade etmektedir. İkinci olarak; düşünsel ve sanatsal etkinlikler ve bunların ürünlerine sahip çıkmak, son olarak da bireyler, topluluklar ve toplumlar için bir yaşam tarzı, etkinlikler, inançlar ve gelenekler oluşturmak şeklinde kültür tanımındaki farklılaşmayı açıklamıştır.

Arslan (2004), Türk literatüründe "kültür" kavramına ilk defa bir karşılık arayan ve buna "hars" diyen düşünürün Ziya Gökalp olduğunu belirtmiş ve Gökalp'ın kültür tanımını "Bir ulusa özgü olan dil, din, edebiyat, güzel sanatlar, hukuk, ekonomi, gelenek ve görenek, töre vs. gibi kurumların toplamına kültür denir." olarak aktarmıştır.

Kültürün, Taylor'un ilk bilimsel anlamda tanımlandığı 1800'lü yılların sonundan günümüze kadar, pek çok tanımla yapılmıştır. Ancak genel anlamda kültür genetik değildir, öğrenilerek aktarılır ve kültürü etkileyen pek çok toplumsal etken bulunmaktadır. Bu nedenle de kültür ile ilgili tek bir tanımlama yapmak olanaksızlaşmaktadır.

Lisa Hoecklin, kültürlerin özelliklerini dört ana başlık altında toplamakta, bir kültürde bu dört ana başlığın mutlaka bulunduğunu söylemektedir: (1995, s. 24-25).

"1- Anlamaların paylaşım sistemidir: Kültür, bir grup insanın neye önem verdiğini dikte ettirmektedir. Dünyanın nasıl algılandığına, bireyin nasıl yaşadığına ve yaşamın kendisini nasıl düzenlediğine rehberlik etmektedir. Gruba ait olan bireylerin aynı şeyleri aynı biçimde görmesi olanaklı kılınmaktadır ve bu da onları bir arada tutmaktadır... Etkili, kalıcı ve anlamlı bir etkileşimin oluşması için insanlar anlamlar sistemini paylaşmalıdır..."

2- Görecelidir: Kültürel kesinlik yoktur. Farklı kültürlerdeki insanlar dünyayı farklı algılamakta, farklı yöntemlerle bir şeyleri yapmaktadır ve bir grubun diğerinden üstün

ya da aşağı olduğunu düşündürecek hiçbir standart yoktur. Her ulusal kültür değerine göre dünyayı algılamak ve işleri yapmak açısından göreceli farklıdır.

3- Öğrenilebilir: Kültür sosyal yapıyla oluşur, genetik yapıyla değil.

4- Gruplarla ilgilidir: Kültür paylaşılan değerler ve anlamlarla ilgili ortaklaşa bir fenomendir. "

Murdock'a göre (1949, s.15) kültür; öğrenebilen davranış ve alışkanlıklardır, dil aracılığı ile nesiller boyu aktarılır, öğretileri toplumdan topluma farklılık gösterebilir, bireysel tutumlar da kültür içerisinde önemli bir yer tutar, yaşamsal ve toplumsal gereksinimleri karşılayan işlevsel bir unsurdur, hem bütünleştirici hem ayrıştırıcıdır, hayatla ilgilidir ama soyut bir kavramdır. Murdock'un da belirttiği gibi kültür dil aracılığı ile nesiller arasında aktarılmaktadır. Yeni nesiller kültürü ve kültürel öğeleri çoğunlukla dil yardımı ile öğrenmekte ve diğer unsurlar beraberinde gelmektedir.

Milli ve kurumsal kültürleri inceleyen ve bu kültürler içerisinde gruplaşmalar olduğunu ve bunun da kültürün üyelerinin davranışları üzerinde etkileri olduğunu savunan, kültüre ait beş boyut olduğunu ortaya çıkaran Hollandalı sosyolog Geert Hofstede'ye göre (2001, s.9-10) kültür "Bir insan grubunun veya sınıfının üyelerini diğerinden ayıran aklın toplu programlanmasıdır." Tanımında akıl sözcüğünü kafa, kalp ve eller yerine kullanmıştır, yani kastettiği düşünmek, hissetmek ve harekete geçmektir, bunların sonucu da inançlar, tavırlar ve becerilerdir. Kültürün bu tanımla değerleri içerdiğini ve değerler sisteminin kültürün temel ögesi olduğunu kabul eder.

