

JLRR

Journal of Language Research

ISSN 2602-4578





<https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/jlr>

Volume 5, Issue 1 (December, 2021)

ISSN: 2602-4578

Journal of Language Research

Journal of Language Research (JLR) is a double-blind peer-reviewed international journal which aims to publish articles in the fields of language learning and teaching in general, foreign or second language learning, language and linguistics studies. The journal is published annually and accepts manuscripts in English and Turkish. Teachers and researchers are always welcome to submit unpublished, original, and full-length articles that are not under review in any other journals.

Journal of Language Research is indexed/listed by Index Copernicus, Asos Index, Ideal Online, and Google Scholar. Journal of Language Research publishes fully open access issues. The journal does not charge authors for any fee for any submission, peer review, or publication. Authors submitting articles to Journal of Language Research agree that their manuscript is free of plagiarism and they have provided appropriate references. The manuscript sent for publication are checked against plagiarism using 'iThenticate'.

Editors-in-Chief

Emrah EKMEKÇİ

Ondokuz Mayıs University, Türkiye

İsmail YAMAN

Ondokuz Mayıs University, Türkiye

Editors

(Listed alphabetically)

Ahmet Önal

Süleyman Demirel University, Türkiye

Atta Gebril

The American University in Cairo, Egypt

Cafer Özdemir

Ondokuz Mayıs University, Türkiye

Henryk Jankowski

Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland

İskender Hakkı Sarıgöz

Gazi University, Türkiye

İsmail Çakır

Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Türkiye

Janice Bland

University of Vechta, Germany

Kerima Filan

University of Sarajevo, Bosnia Herzegovina

Lulzime Kamberi

University of Tetova, North Macedonia

Müfit Şenel

Ondokuz Mayıs University, Turkey

Paşa Tefik Cephe

Gazi University, Türkiye

Tuğba Elif Toprak Yıldız

İzmir Demokrasi University, Turkey

Tuğçe Elif Taşdan Doğan

Samsun University, Türkiye

Ute Smit

University of Vienna, Austria

Supervisory Board
(Listed alphabetically)

Abdlvahit akır
Ufuk University, Trkiye

Adem Soru
University of Bath, United Kingdom

Adnan Oflaz
Ondokuz Mayıs University, Trkiye

Ahmet Aycan
Ondokuz Mayıs University, Trkiye

Ahmet Bařal
Yıldız Technical University, Trkiye

Ali Karakař
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Trkiye

Atta Gebril
The American University in Cairo, Egypt

Bekir řiřman
Ondokuz Mayıs University, Trkiye

Binnur Gen İlter
Akdeniz University, Trkiye

Cem Balıkanlı
Gazi University, Turkey

Dinay Kksal
anakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey

Fatma Feryal ubuku
Dokuz Eyll University, Turkey

Henryk Jankowski
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland

Iřıl Klundby
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland

İskender Hakkı Sarıgz
Gazi University, Turkey

Janice Bland
University of Vechta, Germany

Katarzyna Stefaniak-Rak
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland

Hasan Selim Kirođlu
Ondokuz Mayıs University, Trkiye

İsmail Hakkı Mirici
Hacettepe University, Türkiye

Kemal Sinan Özmen
Gazi University, Türkiye

Mehmet Özcan
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Türkiye

Mümtaz Kaya
Hacettepe University, Türkiye

Nashwa Nashaat Sobhy
San Jorge University, Spain

Nilüfer Bekleyen
Dicle Üniversitesi, Türkiye

Ömer Şekerci
Süleyman Demirel University, Türkiye

Paşa Tevfik Cephe
Gazi University, Turkey

Safa Çelebi
Ondokuz Mayıs University, Türkiye

Ute Smit
University of Vienna, Austria

INDEXES

INDEX  COPERNICUS
I N T E R N A T I O N A L

 idealonline

A S O S
indeks

 Google
Scholar

Table of Contents

Teaching Grammar through Form-Focused Instruction: The Case of Teaching Modal Verbs to Turkish EFL Learners	1
Hüsnü Gümüş	
Emotional Intelligence and Language Teaching	17
Mert Pekbay, Our Karasu, Oya Tunaboğlu	
Kitap İncelemesi: "İletişim ve Medya Bağlamında Çevirmen Başvuru Kitabı"	31
İsmail Yaman	
Book Review: "Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: Contemporary Issues in EFL Education"	33
Rabia İrem Durmuş	

Teaching Grammar Through Form-Focused Instruction: The Case of Teaching Modal Verbs to Turkish EFL Learners

Hüsnü GÜMÜŞ¹,  Pamukkale University, husnug@pau.edu.tr

Recommended citation: Gumus, H (2021). Teaching Grammar through Form-Focused Instruction: The Case of Teaching Modal Verbs to Turkish EFL Learners. *Journal of Language Research (JLR)*, 5(1), 1-16, DOI: [10.51726/jlr.886107](https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.886107)

Abstract: The present study attempted to explore the effectiveness of form-focused-instruction (FFI) in a context where English is learned as a foreign language. In particular, the purpose of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of the planned focus-on-form instruction (FoF) in comparison with focus-on-forms (FoFs) in the acquisition of a set of modal verbs. The participants of the study were 8th grade students (n= 37) studying at a middle school in Denizli. The present study adopted a mixed-method research design. The quantitative part involved a pretest, a treatment stage, and a posttest while the qualitative part consisted of written semi-structured interviews. The data obtained from the pretest and posttest were statistically analyzed through SPSS 17.0 with the aim of measuring the effectiveness of the two instructional treatments. As for the qualitative part, interviews were translated into Turkish and the data was subjected to content analysis and thus analyzed through pattern- coding process to identify recurrent themes. At the end of the study, it was found that planned FoF instruction was more effective than FoFs instruction in the participants' learning of target forms. In addition, at the end of the content analysis, it was found that the participants favored planned FoF instruction because they benefited from guessing the meanings out of the context as it helped them retain the knowledge for a longer period of time. In addition, the participants stated that their exam scores have been positively affected by planned FoF instruction.

Keywords: *Focus on form, Focus on forms, Planned focus on form, Grammar Teaching, Modal verbs*

INTRODUCTION

Researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) have long debated on how grammar can be best taught in second or foreign language classrooms. According to Ellis (2008), grammar enables language users to have control over their expression and communication in everyday life. Having competence over grammatical structures together with lexical items allow speakers to communicate their emotions and purposes more effectively. During the past few decades, the focus of grammar teaching in classrooms has shifted from an emphasis on language structures to utilizing the language within communicative contexts. Regarding this issue, research and discussions on grammar teaching have recently focused on the distinction between focus-on-forms (FoFs) and focus-on-form (FoF) (Long, 1991).

In FoFs instruction, language is composed of isolated linguistic structures and taught in a pre-determined order through explicit explanations of grammar rules and immediate correction of errors

¹ ORCID ID: 0000-0002-4055-8805

Submitted: 24.02.2020

Accepted: 14.04.2021

<https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.886107>



(Long, 2000). In other words, the teacher actually provides the students with grammatical rules and explanations, which was defined by Harmer as overt teaching (Harmer, 1989). In this instruction, learners are exposed to a typical sequence of “presentation of a grammatical structure, its practice in controlled exercises, and the provision of opportunities for production-PPP” (Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2002, p.420). The basis for this approach is that the explicit knowledge regarding grammar rules will become implicit knowledge through adequate practice (De Keyser, 1998). On the other hand, Long (1991) defined focus-on-form as "an instruction that draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (p. 45-46). In other words, FoF is an instructional method through which learners' attention is drawn to linguistic forms within communicative contexts. Therefore, it requires a prerequisite engagement in comprehending meaning before attaining successful learning of linguistic forms (Long & Robinson, 1998).

Sheen (2002) stated that the two instruction types are different from each other in terms of to what extent a teacher draws students' attention to specific grammar issues. The purpose of FoFs instruction is to help learners gain mastery on grammatical units rather than focusing on communicative purposes. The overall assumption here is that in a language classroom, learners attain language competence only if they are exposed to discrete-point grammar teaching. communication (de La Fuente, 2002; Ellis & He, 1999; Long, 1991). In FoF instruction, however, learners' main focus remains on processing the message they wish to convey, or the message in the input they are exposed to, though learners' attention is occasionally shifted from meaning to grammatical structures. This shift may happen when learners attempt to solve a comprehension or production problem. In short, during a FoF instruction, the teacher draws the learners' attention to specific linguistic or grammatical units through the use of several meaning focused communicative activities so as to enhance learners' accuracy (Long & Robinson, 1998).

FoFs instruction has been harshly criticized by some scholars for being artificial, dull and teacher-centered since it does not allow learners to be engaged in meaningful communication and interaction which are crucial to language acquisition in a classroom (Long, 2000). When it comes to English teaching in Turkish context, many scholars have stated that English language teaching/learning is obviously problematic (Aktas, 2005; Isik, 2008; Oguz, 1999; Paker, 2007; Tilfarlioglu & Ozturk, 2007). Many of these problems with English education in Turkey can be attributed to the old-fashioned methods implemented by Turkish EFL teachers who tend to apply traditional grammar instruction by assigning workbook exercises or worksheets, providing explicit grammatical explanations in mother tongue, carrying out quizzes on grammatical forms and repetition drills (Uysal & Bardakçı, 2014). Such an application, which is associated with FoFs instruction, has called for an action to come up with a better way of teaching the language to learners.

Considering the different features of FoF and FoFs and the problematic issues related to foreign language education in Turkey, this research study aims to explore the effectiveness of form-focused-instruction in a context where English is learned as a foreign language. In particular, the purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of the planned focus-on-form instruction in comparison with FoFs in the acquisition of a set of modal verbs by 8th grade students studying at a middle school in Denizli.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this section, certain aspects of FoF and FoFs will be discussed in two sections to provide insights into both of these instruction types. The first section reviews various definitions of FFI and its sub-categories as well as presenting some basic theories behind this instruction type. The second section presents a number of empirical studies conducted on FFI.



Focus on Form and Its Underlying Theories

In literature, it has been stated that there are several underlying theories in SLA that could have triggered the emergence of FoF. For instance, Long (2000) claims that FoF instruction is closely linked with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990). According to this hypothesis, noticing the input in a conscious manner through a cognitive process is crucial for second language acquisition. Another important theory which might have an impact on FoF is Krashen's Monitor Theory. In his theory, Krashen (1981) makes the distinction between learning and acquiring a language, and comes up with non-interface position, which suggests that formal instruction has no place in L2 acquisition. Therefore, there would be no point in learning grammar as comprehensive input is enough to make learners acquire the language. In addition, in his Interaction Hypothesis Long (1991), emphasizes the significant role of interaction and negotiated input in acquisition. Since learners notice their shortcomings and deficiencies in the target language through interacting with other language users, they might become more aware of their grammatical or linguistic inadequacies in their languages through and make the necessary revisions in their existing knowledge. Lastly, Swain's Output hypothesis is considered to be a significant theory which is related to FFI. It has been stated that "If students are given insufficient feedback or no feedback regarding the extent to which their messages have successfully been conveyed, output may not serve these roles" (Swain, 1991, as cited in Farrokhi, & Chehrazad, 2012, p.98).

Different Types of Focus on Form

In this section, different ways of delivering FoF instruction will be discussed. To start with, Ellis (2005) made a distinction between planned and incidental FoF. In planned FoF, pre-determined linguistic items are handled through activities where the priority is given to meaning rather than linguistic items. This could be achieved through providing input or eliciting output during student-teacher interactions. As the items are selected before a meaning-focused activity, the communicative tasks and activities are also designed accordingly so that the selected linguistic items can be practiced during meaning focused activities. In short, in planned FoF instruction, the specific linguistic unit becomes a component of the task prior to the teaching practice, and there is an intensive and comprehensive treatment on this selected linguistic unit throughout the task. Incidental FoF (Ellis, 2001) on the other hand, occurs without any deliberate intention while the teacher is implementing meaning-focused tasks and activities, which could aim for different linguistic elements. That is to say, contrary to planned FoF instruction, incidental FoF involves tasks that don't have a specific focus on a pre-determined form but aim for a meaning-focused and content based language teaching. On the other hand, the linguistic items highlighted in incidental FoF occur spontaneously during meaning-focused activities.