Tüm bu tanımlar kültürün hayatı ele alış tarzı olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Kültür her ne kadar belli bir grubun ortak özellikleri üzerinden tanımlanmaya çalışılsa da aslında bir grubu aynı zamanda diğerlerinden ayırt etmemizi sağladığı için farklılıklardır da denilebilir. Bu da kültürün tek bir tanımının olmadığını ve farklı alanların kültürü açıklamaya çalıştığının bir kez daha altını çizmemiz gerektiğini gösterir. Kültürün aktarılmasında en önemli aracı olan dil üzerine ifade edilmiş çok sayıda tanım olmakla birlikte, bu çalışmaya paralellik gösteren bazı tanımlar aşağıda vurgulanmıştır.

Dil

İnsanlık tarihinde, insanların birbirleriyle resim diliyle, bazı şekillerle veya hareket ve tavır dilini kullanarak bir şekilde anlaşma yolları arayışlarının olduğu bilinmektedir. Bu şekilde birbiriyle anlaşma çabalarının sonucunda ortaya çıkan ve insanlar arası iletişimi sağlamada çok önemli bir yeri olan dil, insanın, duygularını, düşüncelerini, isteklerini bütün incelikleriyle açığa vurmasına, yaşamını sürdürebilmesine olanak sağlayarak insanın özelliklerini, yaşayışını, dünya görüşünü, yaşam felsefesini ve inançlarını yansıtır. Nitekim bir iletişim aracı olan dil aracılığıyla kendimizi ifade ederken kullandığımız sözcükler, söyleyiş şeklimiz, tavırımız vb. karşı tarafa, içinde yaşadığımız kültür, çevremiz, eğitim durumumuz hakkında birçok bilgi verir. Günümüze dek birçok bilim adamı ve düşünür tarafından dilin pek çok tanımı yapılmıştır. Bunlardan en önemlisi olan ünlü Yunan düşünürü Platon'a göre dil, "kendi özel düşüncelerini sesin yardımıyla, özne ve yüklem aracılığıyla anlaşılabilir duruma getirmek" şeklinde tanımlanmıştır (Aksan, 1995, s.11).

Dilbilimin kurucusu olarak kabul edilen Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) dilin,

iletişim sağlamak amacıyla insanların sahip olduğu doğal bir araç olduğunu söyler. Ona göre dili kullanabilmek için vücudumuz vokal aygıtlarla donatılmıştır. Saussure'ün, dilin yapısı hakkındaki bu haritayı oluşturmakta kullandığı üç temel kavram vardır: Langage, langue ve parole. Langage, doğal dildir; doğanın bir ürünüdür. Langue özel dildir ve toplum içerisinde sosyal ve kültürel olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Parole ise insanların sahip olduğu yetiyi temsil eder; konuşma anlamına gelir. Bu farklılığı sosyal ve bireysel olan olmak üzere ikiye ayırarak, dili konuşanın bir fonksiyonu değil, bireysel olarak pasif bir şekilde özümlenen bir ürün olarak, konuşmayı ise bireysel bir edim olarak görmektedir. Langue ile parole birbirine taban tabana zıt, ancak birbiri ile var olabilen bir yapıyı arz etmektedir. Langage ise langue ile parole arasındaki ilişkiyi kuran bağ olarak tanımlanabilir (Saussure, 1959, s.10-14).

Yirminci yüzyılın en büyük filozoflarından biri olan Ludwig Wittgenstein (1889-1951); ilk dönemi sayılan eseri *Tractatus Logico Philosophicus*'ta Saussure'un yapısalcı dil tanımlamasına benzer yapıda bir ideal dil tarifi yapmıştır. "Dünya, olduğu gibi olan her şeydir" önermesiyle kitabına başlayan Wittgenstein "Gündelik dil, insan örgenliğinin bir parçasıdır ve ondan daha az karmaşık değildir. Ondan, dilin mantığını dolaysız olarak çıkarmak, insan için olanaksızdır. Dil düşünceyi örter. Öyle ki, örtünün dış biçiminden, örtülen düşüncenin biçimi konusunda sonuç çıkarılamaz, çünkü örtünün dış biçimi, tamamıyla başka amaçlar için kurulmuştur; gövdenin biçimini belli etmek amacıyla değil. Gündelik dilin anlaşılması için yapılan sessiz düzenlemeler, korkunç derecede karmaşıktır. " demiştir (Wittgenstein, 1996, s.45).

Wittgenstein ile ayrı başlangıç noktaları olmasına rağmen dil kuramında çoğulculuğu ve düşünceyi eylem olarak ele alışıyla benzer bir noktada buluşan bir düşünür ve edebiyat teorisyeni de Mikhail Bakhtin'dir (1895-1975). Bakhtin'in dil düşüncesinin önemli kavramlarından biri heteroglossia yani çok katmanlı dil, çok dilliliktir. Heteroglossia, dilde farklı şekillerde yapılanmış toplumsal söz biçimlerine işaret eder. Dildeki bu çok dilli yapılar arasında sürekli bir etkileşim mevcuttur. Bakhtin, herhangi ulusal bir dilin yerel lehçeleriyle, yaş gruplarının dilleriyle, moda olan jargonlarıyla, bir firmanın çalışanlarının aralarında yaptıkları şakalaşmalarla, dilin sürekli katmanlaştığını söylemektedir. Bu katmanları oluşturan dillerin her birinde biçimler ve anlamlar bulunmaktadır. Dil yaşayan bir varlık olduğu sürece katmanlaşma artmaktadır. Bu katmanlaşma, dile süreklilik arz eden ve toplumsal anlamlarla yüklü vurgular ve amaçlar yüklenmesinin kendisidir (Bakhtin, 1986, s.14). Saussure, Wittgenstein ve Bakhtin dili donuk ve ideal gören kuramların aksine eylemsel, dinamik ve insanla birlikte yaşayan bir varlık olarak ortaya koymuşlardır. Bu yeni dil kuramları, insanın ve insanla ilişkili olan her türlü bilginin farklı açılardan yeniden gözden geçirilmesine olanak tanımıştır. Eleştirel ve söylemsel psikoloji gibi alanlar kendilerini bu kuramlar üzerinden yapılandırmıştır.

Dilin göstergebilimsel ve anlambilimsel açıdan tanımlarına dönecek olursak Fransız dilbilimci André Martinet'e (1908-1999) göre bir dil, insan deneyiminin, topluluktan topluluğa değişen biçimlerde, anlamsal bir içerikle sessel bir anlatım kapsayan birimlere, başka bir deyişle anlam birimlere ayrıştırılmasını sağlayan bir bildirişim aracıdır (Vardar, 2002, s.171-172). Doğan Aksan ise dili, "düşünce, duygu ve isteklerin, bir toplumda ses ve anlam yönünde ortak olan öğeler ve kurallardan yararlanılarak başkalarına aktarılmasını sağlayan, çok yönlü, çok gelişmiş bir dizge" şeklinde tanımlamaktadır (Aksan, 1995, s.55).

Dil insanlar arasında iletişimi sağlayan, kelimeleri ile birlikte bir kültürel doku barındıran ve insanoğlunun varoluşundan beri mevcut olan bir iletişim aracıdır. Dilin kurumsal bir sistem olarak ele alınması, kendine ait kanunları ve kuralları ile işleyen bir yapı teşkil etmesinden ötürüdür. İnsanların bu kurumdan yaralanırken kendi çıkarları için bu sistemin köşe taşları olan kültür ve dil yapısı özelliklerini iyi sindirmiş olmaları gerekir. Aksi takdirde dil; iletişim sürecinde yapıcı, yarar sağlayıcı olmaktan çıkar ve çeşitli çatışmalara ve önyargı tutumlarının beslenmesine bile neden olabilir. "Dil, bir milletin hayatının aynasıdır" diyen Kaplan (1915-1986), dil, insan hayatının her anına refakat ettiği için dile, dildeki ifade şekillerine bakınca bir milletin çağlar boyunca yaşadığı bütün duygu, düşünce ve hayallerinin akislerinin bulunabileceğini belirtir. Bu açıdan her milletin dili, o milletin çağlar boyunca yaşadığı tarihin adeta özetidir (Kaplan, 2000, s.143). Bu nedenle, toplumun gelişimiyle dilin gelişimi arasında çok sıkı bir bağ vardır. Millet ilerleyip geliştikçe, o milletin dili de gelişir; gelişmiş bir dille de yüksek bir kültür meydana getirilebilir (Ünalın, 2010, s.29-30).