Another distinction regarding FoF has been done based on whether it is reactive or preemptive (Ellis, 2001). Reactive FoF occurs when learners produce an utterance that contains an observed or perceived error, which might be either dealt with by the teacher or by another learner. On the other hand, in preemptive FoF, the teacher or learner draws attention to form though no actual problem in production has been observed. In other words, reactive FoF deals with an observed or perceived performance problem while preemptive FoF addresses an actual or a perceived inadequacy in the learners' knowledge. In short, both reactive and preemptive focus-on-form instruction could be utilized by teachers to address learners' errors which might otherwise bring about communication breakdowns.

Lastly, there are isolated and integrated FFI types. In the former one, the focus on language form is separated from the communicative or content-based activity while in the latter one the learners' attention is focused on language form during communicative or content-based instruction. This definition is akin to FoF (both planned and incidental) as defined by Ellis (2001) and by Doughty and Williams (1998). In other words, although the form focus occurs within a communicative activity, the language features in focus may have been predetermined by the teacher or they may occur incidentally during the interaction in progress.



Focus on Form Teaching Techniques

In this section, a number of teaching techniques of FoF will be presented. Figure 1 below indicates the degree of obtrusiveness of each technique (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Obtrusiveness indicates that grammar structures are presented explicitly by using metalinguistic terms (see Fig. 1). Figure 1 shows that the most implicit technique is the *Input flood* whereas the most explicit one is the *Garden path*. The techniques that were applied during the current study will be explained briefly in the following paragraph.

	Unobtrusive	←→	Obtrusive
Input flood	X		
Task-essential language	X		
Input enhancement^a		X	
Negotiation		X	
Recast^b		X	
Output enhancement		X	
Interaction enhancement			X
Dictogloss^c			X
Consciousness-raising tasks^d			X
Input processing			X
Garden path			X

Fig. 1. Degree of Obtrusiveness of Focus on Form (Doughty & William, 1998, p.258)

© Cambridge University Press

Input flood means that a teacher exposes students with a great amount of a linguistic feature whether orally or textually in order that students could acquire plentiful opportunities to come across a specific linguistic feature. (Doughty & Williams, 1998). On the other hand, *input enhancement* differs from input flood in that teachers give modified input to learners in order to make the input more noticeable without explicit grammar instruction. In the case of textual input, learners are provided with input which is typographically modified by teachers (e.g. underlining, boldfacing, italicizing, capitalizing, color coding, etc.). Recasts are also commonly used by teachers during FoF instruction. The indirect way of correction provided through recasts is favored by language teachers as it helps them deal with sensitive students who do not prefer receiving explicit correction in front of their peers (Roothoof, 2014). Another activity *interaction enhancement* refers to a treatment that guides learners to FoF by providing interactional modifications and leads learners to produce modified output within a problem solving task. (Doughty & Williams, 1998). In other words, a teacher does not give a direct correction as found in recast, but encourages students to notice their errors by making use of teaching techniques such as clarification requests, repetition, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation. Ellis (2012) defines *consciousness-raising tasks* as “pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding” of the target grammar.

Theoretical & Empirical Studies on Focus on Form

In this part, both theoretical and experimental research studies conducted on FoF and FoFs will be discussed. The basic tenet of FoF instruction is to comprehend meaning while learners’



attention is directed to the linguistic units which are crucial for learners to comprehend the meaning. The need for FoF usually stems from learners' inability to use certain linguistic units accurately, which might lead to communication problems. These problematic linguistic units become the focus of language instruction so that learners could get back on track. As learners are unable to deal with these difficulties using their own resources, they cannot notice the linguistic traits of the target language during communicative activities. Therefore, a kind of intervention regarding these linguistic traits might be necessary to help learners cope with the challenges in their interlanguage systems (Ellis, 2009).

Over the past two decades, the impact of FoF instruction in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) has often been demonstrated through a number of theories and studies. According to Long (1991), while FoF instruction attaches importance to communicative and meaning-based language teaching practices, it also accepts the value of occasional shift from meaning to overt analysis of problematic linguistic units, which could be attributed to traditional non-communicative teaching practices. According to Norris and Ortega (2000), there have been several studies that have gathered evidence for the positive impact of FoF instruction on second language (L2) learners' acquisition of L2 morpho-syntactic forms.

Larsen-Freeman (2001) also indicates that even though it is possible for some learners to grasp the linguistic form of the language as a result of being exposed to the target language, there are few learners who can achieve this and it is particularly difficult for learners who are post pubescent or whose chance of being exposed to the target language is limited to the classroom as in many EFL contexts. Lightbown and Spada (2008) also indicate that when FoF instruction is not applied, certain structures may not be used by learners at all. In addition, some of the errors that students make could be fossilized in their interlanguages. Regarding this issue, Ellis (2012) asserts that problematic overgeneralizations done by learners might require negative evidence either through an explicit grammatical explanation or through corrective feedback so that learners are informed about their inaccurate linguistic productions. In addition, Ellis (2015) states that a number of studies related to the possible effects of FoF instruction and providing feedback on students' errors demonstrated that FFI instruction lead to significant gains related to the target forms.

There have been also many empirical studies conducted to investigate the effectiveness of FFI during the last three decades. In their study, Othman and Ismail (2008) attempted to investigate the effects of applying planned FoF instruction on the participants' accuracy regarding the use of the past simple tense and the past perfect tense. The results of the study indicated that the treatment group who received planned FoF instruction demonstrated a higher accuracy in their production of past simple tense and past perfect in comparison with the control group. The treatment group also produced much greater frequency of accurate forms than the control group.

Saeidi *et al.* (2012) carried out a study to investigate the effectiveness of FoF, Focus on Meaning (FoM) and FoFs in teaching vocabulary in ESP context. At the end of the study, it was found that the participants in FoF group attained significantly higher grades than the other participants in FoM and FoFs. On the other hand, the participants in FoM group achieved significantly higher scores than FoFs group. In another study, Abdolmanafi (2012) attempted to investigate the effects of three different types of treatment, namely FoFs, FoM and FoF, on the acquisition of English relativization. The study found that although all of the participants in three groups increased their grades from pretest to posttest, the participants in the FoF group were observed to have made the greatest progress. They were followed by the participants in FoFs group, and then the participants in the FoM group, in terms of sentence combining test and grammaticality judgment test. Shintani (2013) also investigated the comparative effectiveness of input-based FoF and production-based FoFs on vocabulary acquisition. At the end of the study, it was found that even though both types of instruction were effective for the acquisition of nouns, the FoF instruction was found to be more effective for the acquisition of adjectives. In addition, only the FoF learners developed the knowledge needed to use the adjectives in free production.



In another study, Kimura (2014) aimed to explore possible effects of FoF and FoFs instruction on the acquisition of the target English relative clause items by a group of adult learners in Japan. The results of the study indicated that both FoF and FoFs groups showed a significant improvement in the immediate post-test. However, the participants were given a delayed post-test after one month to investigate the acquisition of the selected forms. It was found that the accuracy rate of the productions by FoF group were slightly higher than the FoFs group. Nourdad and Aghayi (2014) conducted a study with a view to exploring the effect of FoF instruction on learning the passive voice of 12 English verb tenses. The results of the study have revealed a statistically significant difference between the two groups of FoFs and FoF instruction with FoF group outperforming the FoFs group.

Ebrahimi, Rezvani and Kheirzadeh (2015) carried out a study to investigate the impact of FoF and FoFs instruction methods on the acquisition of conditional sentences. The participants of the study were Iranian EFL learners who had intermediate level of language proficiency. The findings of this study revealed that learners in both groups did not differ significantly from each other in terms of their acquisition of conditional sentences. Therefore, it can be concluded that FoF instruction does not have any significant effect on the participants' acquisition of conditional sentences. Interestingly, it was also revealed that the participants in FoFs group attained a higher mean score on the post-test compared to focus-on-form group. In another study, Ranjbar, Amalsaleh and Shirazi (2015) attempted to investigate how the FFI affects lower intermediate EFL Iranian learners' grammar learning. According to the results, the experimental group, who received FFI, had significantly outperformed the control group, who received the traditional method of teaching grammar. As a result, FFI positively affected lower intermediate EFL Iranian learners' grammar learning.

In another study, Al-Qeyam and Bataineh (2016) conducted a study to examine the potential effect of form-focused pragmatic instruction on Jordanian EFL university students' acquisition and retention of pragmatic knowledge. At the end of the study, they found that there was a statistically significant difference in the students' grades on both in the immediate and delayed post-tests with FFI group outperforming the control group who received the prescribed teaching method in the text book. These findings suggest that pragmatic FFI positively affects the students' acquisition of pragmatic knowledge in comparison with the teaching method prescribed in the text book of the participants.

Bandar and Gorjian (2017) conducted a study to explore the visible impacts of FFI and FoM on the learning *Wh*-questions on intermediate EFL learners at high school in Khorramshahr, Iran. The results of the study revealed that FoM has positively affected the learning of *Wh*-questions by Iranian EFL learners at the senior high school. There was a positive relationship between FoF and learning of *Wh*-questions by Iranian senior high school EFL learners. Overall, both FoF and FoM were effective in teaching *Wh*-questions. However, the results of this research revealed that learners in FoFs group achieved significantly higher scores than those in the FoF. These findings showed that using FoFs tasks were effective in language learning. In another study, Teng (2018) attempted to explore acquisition of phrasal verbs through two different instructional approaches: FoF and FoFs. The test results indicated that the FoFs group outperformed the FoF group for the three tests.

In another study, Arslan and Doğan (2020) attempted to investigate the effectiveness of planned FoF method in the acquisition of certain language forms and functions in a selected textbook unit. More specifically, their study examined the planned FoF method and the teaching model in the textbook of the 5th graders in terms of the attainment of the objectives of the target unit "Health". The findings of the study revealed that both treatment types helped learners increase their scores from pre-test to progress achievement test and from pre-test to post-test. However, planned FoF was proved to be dramatically superior to the teaching model in the textbook based on the progress achievement tests conducted during the study.

METHODOLOGY

The present study adopted a mixed-method research design. The quantitative part involved a pretest, a treatment stage, and a posttest while the qualitative part consisted of written semi-structured



interviews. The aim of this study was to explore the effectiveness of planned FoF instruction and FoFs instruction on a group of Turkish EFL students' learning of modal verbs. In order to find out the effect of each treatment (i.e. FoF and FoFs) on the participants' scores and explore their views on these treatments, the following research questions were examined:

1. Is there a difference between the effectiveness of FoF and FoFs methods in learning the target forms?
 - 1a. Is there a statistically significant difference in the participants' test scores as a result of receiving planned FoF and FoFs instruction in the textbook?
2. What are the participants' views and opinions on the implementation and effectiveness of planned FoF and FoFs instruction?

Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 37 8th grade students at a middle school in Denizli. These students were placed in two different intact classes. There were 18 students in the experimental group who received planned FoF instruction while the control group who received FoFs instruction included 19 students. The participants were selected due to their availability to the researcher. Therefore, it was convenience sampling being "easy, affordable and the subjects ... readily available" (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016, p. 2). Both instruction types were delivered online by the same teacher.

Ethics committee approval

The author confirms that ethical approval was obtained from Social and Human Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee, affiliated with Pamukkale University, Denizli. (Approval Date and No: 10.03.2021/ 05-11)

Data collection

This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of planned FoF instruction and FoFs instruction on the learning of targeted modal verbs. In order to conduct the study, a number of instruments were used. First, a researcher-made multiple choice pretest was administered at the beginning of the study to determine the participants' existing level of knowledge with regard to the targeted modal verbs before the treatment. The content of the pretest was determined with another colleague who holds a PhD degree in the field. Each question and its options were carefully checked in terms of intelligibility and clarity with the help of the same colleague, and by doing so the intelligibility and clarity of the questions and options were ensured. After the treatments, a multiple choice posttest, which was prepared by the same researcher, was applied to both groups to measure the effectiveness of each instruction type. The posttest was an equivalent of the pretest in terms of content (i.e. modal verbs). In fact, the same pretest was applied as the posttest with minor modifications (i.e. different subjects, use of synonyms) in case the participants memorized their responses on pretest and got familiar with the test items, which would increase the risk of "threat to internal validity" in terms of testing (Cresswell, 2009, p.164). The same procedures regarding the content and intelligibility were carried out for the posttest as well. The piloting of pretest and posttest was conducted with another group of 8th grade students studying at the same school. The scores of these tests were subjected to Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR20) analysis through SPSS.17 with a view to calculating the reliability coefficients or the consistency of the items in the tests (Şen, 2017). This analysis revealed that the internal consistency of the test items of the pre-test and post-test was at an acceptable level (Cronbach's Alpha .719 and .706 respectively). As the last step, written semi-structured interviews were conducted with 8 of the experimental group participants to explore their views on planned FoF instruction. As for the materials used in the study, planned FoF instruction involved researcher-made materials on modals while FoFs instruction was delivered through the textbook of the participants as well as some other teaching materials at hand.



Treatment procedure

This study was conducted at a middle school in Denizli. First, a pretest was applied to make sure that the participants in the two groups did not differ significantly at the beginning of the study in terms of their knowledge of modal verbs. Both planned FoF and FoFs instructional sessions were delivered online. Each group received three hours of instruction in a week, and the treatment lasted three weeks. The duration of the treatment was determined according to the English syllabus of the school. On each day, different types of modal verbs with specific functions were taught by the same instructor. After the pretest, the participants in the experimental group received planned FoF instruction while the participants in the control group received FoFs instruction. The target forms in the present study were selected based on the syllabus followed at the school of the participants.

In planned FoF group, grammar instruction and communicative language use were combined. First, the participants were exposed to the target forms through a PowerPoint Presentation which involved all the target forms in meaningful sentences that were accompanied with visuals. Then the teacher focused learner's attention on modal verbs while accomplishing communicative activities and materials such as reading passages, dialogues, task cards and visual cues, which were also prepared by the researcher. During this process, the teacher utilized several FoF techniques such as *input flood*, *input enhancement*, *input processing*, *corrective feedback (recasts)*, *consciousness raising tasks*, and *interaction enhancement* through pair-work activities within the scope of planned FoF (Doughty & William, 1998). The teacher used an indirect, context-based presentation of grammar forms, rather than overt, teacher-led instruction in order to enable the learners to recognize the properties and functions of modal verbs in context. In this way, the learners had a chance to guess the meanings in context and come up with rules by themselves. During each session, different modal verbs with different functions were taught to the participants.

In short, the learners first were exposed to compressible input through a PowerPoint presentation so that they could get familiar with the target forms. Then, were given several written and visual materials (input flood) in which target forms were highlighted (input enhancement) so that they could comprehend the structures and functions of these target forms (input processing). After reading the passages or dialogues, the participants were asked to practice the modal verbs in different contexts (interaction enhancement) while concentrating on meaning. They were provided corrective feedback by the teacher when necessary (recasts). The activities that were designed for the treatment in the experimental group and their learning outcomes are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The activities and expected outcomes for the experimental group

Activity	Expected Outcome
Input Flood	Notice the target forms by being exposed to visual input.
Input Enhancement	Notice the target forms that are written in bold or italics.
Input processing	Read the dialogues and matches the functions with the target forms. Looks at the visuals and write an appropriate sentence.
Consciousness Raising Tasks	Notice the features of the target forms by answering the teacher's questions.



Recasts	Notice the correct version of the target forms through receiving corrective feedback from the teacher.
Interaction Enhancement	Read the situations and come up with a suitable response (as pair-work)

In FoFs instruction group, the participants were exposed to the target forms through a PowerPoint Presentation which involved all the target forms in meaningful sentences that were accompanied with visuals. The aim of this activity was to make learners notice the target forms in a meaningful way. However, the instructor deductively and explicitly provided the rules for the learning of modal verbs and their functions with this group using the grammar sections of the textbook. The instructor even made use of L1 when necessary. Students were then asked to carry out the activities based on the grammar focus boxes in their textbooks. As the next step, they were given additional materials such as worksheets and short quizzes so that they could reinforce their learning. Lastly, meaning-based activities through reading texts and dialogues were carried out with the participants. In short, the grammatical forms, modal verbs in this case, were basically taught in the form of Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP). The activities that were applied during the treatment in the control group and their learning outcomes are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The activities and expected outcomes for the control group

Activity	Expected Outcome
Gap filling	Complete the sentences with appropriate modal verbs
Dialogue completion	Read the dialogues and complete the missing parts with appropriate modal verbs
Rewriting	Rewrite the given sentences using modal verbs
Reading	Read a text and answer true/false questions
Quiz	Evaluate his/her learning

Data analysis

For the present study, a pretest - posttest design was employed in order to measure the effects of planned FoF instruction and FoFs instruction. The data obtained from the pretest and posttest were statistically analyzed through SPSS 17.0 with the aim of measuring the effectiveness of the two instructional treatments. First, a pretest was run to assess participants' existing knowledge of modal verbs in focus. As the total number of participants was less than 50, the p values of Shapiro-Wilk tests were checked. Since the p values were bigger than 0.05, it was found the data followed a normal distribution. As the distribution of the data was normal, an independent samples t-test was conducted between the pretest scores of the two groups in order to see whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups prior to the study. In addition, a paired-samples t-test was applied. The aim of the paired-samples t-test was to compare the obtained mean scores of the participants in planned focus-on-form group on the pretest and posttest to demonstrate the effectiveness of the treatment. Next, another paired-samples t-test was carried out to explore the effectiveness of FoFs instruction. Then the between group comparisons of the posttest scores were carried out through



independent samples t-test in order to analyze whether there was a statistically significant difference between the scores of the participants in both groups. The independent samples t-test of the posttest scores aimed to reveal which instructional treatment was more effective in learning the target forms at the end of the treatment process. Lastly, written semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore the views of the participants on the implementation and effectiveness of planned focus-on-form instruction. The student interviews were translated into English by the researcher and cross-checked by another colleague. Next, the transcribed data was analyzed through pattern-coding process (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to identify recurrent themes. Having coded the whole transcribed data, similar codes were grouped while overlapping and/or redundant codes were reduced. Lastly, the frequencies and percentages were calculated through the number of responses with the same codes in each category. In order to ensure the reliability of the analysis of the qualitative data, a colleague also analyzed a quarter of the data as supported by Creswell (2007).

FINDINGS

Following the data analysis, findings of the present study regarding the research questions will be presented below.

R.Q.1: Is there a difference between the effectiveness of FoF and FoFs methods in learning the target forms?

In order to answer the research questions stated above, a number of t-tests were applied. Firstly, the analysis of the pretest scores revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference between the two groups ($t(0.25)$, $p=0.80$) prior to the treatment (see Table 3). The total

		N	Mean	S	df	t	p
Pretest Scores	Control Group	19	36.3	17.5	35	-.25	.80
	Experimental Group	18	37.5	9.7			

score of the pretest was determined as 100. As for the mean statistics of both groups, the results also indicate that the mean score of the FoFs (i.e. control) group is 36.3 and the mean score of the FoF (i.e. experimental) group is 37.5. Hence, it could be concluded that the prior knowledge of both groups didn't differ notably in terms of the target forms.

Table 3. Results of the independent samples t-test for the pretest scores

Next, in order to investigate the effectiveness of each instruction method, a paired-samples t-test was run. The aim of the t-test was to compare the obtained mean scores of the participants in each group on the pretest and posttest to demonstrate the effectiveness of each treatment. Table 4 and Table 5 below show the descriptive statistics and the results of paired samples t-test for FoFs (i.e. control) group.

Table 4. Paired samples statistics for the control group

	N	Mean	S	S.E
Pair I				
Pretest	19	36.3	17.5	4.02
Post-test	19	45.2	13.7	3.16

Table 5. Paired-samples t-test results for the control group paired differences

	Mean	S	S.E	t	df	sig(2-tailed)



Pair I Pretest-Posttest	-8.9	8.7	2.0	-4.4	18	.000
--------------------------------	------	-----	-----	------	----	------

Table 4 shows that the mean score obtained on the post-test (45.2) is much higher than the one obtained on the pre-test (36.3). In addition, Table 5 indicates that there is a significant difference between the scores obtained from the pretest and posttest ($p=.00$). Therefore, it can be concluded that FoFs instruction has a significant effect on the participants' learning of target forms.

Another paired-samples t-test was run to investigate the effects of planned FoF instruction. Table 6 and Table 7 show the descriptive statistics and the results of paired samples t-test for FoF (i.e. experimental) group.

Table 6. Paired samples statistics for the experimental group

	N	Mean	S	S.E
Pair I				
Pretest	18	37.5	9.7	2.2
Posttest	18	56.9	16.9	3.9

Table 7. Paired-samples t-test results for the experimental group paired differences

	Mean	S	S.E	t	df	sig(2-tailed)
Pair I Pretest-Posttest	-19	19.1	4.5	-4.3	17	.000

Table 6 shows that the mean score obtained on the post-test (56.9) is much higher than the one obtained on the pre-test (37.5). In addition, Table 7 indicates that there is a significant difference between the scores obtained from the pretest and posttest ($p=.00$). Therefore, it can be concluded that planned FoF instruction has also a significant effect on the participants' learning of target forms.

Considering these findings, it could be concluded that although both groups demonstrated improvement after the treatments, the participants who received planned FoF instruction were observed to attain higher test scores compared with FoFs group participants. Therefore, FoF instruction was proved to be more effective than FoFs instruction for the participants.

R.Q.1a: Is there a statistically significant difference between the participants' test scores as a result of receiving planned FoF and FoFs instruction?

In order to answer the research question stated above, between group comparisons of the post-test scores were conducted through independent samples t-test to see whether there was a statistically significant difference between the posttest scores of the participants in both groups. Table 8 and Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics and the results of paired samples t-test for both groups.

Table 8. Independent samples t-test statistics for both groups

		N	Mean	S	SE
Post-test	Control Group	19	45.2	13.7	3.1
Scores	Experimental Group	18	56.9	16.9	3.9



Table 9. Independent samples t-test statistics for posttest scores

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances						
	F	Sig	t	df	sig(2-tailed)	Mean D.
Score	.995	.325	-2.3	35	.027	-11.6
Equal variances						
Assumed						

Table 8 shows that the mean score of the experimental group (M=56.9) is higher than that of control group (M=45.2). In addition, Table 9 indicates that there is a significant difference between the posttest scores of the two groups ($p=.027$). Therefore, it can be concluded that planned FoF instruction is superior to FoFs instruction in terms of its effect on the participants' learning of target forms.

Findings from Interview

R.Q. 2. What are the participants' views and opinions on the implementation and effectiveness of planned FoF and FoFs instruction?

In order to answer the research question stated above, written semi-structured interviews were conducted with 8 of the participants in FoF group. As FoF was a new teaching method for them, it was worth exploring their views on the issue. The responses to the interview questions were content analyzed. The analysis of each question was separated under a category. For the data collected through the written interviews, content analysis was implemented and the 8 participants' responses were categorized under recurring responses. For this purpose, the interview questions listed below were given on the basis of the last research question of this study:

- 1- Do you prefer learning grammar through FoF instruction or do you prefer receiving explicit grammar instruction through FoFs method?
- 2- How did FoF instruction affect your learning of grammar?

The interviews were conducted in Turkish, and thus they were translated into English by the researcher. A content analysis was conducted by the researcher together with another rater to reach more reliable results. The themes gathered as a result of the content analysis are shown below in Table 10.