Dil, kültürün taşıyıcı ögesi, nesilden nesle kültürü aktaran unsurdur. Sosyal hayatlarımızı yürütürken, dil her zaman önemli bir nokta olmuştur. Dilin, iletişim kavramıyla birlikte düşünülmesiyle kültür kavramı da öne çıkmaktadır (Kramsch, 1998, s.3). Bu yüzden dil ile kültür kavramı ilişkisinin yakından incelenmesi gerekmektedir.

Dil-kültür ilişkisi ve etkileşimi

Dilin güçlü etkisi, kültür varlığının her alanında kendisini hissettirir. Toplum, din, edebiyat, tarih, bilim, eğitim gibi kültürün her alanı dilin damgasını taşır. İnsanlar arası ilişkiler gibi kurumlar ve toplumlar arası ilişkiler de dille kurulur, dille sürdürülür. Toplumda maddi ve manevi olan her şey dilde de vardır. Kültürel ve tarihi miras ancak dil aracılığı ile yeni kuşaklara aktarılır. Dil, kültürel muhtevanın bir ansiklopedisi/bir sözlüğü durumundadır. Başta kendi kültürel şartlarını (çevresini) oluşturan insanın, sonradan meydana getirdiği o kültürün gereklerine göre yaşamaya başladığı görülür. Böylece insan da kültürün etkisinde kalır ve kendi yaşayış tarzını içinde bulunduğu kültür hayatına göre ayarlar. Kültürel birikim dil ile sağlanırken, aynı zamanda bir kültürün yansımaları da kendisini dilde gösterir. Bir toplumun mensuplarının inanç, tutum, davranış, sosyal alışkanlıklar bütünü olan kültür, toplumun her üyesi tarafından öğrenilen, bilinen, anonimleşmiş, genel kabul görmüş belirli bir bilgiyi gerektirir. Dolayısıyla kültür, bir hayat tarzı ve bu hayat tarzının bilgisi ve bu bilginin pratiğe dönüşmesidir (Ünalın, 2010, s. 227).

Wenying Jiang için dil, kültürün önemli bir parçasıdır ve kültür içinde önemli bir role sahiptir. Jiang, dil ve kültürü bir buzdağına benzetmektedir, buzdağının görünen kısmı dil, buzdağının suyun altında kalan kısmı ise kültürün görünmeyen parçalarıdır. Jiang'ın, bir başka benzetmesi de şu şekildedir, "Dil beden, kültür ise kandır. Kültür olmazsa dil ölür. Dil olmazsa kültür şekillenemez" (Jiyang, 2000). Jiang'ın bu kan ve et metaforu dil-kültür arasındaki bağı çok güzel somutlaştırmıştır.

Uygur, "Dil, kültür yapısını bir arada tutan çimentodur" diyerek dil-kültür arasındaki ilişki için farklı bir metafor sunmuştur. Buna ek olarak "Dil, kültür alanının her yanını aydınlatan güneştir; dil, kültür kilimini dokuyan ipliktedir; dil, tüm kültür anıtlarının yansıdığı akarsudur" diyen Uygur (1996, s.21) tek yanlı izlenimleri ortadan kaldırmak için farklı metaforlar kullanarak dil-kültür arasındaki bağı somutlaştırmıştır. Sonuç olarak baktığımızda

dil-kültür arasındaki bu ilişki-bağ birbirlerinin gelişimini de etkilemektedir. Kültürün gelişmesiyle dil, dilin gelişmesiyle kültür gelişir ve zenginleşir. Kültürü inceleyerek dilin ne büyük bir mucize olduğu; dil mucizesini inceleyerek kültürün insan üzerindeki etkileri ve sonuçları anlaşılabilir (Güvenç, 1997, s.48).