Table 10. Themes about form-focused instruction by the participants

Participants	Themes
P1, P2, P3, P4, P6, P8	Guessing the Meaning
P1, P2, P3, P6	Permanent Learning
P2, P4, P5	Exam Success

Table 10 clearly indicates that most of the participating students favored focus-on-form instruction since it enabled them to *guess the meaning* of words or other grammatical structures. Regarding this issue, the most striking statements of the participants will be presented. For instance,



P1 said “*When too many rules are given explicitly at the same time, I feel confused and bored. During the meaning-focused activities, I was able to guess the meanings by myself. I learned better this way.*” Also, P4 said “*It was like doing a puzzle for me. I learned and enjoyed the at the same time.*”

Another theme that emerged was *permanent learning*. Related to this issue, P1 said “*I think that learning grammar through a reading text is better because I remember not only the rules but also how those rules are applied in a sentence.*” P6 said “*I remember the rules of the modal verbs better and I can even use them communicatively.*”

Lastly, some of the participants mentioned the effectiveness of the focus-on-form instruction on their *exam success*. On this issue, P4 said “*I learned the grammar rules better through reading texts and dialogues, so I didn't have much difficulty in answering the tests questions.*” Considering the themes emerged, it can be concluded that the participants were satisfied with the FoF instruction mainly because the participants preferred guessing the meanings out of the context rather than receiving too many isolated grammatical rules. They also believe that they retain the knowledge for a longer period of time in this way. Lastly, they think that their exam scores are positively affected by FoF instruction.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The findings of the present study revealed that the participants who received FoF instruction made much more progress than the participants in FoFs group. The findings of this study are in line with several studies conducted before (Othman & Ismail, 2008; Nourdad & Aghayi, 2014; Al-Qeyam & Bataineh, 2016; Arslan & Doğan, 2020). Othman and Ismail (2008) conducted a study regarding the use of the past simple tense and the past perfect tense and found that FoF group demonstrated a higher accuracy in their production of past simple tense. The reason for this could be the fact that learners in FoF group are exposed to a great amount of comprehensible input and gain mastery over the target forms both in their structural use and functional ones. Likewise, Nourdad and Aghayi (2014) found that FoF instruction was more effective in learning the passive voice of 12 English verb tenses. The reason for this finding could be that there are a lot of tenses and their passive versions, which could be challenging for learners to acquire when the rules are given as isolated items. In FoF, however, they are taught through meaningful activities. In another study, Al-Qeyam and Bataineh (2016) found that the potential effect of form-focused pragmatic instruction regarding the acquisition and retention of pragmatic knowledge was superior than the effect of prescribed teaching method in the text book. Lastly, Arslan and Doğan (2020) conducted a study and found that planned FoF was dramatically superior to the teaching model in the textbook based on the progress achievement tests applied during the study.

On the other hand, a number of studies yielded different results compared to the present study. (Ebrahimi, Rezvani & Kheirzadeh, 2015; Bandar & Gorjian, 2017; Teng, 2018). To start with, Ebrahimi, Rezvani and Kheirzadeh (2015) conducted a study and found that both FoF and FoFs instruction methods had similar effect on the acquisition of conditional sentences. In fact, the participants in FoFs group attained a higher mean score on the post-test compared to FoF group. The reason for this could be that the participants were accustomed to explicit grammar instruction and their exams might have consisted of discrete test items. In another study, Bandar and Gorjian (2017) investigated the visible impacts of FFI and focus on meaning (FoM) on the learning *Wh*-questions on intermediate, and found that even though FoF and FoM were effective in teaching *Wh*-question, FoFs group achieved significantly higher scores than those in the FoF. These findings showed that using FoFs tasks were effective in language learning. It can also be stated that FoFs could be an effective method for teaching specific linguistic items in certain contexts. Lastly, Teng (2018) attempted to explore acquisition of phrasal verbs through two different instructional approaches (i.e. FoF and FoFs) and found that the FoFs group outperformed the FonF group for the three tests. The reason for this finding could be that learning phrasal verbs require explicit teaching and so that learners could memorize their meanings.



As one can see, there have been many studies conducted on the effectiveness of FFI. While some studies found FoF more effective, others revealed that FoFs were superior to FoF. The contradictory findings of these studies indicate that there could be other factors affecting the results of these instruction types. The context, participants, length of the study, or the target forms might all have an impact on the effectiveness of each instructional treatment, which could lead to differences in language learning as well. In short, it can be concluded that although wide range of research has been conducted on the effects of different kinds and techniques of FFI, research findings have not been conclusive regarding the superiority of either one. As for the views of the participants, it could be stated that the participants were satisfied with the FoF instruction since they preferred guessing the meanings out of the context rather than receiving too many isolated grammatical rules. They also favored FoF instruction since it helped them retain the knowledge for a longer period of time. Lastly, they think that their exam scores are positively affected by FoF instruction.

The findings of this study could have some pedagogical implications for many stake holders in the field of language education. To start with, textbook writers or curriculum developers could integrate more FoF activities and exercises into their materials. Even if appropriate FoF materials are available, teachers need to be trained on how to integrate FoF approach with these materials effectively. As language learners in Turkey have been receiving grammar-focused instruction for years, their language skills such as listening, speaking, and writing haven't reached the desired levels. Therefore, it is teachers' responsibility to be aware of different FFIs so that they could help their students improve these skills through FoF techniques with various meaning-focused communicative activities. Also, considering the benefits of FoF instruction reported in this study, language teachers could be advised to provide a great amount of comprehensible input for their students through different visual and audio materials. They should also focus their students' attention on the meaning while occasionally pointing out the grammatical structures in those materials. By doing so, they will ensure that their students' priority will be on comprehending the meaning rather than memorizing grammatical structures.

Lastly, it should be noted that there are several limitations of the present study. Therefore, the findings of the present study need to be interpreted considering these limitations. First, the sample size could be a limitation as there were 37 participants in the study. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to all English language learners. In addition, the present study only focused on teaching modal verbs through certain techniques of FFI. Another study might yield different results with other structures in English. Last but not least, the effectiveness and reliability of online education could be a limitation since the participating teacher couldn't manage the treatment process in person. In short, future research needs to consider these limitations and design a study accordingly.

REFERENCES

- Abdolmanafi, S. (2012). Effects of form-focused instruction on the learning of relative clauses. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 8(1), 0-210. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/jlls/issue/9935/122952>.
- Aktaş, T. (2005). Yabancı dil öğretiminde iletişimsel yeti. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 89.
- Al-Qeyam, F. R., Bataineh, R. F., & Smadi, O. M. (2016). The effect of form-focused instruction on learning and retaining pragmatic knowledge among Jordanian EFL tertiary-level learners. *Journal of International Doctoral Research*, 5(1), 28-50.
- Arslan, R. & Işık-Doğan, S. (2020). Investigating the effectiveness of planned focus on form method in teaching young learners English as a foreign Language. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 16 (1), 418-439. doi: 10.17263/jlls.712869.
- Bandar, B., & Gorjan, B. (2017). Teaching Grammar to EFL learners through focusing on form and meaning. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Learning* 2017, 3(4): 88-96.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.




- Dekeyser, R.M. (1998). Beyond focus on form: cognitive perspectives on learning and practical second language grammar. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 42-63). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge university Press.
- De la Fuente, M. J. (2002). Negotiation and oral acquisition of Spanish L2 vocabulary: the roles of input and output in the receptive and productive acquisition of words. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 24: 81-112.
- Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). Issues and terminology. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 1-11). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ebrahimi, S., & Rezvani, & E., Kheirzadeh, S. (2015). Teaching grammar through FormS focused and form focused instruction: The case of teaching conditional sentences to Iranian intermediate EFL learners. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research* 2 (1), 10-25.
- Ellis, R. & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 21: 285–301
- Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: Investigation of form-focused instruction. *Language Learning*, 51, Supplement 1, 1-46.
- Ellis, R. Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2002). Focusing on form in the classroom. *Diverse Voices*, 2, 168-188.
- Ellis, R. (2005). *Instructed second language acquisition*. Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics. The University of Auckland.
- Ellis, R. (2008). Investigating grammatical difficulty in second language learning: Implications for second language acquisition research and language testing. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 4–22. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2008.00184.x>.
- Ellis, R. (2009). Task-based language teaching: Sorting out the misunderstandings. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19(3), 229-246. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00231.x>
- Ellis, R. (2012). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, N. C. (2015). Implicit and explicit learning: Their dynamic interface and complexity. In P. Rebuschat (Ed.), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 3-23). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. [Implicit_AND_Explicit_Learning_EllisPreprint.pdf](https://www.johbenjamins.com/preprint/implicit_and_explicit_learning_ellis)
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1), 1-4. doi: 10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11.
- Farrokhi, F., & Chehrazad, M.S. (2012). The effects of planned focus on Form on Iranian EFL learners 'oral accuracy. *World Journal of education*, 2(1), 70-81.
- Harmer, J. (1989). *The practice of language teaching* (3rd ed.). Completely revised and updated, New York.
- Işık, A. (2008). Yabancı dil eğitimimizdeki yanlışlar nereden kaynaklanıyor? *Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 4(2), 15-26.
- Kimura, N. (2014). Differential effects of focus on form and focus on forms on English relative clause by EFL learners in Japan, *Journal of Educational Research*, 29; 29-39.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning* (1st ed.) [Internet edition]. Retrieved from http://www.sdkrashen.com/content/books/sl_acquisition_and_learning.pdf
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). Teaching grammar. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed., pp. 251-266). USA: Heinle & Heinle Thomson Learning.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2008). Form-focused instruction: Isolated or integrated? *Tesol Quarterly*. 42(2), 181-207. Retrieved March 25, 2021, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40264447> DOI: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00115. x.
- Long, M.H. (1991). Focus on form: a design feature in language teaching methodology. In K.de Bot, R. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross cultural perspective* (pp.39-52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.




- Long, M.H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie, & T.K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp.413-468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp.15-63). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M. H. (2000). Focus on form in task-based language teaching. In R. Lambert & E. Shohamy (Eds.), *Language policy and pedagogy. Essays in honor of A. Ronald Walton* (pp. 179-192). Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Norris, J. M., & Ortega, H. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 50(3), 417-528.
- Nourdad, N., & Aghayi, E. T. (2014). Focus on form in teaching passive voice of different tenses. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1400-1408.
- Oğuz, E. (1999). *İlköğretimde yabancı dil (İngilizce) öğretimi sorunları (The Problems of foreign language (English) teaching in elementary schools)*. Unpublished Master Thesis. Kocaeli University: Kocaeli.
- Othman, J., & Ismail, L. (2008). Using focus on form instruction in the teaching and learning of grammar in a Malaysian classroom. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 5(2), 93-115.
- Paker, T. (2007). Problems of teaching English in schools in Çal Region and suggested solutions. 21. Yüzyıla Girerken Geçmişten Günümüze Çal Yöresi: Baklan, Çal, Bekilli. *Çal Yöresi Yardımlaşma ve Dayanışma Derneği Yayını*, 3, 684-690
- Ranjbar, S., Amalsaleh, E., & Shirazi, Z. H. R. (2015). The effects of form-focused instruction on lower intermediate EFL Iranian learners' grammar learning. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 2(2). 96-116.
- Roothoof, H. (2014). The relationship between adult EFL teachers' oral feedback practices and their beliefs. *System*, 65, 65-79.
- Saeidi, M., Zaferanieh, E., & Shateri, H. (2012). On the effects of focus on form, focus on meaning, and focus on forms on learners' vocabulary learning in ESP context. *English Language Teaching*, 5(10), 72-79.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129-158.
- Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp.3-32), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sheen, R. (2002). "Focus on form" and "focus on forms". *ELTJ*, 56(3), 303-305.
- Shintani, N. (2013). The effect of focus on form and focus on forms instruction on the acquisition of productive knowledge of L2 vocabulary by young beginning-level learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47, 36-62.
- Şen, S. (2017). Ölçme araçlarında bulunması gereken nitelikler. Retrieved from <https://sedatsen.com/category/olcme-ve-degerlendirme/>.
- Teng, M. F. (2018). The effect of focus on form and focus on forms instruction on the acquisition of phrasal verbs by Chinese students. *Asian EFL Journal*, 20(6), 145-173.
- Tilfarlioglu, F. Y. & Öztürk, A. R. (2007). An analysis of ELT teachers' perceptions of some problems concerning the implementation of English language teaching curricula in elementary schools. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 3(1), 202- 217.
- Uysal, H. H., & Bardakci, M. (2014). Teacher beliefs and practices of grammar teaching: Focusing on meaning, form, or forms? *South African Journal of Education*, 34(1), 1- 16.



Emotional Intelligence and Language Teaching

Mert Pekbay¹ , Republic of Turkiye, The Ministry of National Education,
mertbau07@gmail.com

Onur Karasu² , Republic of Turkiye, The Ministry of National Education,
karasuonurr@gmail.com

Oya Tunaboylu³ , Republic of Turkiye, Suleyman Demirel University,
oyatunaboylu@gmail.com

Recommended citation: Pekbay, M., Karasu, O., Tunaboylu, O. (2021) Emotional Intelligence and Language Teaching. *Journal of Language Research (JLR)*, 5(1),17-30, DOI: [10.51726/jlr.1034535](https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.1034535)

Abstract: This paper reviews Emotional Intelligence (EI) and the development of models which focus on the individual's cognitive and non-cognitive abilities and skills. It also emphasizes the differences and similarities between the mentioned models and the value of EI in educational contexts.

Keywords: *emotional intelligence, English language teaching, stress, job satisfaction, job performance*

1. INTRODUCTION

Antoine de Saint-Exupéry, in his worldwide known Novella Little Prince, reflects the role of emotions as: "It is only with the heart that one can see rightly; what is essential is invisible to the eye." Likewise, emotions take an important role in people's lives and reflect behaviors as they are housing deep untold feelings and hidden behaviors. People make judgments through their emotions, which are their reactions to their conditions. Hence, responding to the question "what is emotion?" or, in other words, describing emotion is a much harder job than it looks. Oxford Dictionary defines emotion literally as "a strong feeling deriving from one's circumstances, mood, or relationships with others."

Britannica describes emotion as "a complex experience of consciousness, bodily sensation, and behavior that reflects the personal significance of a thing, an event, or a state of affairs." According to Hockenbury and Hockenbury (2007), emotion is a complicated state of mind consisting of three distinctive components. The first is subjective experience: several basic universal emotions experienced worldwide to different extents and ways. The second one is physiological response; All people experience any emotion by physically responding to different types of reactions physically such as sweating palms, shaking voices, heart rate beat, and such. The last one is called expressive behavior encompassing verbal, facial, and other nonverbal behaviors used to express our emotions in different circumstances.

Scholars believe each emotion or feeling has a different effect, giving unstated underlying messages. Therefore, emotions have their wisdom concerning this emotional intelligence put forward in the late 1980s by Stanley Greenspan to describe the nature and scope of emotional intelligence.

¹ ORCID ID: 0000-0001-6790-933X

² ORCID ID: 0000-0002-2739-237X

³ ORCID ID: 0000-0002-9926-7973

Submitted: 10.12.2021

Accepted: 25.12.2021

<https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.1034535>



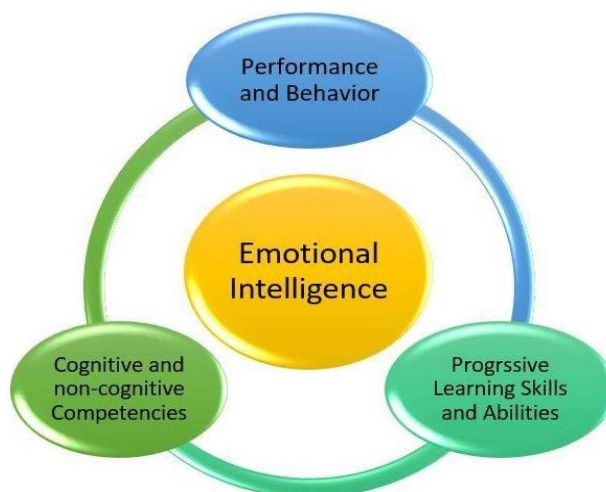
2. THE CONCEPT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Since the IQ (the intelligence quotient) definition of intelligence was found to be too narrow as it confines the scope of intelligence with the quantification of general ability of a variety of tasks, some scholars tried to explore a more comprehensive definition of human intellectual capability, which is characterized by different complex cognitive traits. Some scholars, for instance, (Extremera & Berroca, 2006; Matzel & Sauce, 2017) find it challenging to formulate IQ as human traits are too complex and may vary from one situation to another with no clear-cut boundary ability to define the abstract concept of intelligence. Therefore there was a need to seek inclusive alternative concepts and broader definitions. One of these is Emotional Intelligence (EI) theory, and it was introduced in the 1990s by Goleman, and since then, its concept and scope of definitions have been introduced.

There are controversial opinions regarding the meaning of EI since the concept is developing so fast that researchers continuously modify the way they describe emotion. For instance, Salovey and Mayer (1990) describe emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions."

Faltas (2017), though, depicts Emotional intelligence (EI) as a set of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities and skills directly and effectively linked to human behaviors in every domain.

Figure 1. Faltas (2017) shows how the cycle of performance, behavior, cognitive and non-cognitive competencies, and the progression of skills and abilities shape EI.



Faltas (2017)

3. MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence has many different definitions and, hence, uses. Emotional intelligence definitions or models are mostly ability-oriented (ability model) or a mixture of various abilities (mixed model) and personal traits (trait model). The ability-oriented model expresses emotional intelligence as reflecting the competence of comprehending emotional information. Conversely, the mixed models of emotional intelligence link the ability factors with personal characteristics (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

The starting points are the same when the talent model is compared with the mixed model. Nevertheless, mixed emotional intelligence models are pretty different from the ability models. Although the concept of emotional intelligence includes mental skills in mixed models, it also has elements that define personality traits (Mayer et al., 2000). For this reason, it would be more beneficial to consider the notion of EI within the boundaries of the concept of mental skills and to keep it separate from other personality traits. Thus, it will be possible to analyze the basic dimensions suggested by the talent model of the EI to the people's behavior and success in life.



a. Ability Model (Salovey & Mayer, 1997)

Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer's model of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p. 10-14) has four main branches. The first one is perceiving emotions; it is the ability to realize, decode nonverbal expressions of emotions both in oneself and the others. It also incorporates expressing and making emotional requirements understandable and clear to others. The second branch is taking advantage of emotions to make cognitive activities easier while rationalizing, solving problems, and making decisions. The third branch has to do with emotional understanding; It is the ability to employ emotional knowledge to understand emotions and label emotions properly to interpret their meaning. The last branch is the management of emotions; It is the competence to regulate emotions that contribute to an individual's self-improvement consciously (see also Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler & Mayer 1999,2000).

The model consists of steps involving the level of abilities to move forward to the next steps subsequently. It is also believed that people with an increased level of Emotional intelligence reach the next steps faster than those experiencing a low level of emotional intelligence. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

b. Goleman's Model of Emotional Intelligence (1998)

"In a very real sense, we have two minds, one that thinks and one that feels (Goleman 1996)."

Daniel Goleman is a psychologist and science writer who made emotional intelligence more widespread. He discovered the research by Mayer and Salovey, and their findings stimulated his interest and led him to conduct his study on the area and penned the book titled Emotional intelligence (1995). This outstanding book made the concept of EI also known by the public in general. He describes the idea of emotional intelligence as "the ability to know our emotions as well as others and keep ourselves to be motivated to handle our own emotions and the relationships well (Goleman, 1998). Goleman's model includes five primary emotional intelligence competencies to reach excellent performance: social skill (or relationship management), empathy (or social awareness), self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation (or self-management), and empathy (or social awareness) (Goleman,1998).

The common ground of the various depictions and different models of EI is that it facilitates understanding of our own feelings, positively regulating our emotions, and facilitating relationships. The situation is the same while teaching. Teaching not only involves communicating information to learners but also promotes multilayered personal interaction to accomplish the expected lesson objectives of a given curriculum. Emotional intelligence has various positive impacts on well-being and affects the value of every aspect of life, from job performance to interaction.

c. Bar-On's Mixed Model (1997)

Reuven Bar-On was concerned with the connection between emotions and social skills. He described EI as "an individual's ability to understand himself and others, establish relationships with people, and adapt to the immediate environment in order to overcome environmental demands successfully." Emotional intelligence components are; general mood, stress management, and personal & interpersonal adaptability (Bar-On 1997; Stys & Brown, 2004).

Bar-On (2006) claims that emotional-social intelligence facilitates interdependent emotional and social abilities. It also reflects to what extent an individual can express himself effectively, establish relationships with others, and determine how to cope with other people's daily demands. This model is process-oriented and related to success potential (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Bar On, 2002; Stys & Brown, 2004). Bar-On (2006) stated that the most prominent feature of this model is that it can be taught and learned. Various research has shown that emotional and social intelligence can be enhanced to have positive changes in performance and features such as personal well-being and self-



actualization (e.g.; Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010); Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bullar & Rooke, 2007; Sánchez-Álvarez, Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2015, 2016).

4. THE CRITICISMS AGAINST MULTIPLE THEORIES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The fact that there are numerous theories regarding emotional intelligence can usually be surprising for people. (e.g., Salovey & Mayer, 1997; Bar-On, 2000, Goleman, 1995:1998). Every theory has been proposed to understand better and explain the facilities, characteristics, and skills related to social and emotional intelligence. On the other hand, some may argue that with the help of research, "accurate" versions of emotional intelligence have to be named and determined under a single theoretical framework. Though, in another point of view, thanks to the multiple theories in the field, additional attributes of complex psychological constructs can be illustrated. According to a study comparing the EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997) (Reuven Bar-On's model of EQ measurement) with MEIS (Mayer and Salovey's model of EQ measurement), the two measures do not correlate. Even though each theory deviates slightly from its version of the basic meaning of EI, they differ when it comes to their point of view. Emotional intelligence is a relatively 'premature' concept. Thus, as the new scientific data emerges from the research in the field, it is being revealed that there is a connection between emotional intelligence and a variety of traits and abilities that cannot be justified by any other cognitive intelligence types or traditional types of personality measurements.

5. STRESS, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE & ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Enduring long-term stress is associated with stress-related disorders subject to the Eleventh Revision of International Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD-11) (Keeley, Reed, Roberts, Evans, Robles, Matsumoto, Brewin, Cloitre, Perkonig, Rousseau, Gureje, Lovell, Sharon, & Maercker, 2016). It has been correlated with several health problems like anxiety and depression (Fawzy & Hamed, 2017; Herr, Li, Loerbroks, Angerer, Siegrist, & Fischer, 2017; Melchior, Caspi, Milne, Danese, Poulton, & Moffitt, 2007; Tennant, 2001), Coronary disease (e.g., Li, Zhang, Loerbroks, Angerer, & Siegrist, 2014), and sleep problems (e.g., Faber & Schlarb, 2016).

The fact that teaching is deemed a stressful job should not come as a surprise. Besides, teacher stress has been a phenomenon acknowledged worldwide (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016). According to a study by Kebede and By Regassa (2014), teaching is one of the most stressful occupations, and 33 to 37% of teachers are working under tremendous stress because of various types of difficulties that the job has. On the other hand, Abebe and Haile Mariam (2011) argue that stress is the consequence of different intrinsic and extrinsic factors that make the process of adaptation much more complicated and cause teachers to be imbalanced in their personal and professional lives.

The main types of stressors are collected under two headings: personal stressors negatively impact individuals' thinking, beliefs, and internal feelings that make it harder for people to function correctly. On the other hand, situational stressors might occur any time and anywhere, suddenly and unexpectedly. For instance, a teacher might witness some students being subjected to bullying or a fight—individuals' reactions to the stressors, which are the unavoidable reality of life. The reactions to stress change from person to person and situation to situation implies that responses to stress can not be generalized or universalized (Xin, Wu, Yao, Guan, Aleman, & Luo, 2017).

Various factors such as working in a large and diverse group of students or anticipations of parents and principals are examples of the causes of teacher stress. However, stress is often caused by the constantly changing emotional needs that eventually affect teachers and learners' emotional, social and learning outcomes (Chan, 2006). Likewise, daily duties or workplace-related problems could also be the reason for teacher stress, such as the non-resourceful schools, learners' disinterestedness, colleagues-related or administrative problems. Even the school's environment could be a reason for



stress, for example, not being able to find a place to live nearby, being subjected to traffic jams, constant noise or weather conditions. (Curry & O'Brien, 2012).

In addition to the factors mentioned above, emotional energy consumed by interacting with students, administrators, and parents during the day also has a negative impact on teachers' stress levels. (Holmes, 2005). These interactions carry vital importance in making a teacher think that he/she is valued, accepted, supported, or undermined and alone. For this reason, teachers need assistance in developing their self-regulatory resources for coping and being resilient (Roeser, Schonert-Reichl, Jha, Cullen, Wallace, Wilensky & Harrison, 2013).

According to Ignat and Clipa (2010), being emotionally and professionally competent can help them overcome their problems more efficiently. Emotional intelligence can come in handy while handling their emotions and facing daily struggles that make them emotionally imbalanced. Moreover, Beilock and Ramirez (2011) revealed that comprehending students' emotions in the classroom may lead to a better understanding of their learning styles.

Mayuran (2013) carried out a study aiming to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and stress management in the school context and banks in Jaffna, showing that emotional intelligence has a moderate and positive impact on stress management. In a different study executed by Punia, Balda, and Poonam (2016), in Haryana, India, Punia, Balda, and Poonam (2016), teachers who have high levels of emotional intelligence are impacted by work-related stress to a low extent. Having a high level of emotional intelligence helps individuals suffer fewer health problems and experience a low level of job-related stress. Emotional intelligence is like a shield protecting individuals from mental health disorders and physical problems (Oginska-Bulik, 2005; Slaski & Cartwright, 2000).