Amerikalı ünlü dilbilimci Robert Lado (1915-1995), dilin bir anda gelişmediğini, kültürün parçası ve toplumun üyelerinin iletişimi için ana gereklilik olduğunu söylemektedir. Diller arasındaki kültürel farklılıklar ikinci bir dil öğrenirken problem oluşturmaktadır. Bu duruma örnek olarak Eskimoların "kar" için sahip olduğu zengin kelime yelpazesini vermiştir. Bu kelimeler arasındaki farklılıklar İngilizce konuşan biri için anlaşılabilir, ancak Eskimo dilinde önemlidirler ve doğru yerde kullanılmalıdırlar (1964, s.7).

"Wilhelm von Humboldt, ulusların karakterlerini ve kültürlerini dillerinde araştırmak gerektiğine inanmıştır" diyen Akarsu (1998, s.7), Humboldt'un, dili bir ulusun kültür düzeyini gösteren en iyi araç olarak kabul ettiğini ve ancak kendi diline dayanan, kendi dilinde ilerlemeler yapan bir ulusun, gerçek bir kültürün yaratıcısı olabileceğini savunduğunu söylemektedir.

Diller kendi doğdukları kültürün yansımasıdır. Bu durumu Adalı (1983, s.31) şu şekilde açıklamıştır: Çocuk gözünü, kendisini çepeçevre kuşatan bir dil içinde açar. Bu onun anadilidir. O dilin ses dizgesini edinir, o dilin anlama, anlatma yoluyla bilinci uyanır. Yani dil, kişinin doğduğu andan beri duyduğu, onu çepeçevre saran ve onu içinde yaşadığı kültür ile donatan bir araçtır.

Dil ile kültür arasındaki karşılıklı ilişkiyi inceleyen toplumsal dilbilim alanı mevcuttur. Toplumsal dilbilim dil olguları ile toplumsal olgular arasındaki karşılıklı ilişkiyi ve bu iki alanın birbirini nasıl etkilediğini inceler. Toplumsal dilbilimin amacı toplumsal olayların dili ve dilin toplumsal olayları nasıl etkilediğini, karşılıklı geçişi açıklamaktır. Dolayısıyla dil ile kültür arasında karşılıklı bir etkileşim olduğu tezi üzerinden hareketle ilerler. Güven'e göre toplumsal dilbilim, dil ile toplum arasındaki ilişkide kesişim kümesinde yer alan kavramların sebep-sonuç ilişkisi içinde hepsinin değerlendirilmesini içerir. Bu incelemede, ele aldığı konuları bir yöntem dâhilinde inceler ve bilimsel bulgulara ulaşır (Güven, 2012, s.55-62).

Toplumsal dilbilim çalışmalarının temeli Amerika'da kullanılan İngilizceye dayanmaktadır. Kuzey Amerika'da kullanılan İngilizce ile siyahilerin konuştukları İngilizce arasındaki farklar ve bu farklardan doğan olguları inceleme arayışı toplumsal dilbilimin ilk araştırma konularıdır. Bu da göstermektedir ki, aynı kıtada aynı dili konuşan insanlar arasında bile kültürel farklılıklar dilin kullanımını etkilemekte, aynı dil bile olsa kültürel olgulardan etkilenmekte ve farklı kullanım alışkanlıkları ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu alanda yapılan önemli çalışmalardan biri "Sapir-Whorf hipotezidir". Bu hipoteze göre anadildeki bütün sözcük yapıları bireyin dünyaya bakışını, görüşünü, çerçevesini şekillendirir (Güven, 2012, s.56).

Dil ve kültür arasında karmaşık bir bağ bulunmaktadır çünkü iletişim sırasında insanların kavramsal süreçlerini anlamak oldukça zordur (Elmes, 2013). Diğer bir deyişle, dilin kültürle olan bağlantısı ve iletişim sürecinde içerdiği kültürle bağlantılı olan kavramsal süreçler dil ve kültür arasında ayrılmaz bir bağ kurmaktadır. Bu sayede dil, kültürden kavramsal anlamda direkt etkilenir hale gelmektedir. Yeni bir dili öğrenmek yeni bir kültürü de tanımak demektir. Aksan, dilin toplumla ve onun kültürüyle olan ilişkisini şöyle açıklar: (1995, s.65)

"Bir ulusun yaşayış biçimi, inançları, gelenekleri, dünya görüşü, çeşitli

nitelikleri ve hatta tarih boyunca bu toplumda meydana gelen çeşitli olaylar üzerinde hiçbir bilgimiz olmasa, yalnızca dilbilim incelemeleriyle, bu dilin söz varlığının, söz hazinesinin derinliğine inerek bütün bu konularda çok değerli bilgiler ve güvenilir ipuçları edinebiliriz.”