Emotional intelligence also provides flexibility. Studies put forward that people experiencing a high level of emotional intelligence can handle stressors resulting from adversities faced in any area of life accordingly and flexibly (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2012). People experiencing a higher level of emotional intelligence have a can-do attitude facilitating the adaptation processes requiring changes in a stressful situation. They take the changes requiring adaptation as a challenge more than a threat (Schneider, Lyons & Khazon, 2013).

Armstrong, Galligan, and Critchley (2011) also highlight that emotional intelligence is associated with resilience because behaviors being displayed emotionally intelligent enable people to accommodate themselves to stressful circumstances if needs be. Armstrong et al. (2011) made an investigation including 414 respondents from different age groups ranging from 24 to 58 years old aiming to see the relationship between emotional intelligence and resilience showed that people there is a positive link between EI and resilience and also the ones being in the higher level resilience group experiencing a high level of emotional intelligence.

a. Stress from to Burnout and Emotional Intelligence

Being exposed to a high level of stress may lead to burnout that could threaten people's physiological and psychological well-being, negatively affect the teaching performance and even endanger the educational system as a whole (Kyriacou, 1987; Yong & Yue, 2007). Thus, it can be induced that teachers might experience a high level of job-related stress and burnout in their teaching career (Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Laurențiu et al., 2017; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017).

Salovey et al. (1999) revealed that people who have the ability to control their emotions feel better than those who are not. Because they "accurately perceive and appraise their emotional states, know know-how when to express their feelings, and can effectively regulate their mood states."



Namely, all these competencies consolidate the amount of teachers' vulnerability against burnout syndrome. To put it differently, teachers with a high level of emotional intelligence are less affected by burnout syndrome. As Colomeischi (2015, p.1072) states, "a good teachers' emotional intelligence is negatively correlated with teachers' burnout dimensions." So, if teachers have a high level of emotional intelligence, they are less likely to experience burnout.

The findings of a study carried by Schutte et al. (1998) also support the previous paragraph, emotional intelligence links with less impulsivity, less depression, and greater optimism. People with a high level of emotional intelligence can handle stress better because they can use their emotions and behaviors to lower negative feelings. Not surprisingly, emotional intelligence has a reductive effect on job stress and burnout (Gardner, 2006).

5. HEALTH AND EMOTIONS

Lately, how emotional reactions and experiences affect physical and psychological health has increased interest (Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2002). Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Mayer and Salovey (1995) states that individuals experiencing a high level of emotional intelligence have better psychological and physical well-being.

Goleman(1995), as well as Salovey and Mayer (1990), states that if people experience a high level of emotional intelligence, they will have in turn have a higher level of well-being:

Inattention to the emotional reality of illness neglects a growing body of evidence showing that people's emotional states can sometimes play a significant role in their vulnerability to disease and the course of their recovery. Modern medicine often lacks emotional intelligence. (Goleman, p. 165)

Goleman was not claiming that all sorts of diseases can be treated by having an optimistic point of view or laughing. He claimed that many daily complaints such as anxiety, depression, and extreme mood swings could be improved by contributing to an individual's emotional intelligence quotient.

A study conducted by Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2005) revealed that a high level of emotional intelligence negatively correlates with poor health. Contrary to what is believed by most people, the power of positive thinking has a more substantial impact on people. For instance; In a study focusing on people having spinal injuries leading to paralyzation indicated that those inclining to think positively were able to grow stronger and ended up with a higher level of physical mobility but, those having a low level of optimism getting more ill and stressed in their lives than the people having a high level of optimism (Goleman, 1995).

Moreover, Epel, Woolery, Stoud and Salovey (2002) studied a higher level of emotional intelligence links with better psychophysiological handling when faced with stressors. Mayer, Detweiler, Bedell and Salovey (1999) carried out a study that revealed that individuals who can regulate their emotional states are healthier than the others because they "accurately perceive and appraise their emotional states, know how and when to express their feelings and can effectively regulate their mood states" (p. 161). It can be concluded that emotional intelligence skills can be related to psychological and physical health. (Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2005).

6. JOB SATISFACTION AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

There is a close relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and job success(Goleman, 1998). According to (Bar-on 1997), emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to empathize and understand others and adapt and handle whatever condition requires an individual to achieve his/her desired goal. (Bar-On) states that emotional intelligence helps predict job success because it indicates how an individual takes advantage of his/her emotional knowledge in an urgent situation. Goleman puts forward that (1995) IQ should not be considered a single important factor impacting a person whether he/she will be successful. He argues that emotional intelligence has a vital



place in people's personal and professional lives. Emotional intelligence takes social intelligence as a base. According to Thorndike (1920) social intelligence is the "ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls to act wisely in human relations" (Thorndike, 1920, p. 13). Intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence types can be counted as the subcategories of social intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence is considered an ability to understand people and factors keeping them motivated and contributing to work cooperatively. Intrapersonal ability helps an individual to know himself/herself accurately and take advantage of this self-knowledge to operate in life as effectively as possible. (Gardner, 1993). p. 10).

7. JOB PERFORMANCE AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Specific dimensions of emotional intelligence have been unfolded that contribute to the teaching role (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012). Teachers who can evaluate their emotions are better while communicating their needs. They also pay more attention to their own feelings to reach their desired goals and improve their performance (George, 2000). Teachers who can appreciate their learners' emotions are more careful to their learners' needs. These teachers tend to back others up emotionally to work with them cooperatively with a common objective. (Day & Carroll, 2004).

Teaching is a profession surrounded by ever-changing emotions (Erb, 2000), and these emotions can be pretty influential while performing various tasks requiring cognitive processes to reason. Teachers knowing how to take advantage of emotions make cognitive processing easier and contribute to their performance (O'Boyle et al., 2011). Lastly, having the ability to regulate emotions links with emotional self-control. Those teachers having such ability express more suitable emotions when emotionally arousing situations occur and gain more support from their colleagues and principals that positively impact their job outcomes (Brackett et al., 2010). So, it can be inferred that emotional intelligence positively correlates with effective teacher performance. That is, the use of emotions provides an individual to perform better is considered as an ability to make use of emotions to achieve

It is generally accepted that emotional intelligence is essential throughout their teaching career. Teachers having high emotional intelligence are more aware of their emotions; what is more, emotionally intelligent teachers' have more self-confidence, teach efficiently and show determination while setting any goal to reach better personal performance and behaviors (Davies et al., 1998; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004).

Some researchers have described it as teacher characteristics (Anderson, 1991; Strong, Tucker, & Ward, 2003), while; other researchers mainly focused on the teaching processes or the teaching outcomes (Flander & Simon, 1969). Teachers need awareness of their feelings, values, and attitudes as teachers and awareness of their behaviors and how other people see them (Palmer, 1998). If teachers get consistent and constructive feedback from their students, colleagues, and school administration, they improve their self-evaluation abilities. People with a high level of emotional intelligence do not have second thoughts to be criticized or ask feedback from the people with whom they work. In the long run, getting constant feedback will help them improve their performance. Teachers experiencing a high level of emotional intelligence are optimistic, adaptable, collaborative, self-confident, authoritative, open, approachable, and willing (Mortiboys, 2005). They are better at communicating, finding solutions to conflicts, (Ming, 2003), solving problems, curbing their impulsive behaviors, maintaining their self-control, and having higher self-confidence. If people can keep their motivation at a higher level, it helps them be more assertive and more responsible and deal with the factors causing them to be stressed. (Salami, 2010).

Emotionally intelligent teachers are inclined to have a good command both in their content and the materials they use while teaching. It helps them to be more flexible and ready while teaching. They make efforts to make their materials used as efficiently as possible and ponder about the best method that is more suitable to the topic they cover to meet their learners' needs and expectations (Jensen, 1998).



In summary, if teachers are emotionally stable, they tend to avoid situations that bring about emotional exhaustion, such as conflicting with others. It also helps them deal with stress and burnout better and perform better (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002).

8. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Three main reasons explain why social and emotional intelligence are essential for contemporary language classrooms. Firstly, there is a tendency to put the communicative language teaching approach in many contemporary language teaching contexts. Activities promoting communicative use of language through peer works, in-classroom discussions, and group activities are favored in a classroom in which communicative language teaching is used as a method. Regarding the Language teachers' making use of activities involving such in-class communication and cooperation, According to Dörnyei and Murphey (2003)," the group dynamics is probably one of the most, if not the most – useful sub-disciplines in the social sciences for language teachers". Modern communicative language teaching methods promote social, interactional, and interpersonal interactions requiring both learners and teachers to have communicative competencies. No matter what methods the teacher utilizes in the classroom, almost all of these methods require social interaction and communication in one way or another and most probably some activities demanding the students to work cooperatively with their peers, all of which can be used by teachers and learners who are emotionally and socially competent.

The second one is related to the language classrooms' multilingual and multicultural aspects. Intercultural competence is considered a need for both English language teachers and learners in such classrooms. In order to develop and maintain good interpersonal relationships with others, especially with the ones from different cultures, being socially and emotionally competent while being caring and empathetic for other people's needs and feelings is a must-have trait not only for language learners but also for teachers (Matsumoto 2007; Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009).

According to Kumaravadivelu (2012), the act of caring in interpersonal relationships "helps us listen attentively to others without prejudice." He also asserts that caring for students' feelings in a multicultural and multilingual classroom is the most crucial thing to do by a teacher. This applies especially to language teachers because they deal with a language of globality and coloniality and face numerous dilemmas and conflicts almost regularly (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Thus, teachers of English have to be competent in terms of emotional and social intelligence.

The third reason social and emotional intelligence is crucial in language learning is the necessity of intercultural competence for learners and teachers. Intercultural competence refers to being ethnoculturally empathetic to people from other cultures and understanding how they differ from us in terms of world views (Rasoal, Eklund & Hansen 2011). Promoting empathy for learners is critical in developing their emotional and social intelligence. This way, learners will learn to understand and respect cultural differences and become more open-minded. In English language classrooms, a lingua franca is being taught; thus, learners and teachers of English have to be more empathetic, and the lessons should not be culture-specific (Mercer, 2016).

a) Emotional Intelligence and Language Learners

Numerous researchers have experimented with the correlation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. For instance, to evaluate the relationship between emotional intelligence and language achievement on the four main skills, Pishghadam (2009) examined 508 EFL university students. The results showed that language achievement and emotional intelligence are closely associated. Furthermore, MacCann, Fogarty, Zeidner & Roberts (2011) verified the enormous effect emotional intelligence has on the academic success of 452 students. Mohammadi (2012) analyzed 191 students in other research to determine whether English language learning and emotional intelligence are linked. The results revealed that they are profoundly relevant. In another study by Dastgoshadeh & Javanmardi (2021), the correlation between emotional intelligence and language learners' willingness to communicate was examined, and results showed a positive correlation between the two variables.



Contrarily, some research did not find any correlation between emotional intelligence and language achievement. For example, in a study examining 180 language learners, Newsome, Day & Catano (2000) found no substantial effect of emotional intelligence on their language achievement. Moreover, a study examining the academic achievement of 187 language learners by Meshkat (2011) showed no advantage of emotional intelligence. Examining the potential impacts of emotional intelligence on 65 students' language learning, Khalili (2013) could not determine a relationship between the two variables. The research mentioned above revealed that language learners' level of emotional intelligence is not consistently impactful.

b) Emotional Intelligence and Language Teachers

Being aware of their own emotions and the concept of emotional intelligence would be beneficial for teachers and students. EI encourages language learning in various aspects and enhances language retention. In addition, it is argued that EI can fill the gaps occurring during students' language acquisition process, which impede the actual application of the information they have. As a result, language teaching can be carried out more efficiently.

In a study conducted by Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009), the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' EI and their sense of efficacy in language teaching has been investigated. The study results indicated that a significant positive relationship exists between EI and teaching efficacy. Moreover, a high level of emotional intelligence was associated with enhanced level of teacher self-efficacy (Ghanizadeh and Moafian, 2009) and enhanced emotion regulation skills during instruction (Gregersen, MacIntyre & Meza, 2014). In addition, intriguing results arose from a recent project investigating English teachers' emotional and social intelligence (see Gkonou and Mercer 2017). The project revealed that English teachers reported high levels of emotional intelligence and that variables of gender and years of teaching experience were critical forecasters of emotional intelligence. The project also revealed that emotionally intelligent language teachers tend to be more diverse and take advantage of their past experiences while dealing with contemporary problems. The intuitive knowledge they gained through long and varied teaching experiences shaped their EI and was activated when they needed to make emotional decisions in the classroom.

In a study Dewaele and Mercer (2017) evaluated the differences in self-reported attitudes of 513 English teachers towards their students. The researchers found that teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence have more positive attitudes towards their students and enjoy interacting with students more; while teachers with low emotional intelligence may find the teaching profession particularly challenging.

9. RECOMMENDATIONS & CONCLUSION

Consequently, many researchers have hypothesized that being emotionally intelligent can lead to emotional well-being (Goleman, 1995; Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995). Those capable of knowing and controlling their emotions would have a healthier outlook on life and better emotional health. Research suggests that higher emotional intelligence is correlated with lower depression (Martinez-Pons, 1997; Schutte et al., 1998), higher happiness (Schutte et al., 1998), and greater satisfaction with life (Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1997). Thus, both theory and previous research indicate a connection between emotional intelligence and emotional well-being. It can be clearly understood that emotional intelligence plays a crucial role in having better well-being.

For the sake of English language learning and teaching, emotional intelligence can be developed through activities that encourage sharing opinions and communication in the language classroom. A variety of methods and approaches appropriate for different learning styles should be included in the curriculum so that the students can maintain interest in the lesson and enhance their emotional intelligence. Ice-breaking activities, for instance, may encourage students to get to know each other and develop an interest in lessons related to the topic area.



Providing efficient language teaching to students requires being emotionally competent, in other words, developing emotional intelligence; though, students need to be provided with methods and techniques so that meaningful communication as peers or as a group can exist. The students also need a positive classroom environment in which they can boost their self-esteem and work with their peers cooperatively. Reflective language learning is effective because it supports learners to talk about their feelings. Moreover, it can make the language more pleasant and remarkable.

10. REFERENCES

- Abebe, S., & HaileMariam, A. (2011). Teacher stressors and potential remedies from pre-service teachers' and cooperating teachers. *Eastern Education Journal*, 40(1), 64–74.
- Alemu, Y., Teshome, A., Kebede, M., & Regassa, T. (2014). Experience of stress among student-teachers enrolled in postgraduate diploma in teaching (PGDT): The case of Haramaya University cluster centers, Ethiopia. *African Educational Research Journal*, 2(3), 96–101.
- Anderson, L. W. (1991). Increasing teacher effectiveness, fundamentals of educational planning. Paris: international institute for educational planning UNESCO.
- Armstrong, A. R., Galligan, R. F., & Critchley, C. R. (2011). Emotional intelligence and psychological resilience to negative life events. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(3), 331-336.
- Baron, R. (1997). The BarOn emotional quotient inventory (BarOn EQ-i). *Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems Inc.*
- Bar-On, R. (2002). Emotional quotient inventory—Short form. *PsycTESTS Dataset*. doi:10.1037/t03760-000
- Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI) 1. *Psicothema*, 13-25.
- Bar-On, R. E., & Parker, J. D. (2000). *The handbook of emotional intelligence: theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace*. Jossey-Bass.
- Beilock, S. L., & Ramirez, G. (2011). On the interplay of emotion and cognitive control: Implications for enhancing academic achievement. In *Psychology of learning and motivation*, 55, 137-169. Academic Press.
- Brackett, M. A., Palomera, R., Mojsa-Kaja, J., Reyes, M. R., & Salovey, P. (2010). Emotion-regulation ability, burnout, and job satisfaction among British secondary-school teachers. *Psychology in the Schools*, 47(4), 406-417.
- Chan, D. W. (2006). Emotional intelligence and components of burnout among Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 1042-1054. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2006.04.005
- Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28(3), 539-561.
- Colomeischi, A. A. (2015). Teachers burnout in relation with their emotional intelligence and personality traits. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 180, 1067-1073. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.207
- Corcoran, R. P., & Tormey, R. (2012). How emotionally intelligent are pre-service teachers?. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(5), 750-759.
- Curry, J. R., & O'Brien, E. R. (2012). Shifting to a wellness paradigm in teacher education: A promising practice for fostering teacher stress reduction, burnout resilience, and promoting retention. *Ethical Human Psychology and Psychiatry*, 14(3), 178-191.
- Dastgoshadeh, A., & Javanmardi, P. (2021). Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate. *MEXTESOL Journal*, 45(3), n3.
- Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R. D. (1998). Emotional intelligence: in search of an elusive construct. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 75(4), 989.
- Day, A. L., & Carroll, S. A. (2004). Using an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence to predict individual performance, group performance, and group citizenship behaviours. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(6), 1443-1458.
- Dewaele, J. M., & Dewaele, L. (2017). The dynamic interactions in foreign language classroom anxiety and foreign language enjoyment of pupils aged 12 to 18. A pseudo-longitudinal investigation. *Journal of the European Second Language Association*, 1(1).



- Dörnyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). *Group dynamics in the language classroom*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Erb, C. S. (2002, May). The emotional whirlpool of beginning teachers' work. In annual meeting of the Canadian Society of Studies in Education, Toronto, Canada.
- Faber, J., & Schlarb, A. A. (2016). The Relation of Sleep, Distress, and Coping Strategies—What Male and Female Students Can Learn from Each Other?. *Health*, 8(13), 1356.
- Faltas, I. M. (2018). *Effect of administrative practices on law enforcement officers' emotional intelligence and behavior* (Doctoral dissertation, Walden University).
- Fawzy, M., & Hamed, S. A. (2017). Prevalence of psychological stress, depression and anxiety among medical students in Egypt. *Psychiatry research*, 255, 186-194.
- Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2006). Emotional intelligence: A theoretical and empirical review of its first 15 years of history. *Psicothema*, 18, 7-12.
- Flanders, N. A., & Simon, A. (1969). Teacher effectiveness. *Classroom Interaction Newsletter*, 5(1), 18-37.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice*. Basic books.
- Gardner, L. (2006). *Emotional Intelligence and Occupational Stress*.
- George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional leadership. *Human Relations*, 53(8), 1027-1055.
- Gkonou, C., & Mercer, S. (2017). Understanding emotional and social intelligence among English language teachers. *British Council*.
- Gardner, H. E. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice, a reader*. Basic Books.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. Bantam.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. Bantam.
- Goleman, D., & Griesse, F. (1996). *Emotionale intelligenz*. Hanser.
- Greenspan, S. I., & Pollock, G. H. (1980). *The Course of life : psychoanalytic contributions toward understanding personality development* (1st ed.). Washington.
- Gregersen, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Meza, M. D. (2014). The motion of emotion: Idiodynamic case studies of learners' foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(2), 574-588.
- Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2), 268-279. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.87.2.268
- Herr, R. M., Li, J., Loerbroks, A., Angerer, P., Siegrist, J., & Fischer, J. E. (2017). Effects and mediators of psychosocial work characteristics on somatic symptoms six years later: Prospective findings from the Mannheim Industrial Cohort Studies (MICS). *Journal of psychosomatic research*, 98, 27-33.
- Hockenbury, D. H., & Hockenbury, S. E. (2007). *Discovering psychology* (4th ed.). Worth Publishers.
- Holmes, E. (2005). *Teacher well-being: Looking after yourself and your career in the classroom*. Routledge.
- Ignat, A. A., & Clipa, O. (2010). The Impact of Self-Efficacy and Locus of Control on the Professional Development of the Teachers. *Petroleum-Gas University of Ploiesti Bulletin, Educational Sciences Series*, 62.
- Jensen, E. (Ed.). (2008). *Super teaching: Over 1000 practical strategies*. Corwin press.
- Keeley, J. W., Reed, G. M., Roberts, M. C., Evans, S. C., Medina-Mora, M. E., Robles, R., ... & Saxena, S. (2016). Developing a science of clinical utility in diagnostic classification systems: Field study strategies for ICD-11 mental and behavioral disorders. *American Psychologist*, 71(1), 3.
- Khalili, M. A. (2013). Relationship between emotional intelligence & leadership style human resources management. *International Journal of Management Research and Reviews*, 3(4), 2689.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). *Language teacher education for a global society: A modular model for knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing, and seeing*. Routledge.
- Kyriacou, C. (1987). *Teacher stress and burnout: An international review*. *Educational research*, 29(2), 146-152.
- Law, K. S., Wong, C. S., & Song, L. J. (2004). *The construct and criterion validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies*. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 89(3), 483.



- Lee, F. M. E. (2003). *Conflict management styles and emotional intelligence of faculty and staff at a selected college in southern Taiwan*. University of South Dakota.
- Li, J., Zhang, M., Loerbroks, A., Angerer, P., & Siegrist, J. (2014). Work stress and the risk of recurrent coronary heart disease events: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *International journal of occupational medicine and environmental health*, 1-12.
- MacCann, C., Fogarty, G. J., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2011). Coping mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and academic achievement. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 36(1), 60-70.
- Maricuțoiu, L. P., Sulea, C., & Iancu, A. (2017). Work engagement or burnout: Which comes first? A meta-analysis of longitudinal evidence. *Burnout research*, 5, 35-43.
- Martinez-Pons, M. (1997). The relation of emotional intelligence with selected areas of personal functioning. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, 17(1), 3-13.
- Martins, A., Ramalho, N., & Morin, E. (2010). A comprehensive meta-analysis of the relationship between emotional intelligence and health. *Personality and individual differences*, 49(6), 554-564.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 397-422.
- Matsumoto, D. (2007). Culture, context, and behavior. *Journal of personality*, 75(6), 1285-1320.
- Matzel, L. D., & Sauce, B. (2017). Department of Psychology, Rutgers University, Piscataway, NJ, USA.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Emotional intelligence as zeitgeist, as personality, and as a mental ability.
- Mayuran, L. (2013). Impact of emotional intelligence on stress management: Study of Schools with Banks in Jaffna District. *Global Journal of Commerce & Management Perspective*, 2(6), 67-71.
- Melchior, M., Caspi, A., & Milne, B. J., Danese, A., Poluton, R., & Moffitt, T. R. (2007). Work stress precipitates depression and anxiety in young, working women and men. *Psychological Medicine*, 37(8), 1119-1129.
- Mercer, S., Oberdorfer, P., & Saleem, M. (2016). Helping language teachers to thrive: Using positive psychology to promote teachers' professional well-being. In *Positive psychology perspectives on foreign language learning and teaching*, 213-229.
- Mérida-López, S., & Extremera, N. (2017). Emotional intelligence and teacher burnout: A systematic review. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 85, 121-130.
- Meshkat, M. (2011). The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic success.
- Moafian, F., & Ghanizadeh, A. (2009). The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy in Language Institutes. *System*, 37(4), 708-718.
- Mohammadi, M. (2012). The role of emotional intelligence on English learning as a second language. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 3(9), 1953-1956.
- Mortiboys, A. (2013). *Teaching with emotional intelligence: A step-by-step guide for higher and further education professionals*. Routledge.
- Newsome, S., Day, A. L., & Catano, V. M. (2000). Assessing the predictive validity of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29(6), 1005-1016.
- Nikolaou, I., & Tsaousis, I. (2002). Emotional intelligence in the workplace: Exploring its effects on occupational stress and organizational commitment. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*.
- O'Boyle Jr, E. H., Humphrey, R. H., Pollack, J. M., Hawver, T. H., & Story, P. A. (2011). The relation between emotional intelligence and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(5), 788-818.
- Oginska-Bulik, N. (2005). Emotional intelligence in the workplace: Exploring its effects on occupational stress and health outcomes in human service workers. *International journal of occupational medicine and environmental health*, 18(2), 167-175.
- Palmer, P. J. (1998). *The Courage to Teach*. San Francisco.
- Pishghadam, R., Askarzadeh Torghabeh, R., & Navari, S. (2009). Metaphor analysis of teachers' beliefs and conceptions of language teaching and learning in Iranian high schools and language institutes: A qualitative study. *Iranian EFL Journal*, 4.