Fransız sosyolog Bourdieu'nun da aralarında bulunduğu bazı çağdaş araştırmacılar, dilin tarihsel ve toplumsal bir fenomen olduğunu ve türdeş dil topluluğu görüşünün sanal olduğunu ileri sürmektedirler. Bourdie'ya göre ideal ortak dil ve onu konuşan dil topluluğu, bu dile meşruluk kazandıran toplumsal ve tarihsel koşullar tarafından yapılandırılmıştır. Dil de bir inşadır, ama öyle bir inşadır ki, diğer inşaların (kültürün bütün diğer öğelerinin) oluşumunu ve aktarımını sağlar (Virtanen, 2002, s.9). Bu anlamda dil, kültürün tümüyle hiçbir zaman tam olarak örtüşmez, kültürün bir dalı, bir alanı, bir boyutudur. Ancak önemi bakımından dil kültürün hiçbir ögesi ile de karşılaştırılmaz. Dil, kültürün içinde yer alan ve kültür yapısını bütün olarak bir arada tutan unsurdur. Dil, kültürü hem kurar hem geliştirir, genellikle toplumsallaşmayı ve toplumsallaşma ile birlikte tarihsel sürekliliği de sağlar. Ortak bir dil konuşanlara özgü bir topluluğun üyesi olan insan, belli bir kültürün de üyesi durumundadır (Uygur, 1996, s.18-19).

"Bir toplumu oluşturan bütün bireyler, bu ortak anlaşma aracını kullanır. Bu bakımdan dil, her toplumda bir sosyal akrabalık bağı oluşturmuştur. Bunun dışında dil, bir düşünce aracıdır. Düşünce dile dayanarak, daha doğrusu dille kaynaşarak görevini yapabilir" diyen ünlü dilbilimci Joseph Vendryes (1875-1960) düşünmek için dilin gerekli olduğunu, düşünceyi ifade edebilecek bir aracı olmadan düşüncenin de doğamayacağını savunur. Bu durumda düşünceyi oluşturan ve geliştiren dil engellendiğinde düşünce de engellenmiş olur. Dolayısıyla ancak dilini oluşturan, yücelten bir ulus gerçek bir düşünce etkinliği gösterebilir. Dili ilkel kalmış bir ulus, kültür yaşamında da ilerleme gösteremez (Vendryes, 2001, s.21).

Sonuç

Dil, insanlar arasında iletişimi sağlayan en temel unsurdur. Dil edinim süreci insan doğmadan önce başlar. Anne karnındaki bir bebeğin sesi algılayabildiği ve bu sese tepki verdiği bilinmektedir. Doğum sonrası süreçten itibaren de geçen her yıl dil edinimi devam etmektedir. Bu süreçte dile paralel bir şekilde gelişen başka bir unsur da kültürdür. Kültür dilden, dil kültürden ayrı düşünülemez. İnsan bu kültür ve dil hamuru ile yoğrulur. Böylece insanın kendi dili ve kültürü düşüncesinde büyük bir rol oynar. Kültürü oluşturan unsurlar söz konusu olduğunda da karşımıza çıkan en önemli yapı taşlarından biri tartışmasız dildir. İnsanlığın başlangıcından beri dil toplulukların yaşamlarını sürdürmelerinde önemli bir yer tutmuş; insanoğlunun bilgi birikimini, mirasını gelecek kuşaklara aktarmada her daim önemli olmuştur. Neredeyse her topluluk kendi içinde iletişim kurabilmek için yeni bir dil geliştirmiş, bu diller de yine kendi içinde çeşitli değişikliklerle alt kültürleri temsil eder hale gelmiştir. Günümüzde bir kişinin hangi kültürden hatta hangi alt kültürden geldiğini ayırt etmede en belirgin özellik dildir. Böylelikle dil, kendi bireyleri arasında iletişimi kuvvetlendirmiş ve kültürün de devamını sağlamıştır. Karmaşık ve geniş bir yapıya sahip olan kültürün temeli dildir. Kültür dili etkiler ve kendini dil ile var eder.

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Extended abstract

Introduction

Language is not only a tool for interpersonal communication, but also one of the main building blocks of the process that provides a logical basis for thinking activity. Along with the words of a language, the most abstract thoughts require a concrete form in memories. On the other hand, language is a channel that nurtures the cultural peculiarities of the society in which it is spoken. In this sense, culture and language intertwined. Culture is directly related to the richness of the vocabulary in a language. The existing vocabulary includes the codes of meaning within the framework of the integrity and regular use that people create while putting themselves together. Thus, the parameters of the form of social agreement are established. Culture, which we can never isolate from language, is a concept that we encounter in almost every stage of our daily life. It creates confusion by expanding the meaning of using the concept in many different meanings. People who are knowledgeable and well-informed in the society are generally called "cultured", and those who are insensitive to what is happening in the world and those who do not engage in social activities are considered "uncultured". That well educated and knowledgeable people from art community approve of using this adjective for the people who do not behave as they do contradicts with the fact that culture shows intellectual level. Also, the fact that people who grew up in the city does not consider the country side people to be "cultured" has a different meaning. The concept of culture is actually used with many words: Food culture, holiday culture, street culture, etc. As a matter of fact, a certain way of life is tried to be expressed with concept of culture in all these usages. That is, who is considered to be cultured by a person may not be seen the same way by another one. This is determined by similarities of people's lifestyles and habits. Everything in people's lives forms culture, and language is the most important tool to convey this culture. This study aims to approach these two important dynamics in the context of their interactions with each other within the framework of various definitions.

Culture

The concept of culture has included meanings varying from author to author and from time to time throughout history. The meaning of culture, a word expressed in the Roman period, has expanded and changed since the 16th century. In the 17th century, the adjective "cultured" began to be used in everyday language. In the 18th century, the concept of culture was also used for products of value, and an elitist definition was introduced to the culture. In the middle of the 19th century, the concepts of mass culture and popular culture emerged (Dollot, 1991, p. 25). All these definitions reveal that culture is the way of handling life. Even though culture is tried to be defined through the common characteristics of a certain group, it can be said that they are different because they actually enable us to distinguish one group from others. This indicates that we should underline once again that there is no single definition of culture, and that different areas are trying to explain the culture. Although there are many definitions expressed on language, which is the most important tool for the transfer of culture, some definitions that are parallel to this study are highlighted below.

Language

Language is the carrier element of culture, the element that transfers culture from generation to generation. Language has always been important in our social lives. The concept of culture comes to the fore by considering language together with the concept of communication (Kramsch, 1998, p. 3). As language and culture shape the society to which it belongs, society shapes the language and culture it has. Therefore, the relationship between language and culture concept needs to be examined closely.

The relationship and interaction of language and culture

The strong influence of language makes itself felt in all areas of cultural existence. Every field of culture, such as society, religion, literature, history, science, education, carries the stamp of language. Relations between institutions and societies, such as, interpersonal relations are also established and maintained in language. Everything that is material and spiritual is also in the language. Cultural and historical heritage is transferred to new generations only through language. Language is an encyclopaedia / dictionary of the cultural content. It is seen that the person who initially created her own cultural conditions (environment) started to live according to the requirements of that culture she later created. Thus, the human remains under the influence of culture and adjusts her own lifestyle according to the culture life in which she lives. While cultural accumulation is provided by language, at the same time, reflections of a culture show itself in the language. Culture, which is a whole of belief, attitude, behaviour, and social habits of the members of a society, requires certain, known, generally accepted knowledge that is learned by every member of the society (Unalan, 2010, p. 227).

Discussion

One of the most important building blocks that we encounter when it comes to the elements that make up the culture is the undisputed language. Language has been an important part of communities' survival since the beginning of humanity; it has always been important to transfer the knowledge and heritage of human begins to future generations. Almost every community has developed a new language to communicate within itself, and these languages have also become sub-cultures with various changes in themselves. The foundation of culture, which has a complex and wide structure, is language. Culture affects language and creates itself with language.