- Punia, N. (2016). *Stress, Professional Burnout and Emotional Intelligence of School Teachers in Haryana* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation).
- Rasoal, C., Eklund, J., & Hansen, E. M. (2011). Toward a conceptualization of ethnocultural empathy. *Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology*, 5(1), 1.
- Roeser, R. W., Schonert-Reichl, K. A., Jha, A., Cullen, M., Wallace, L., Wilensky, R., ... & Harrison, J. (2013). Mindfulness training and reductions in teacher stress and burnout: Results from two randomized, waitlist-control field trials. *Journal of educational psychology*, 105(3), 787.
- Saarni, C. (1999). *The development of emotional competence*. Guilford press.
- Saint-Exupéry, A. D. (2019). *El Principito: The little prince*. Editorial Verbum.
- Salami, S. O. (2010). Occupational Stress and Well-Being: Emotional Intelligence, Self-Efficacy, Coping, Negative Affectivity And Social Support As Moderators. *Journal of International Social Research*, 3(12).
- Salovey, P. E., & Sluyter, D. J. (1997). *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications*. Basic Books.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, 9(3), 185-211.
- Salovey, P., Bedell, B. T., Detweiler, J. B., & Mayer, J. D. (1999). Coping intelligently. *Coping: The psychology of what works*, 141-164.
- Salovey, P., Bedell, B. T., Detweiler, J. B., & Mayer, J. D. (2000). Current directions in emotional intelligence research.
- Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., Goldman, S. L., Turvey, C., & Palfai, T. P. (1995). Emotional attention, clarity, and repair: Exploring emotional intelligence using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. In J. W. Pennebaker (Ed.), *Emotion, disclosure, & health* (pp. 125–154). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10182-006>
- Salovey, P., Stroud, L. R., Woolery, A., & Epel, E. S. (2002). Perceived emotional intelligence, stress reactivity, and symptom reports: Further explorations using the trait meta-mood scale. *Psychology and health*, 17(5), 611-627.
- Sánchez-Álvarez, N., Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2016). The relation between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being: A meta-analytic investigation. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 11(3), 276-285.
- Schneider, T. R., Lyons, J. B., & Khazon, S. (2013). Emotional intelligence and resilience. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 55(8), 909-914.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and individual differences*, 25(2), 167-177.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Thorsteinsson, E. B., Bhullar, N., & Rooke, S. E. (2007). A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and health. *Personality and individual differences*, 42(6), 921-933.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2016). Teacher stress and teacher self-efficacy as predictors of engagement, emotional exhaustion, and motivation to leave the teaching profession. *Creative Education*, 7(13), 1785.
- Slaski, M., & Cartwright, S. (2000). Emotional Intelligence Training and its Implications for Stress. In *Health and Performance Based on paper presented at 3rd World Congress on Stress, September* (pp. 24-27).
- Slaski, M., & Cartwright, S. (2002). Health, performance and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study of retail managers. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 18(2), 63-68.
- Spencer-Oatey, H., & Franklin, P. (2009). *Intercultural interaction: A multidisciplinary approach to intercultural communication*. Springer.
- Strong, J. H., Tucker, P. D., & Ward, T. J. (2003). Tennessee Value Added Assessment System (TV AAS) database: Implications for educational evaluation and research. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 12(3), 247-256.
- Stys, Y., & Brown, S. L. (2004). A review of the emotional intelligence literature and implications for corrections.




- Tennant, C. (2001). *Work-related stress and depressive disorders. Journal of psychosomatic research, 51(5)*, 697-704.
- Thorndike, E. L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's magazine*.
- Tsaousis, I., & Nikolaou, I. (2005). Exploring the relationship of emotional intelligence with physical and psychological health functioning. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress, 21(2)*, 77-86.
- Xin, Y., Wu, J., Yao, Z., Guan, Q., Aleman, A., & Luo, Y. (2017). The relationship between personality and the response to acute psychological stress. *Scientific reports, 7(1)*, 1-8.
- Yong, Z., & Yue, Y. (2007). Causes for burnout among secondary and elementary school teachers and preventive strategies. *Chinese Education & Society, 40(5)*, 78-85.
- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2012). The emotional intelligence, health, and well-being nexus: What have we learned and what have we missed?. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being, 4(1)*, 1-30.



KİTAP İNCELEMESİ

İletişim ve Medya Bağlamında Çevirmen Başvuru Kitabı

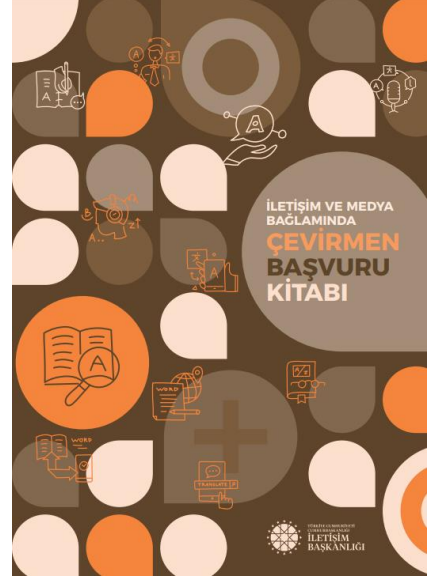
Yazar: Komisyon
Yayıncı: Cumhurbaşkanlığı İletişim Başkanlığı Yayınları
Yayın Yılı: 2021
s. 282
ISBN: 978-625-7779-94-4

Değerlendiren¹: İsmail Yaman 

Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
Bölümü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi A.B.D.

ismail.yaman@omu.edu.tr

Doi: [10.51726/jlr.918497](https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.918497)



Çeviri yüzyıllardır önemli bir iletişim aracı olagelmıştır. Yazılı, sözlü ve işaret dili ana başlıkları altında birçok farklı türü ve boyutu olan çeviri işlemi sonuçları itibariyle ciddiyetle ve titizlikle ele alınması gereken bir konudur. Bu çerçevede, Cumhurbaşkanlığı İletişim Başkanlığı eşgüdümünde kamuda çeviri süreçlerini belirli bir standarda oturtmak amacıyla hazırlanan açık erişimli *Kamu Terim Bankası* ve *Kamu Kurumları Sözlüğü* çalışmalarına tamamlayıcı çerçeve olarak yayınlanan *İletişim ve Medya Bağlamında Çevirmen Başvuru Kitabı* tüm çeviri süreçlerine rehberlik etmeyi amaçlayan bir başvuru kitabı olma özelliğini taşımaktadır. *Çeviride Temel Konular*, *İletişim ve Medya*, ve *Çeviri ve Teknoloji* olmak üzere üç ana bölümden oluşan 282 sayfalık bu eserin yazar ekibi farklı üniversitelerden çeviribilim alanında yetkin akademisyenlerden oluşmaktadır.

Çeviride temel konuların ele alındığı birinci bölüm kamuda çeviri bağlamında araştırma ve çeviri sürecine ilişkin temel bilgilerle başlamaktadır. Mütercim, tercüman, kaynak metin, erek metin, eşdeğerlik, söylem çözümlemesi, Skopos Kuramı, Anlam Kuramı, Oyun Kuramı gibi pek çok kavram ayrıntılı bir şekilde anlatılmıştır. İkinci aşamada, çeviride kalite boyutu ele alınmış ve dilsel, anlamsal ve edimsel düzeyde ortaya çıkabilecek çevirmen hatalarının nasıl değerlendirilmesi gerektiğine ilişkin bazı değerlendirmeler ve bu çerçevede kullanılan temel belgeler ve standartlar ortaya konmuştur. Üçüncü aşamada, çeviride kültürlerarası farkındalık konusu tartışılmış ve çevirmenin üstlendiği

¹ ORCID: 0000-0003-1323-4909

Submitted: 16.04.2021

Accepted: 01.05.2021

<https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.918497>



iletişimci rolü ve bu rolün kritik önemi örneklerle ele alınmıştır. Son olarak, çeviride sosyolojik dönemeç ve aktörler konusu irdelenmiş ve hem çeviri ürününün hem de çevirmenin sosyolojisi detaylandırılmıştır. Ayrıca, çeviri sektöründe engelli çevirmenlere yönelik farkındalık artırıcı çalışmalara değinilmiş ve içinde bulunduğumuz salgın döneminde ortaya çıkan yeni sosyolojik bakış açılarının çeviri süreçlerine etkileri tartışılmıştır.

İkinci bölümde çeviri konusu iletişim ve medya bağlamında ele alınmıştır. İlk kısımda, basın çevirisi kapsamında haber çevirileri yapan çevirmenlere rehberlik yapacak temel ilkeler tartışılmıştır. İkinci kısımda, internet kullanımının yaygınlaşması sonucu ortaya çıkan sosyal medya gibi platformların çeviri süreçlerine etkisi ve medya okuryazarlığının çevirmenler için öneminden bahsedilmiştir. Üçüncü ve dördüncü kısımlarda, sırasıyla terim bilimi çalışmaları bağlamında hukuk çevirisi ve diplomatik metin çevirileri ele alınmıştır. Özel uzmanlık ve ciddi bir terminolojik hâkimiyet gerektiren bu iki çeviri alanında çevirmenlere yol gösterecek hassas noktalar örneklerle aktarılmıştır.


Teknolojinin çeviri üzerindeki etkisini inceleyen üçüncü bölüm çeviri teknolojileri, çeviride teknoloji kullanımı ve çeviri projeleri üzerine bilgi paylaşımı ile başlamaktadır. Bu çerçevede, uzun zamandır kullanılan ve yeni ortaya çıkan çeviri yazılımları ve bunların uygulamadaki yansımaları örneklerle ele alınmıştır. Makine çevirisinin ulaştığı son nokta ve yapay zekâ çalışmalarının olası etkileri de değinilen hususlar arasındadır. İkinci alt başlık olarak dijital çeviriye yer verilmiş ve kullanımı artan dijital ortamlarda yükselen hak odaklılık, kamu yararı ve toplumsal farkındalık gibi kavramların çevirmenlere açtığı yeni bakış açıları mercek altına alınmıştır. Son olarak, gelişen teknoloji bağlamında çeviride yerelleştirme çalışmalarına ışık tutulmuş ve yerelleştirme kapsamına giren internet sayfası, yazılım ve uygulama çevirilerinin yükselen eğilimi ve bu çerçevede çevirmenlerin dikkat etmesi gereken hususlar tartışılmıştır.

Günümüzde iletişimin değişen yüzü ve hızı dikkate alındığında, Cumhurbaşkanlığı İletişim Başkanlığı'nın faaliyet alanı çerçevesinde belirgin bir yer tutan çeviri çalışmalarının daha fazla önem kazandığı aşikârdır. Bu sebeple, Türkiye'de hem çevirmen eğitime hem de çeviri süreçlerine yönelik rehber niteliği taşıyan güncel, anlaşılır ve güvenilir kaynak kitaplara ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Bu çerçevede yürütülen terim çalışmalarına destek olarak yayınlanan *İletişim ve Medya Bağlamında Çevirmen Başvuru Kitabı* güncel gelişmeleri dikkate alarak titizlikle seçilmiş konu başlıkları, hemen her başlık altında yer verilen anlaşılır ve zengin örnekler, sayfalarda kullanılan dikkat çekici ve kaliteli görsel destekler ve göze hitap eden sayfa tasarımıyla çok önemli bir boşluğu doldurmaya adaydır. En önemlisi de böyle kapsamlı ve nitelikli bir başucu kitabının ücretsiz olarak açık erişime sunulmuş olmasıdır (https://www.iletisim.gov.tr/images/uploads/dosyalar/Çevirmen_Başvuru_Kitabi.pdf). Bu eserin Türkiye'de önlisans, lisans ve lisansüstü çeviribilim öğrencilerine, ilgili akademisyenlere ve çeviri alanında hem kamuda hem de özel sektörde faaliyet gösteren tüm ilgililere kayda değer katkı sağlayacağı açıktır.

BOOK REVIEW

Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: Contemporary Issues in EFL Education

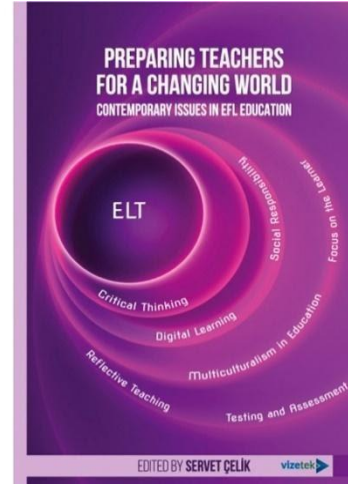
Author/s: Servet ÇELİK
Publisher: Vizetek
Pp: vii-166
ISBN: 978-605-7523-23-5

Reviewed by¹ Rabia İrem Durmuş 

Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller
Eğitimi Bölümü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi A.B.D.

rabiarem.demirci@omu.edu.tr

Doi: [10.51726/jlr.889667](https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.889667)



In a changing world, a new era is started to be ushered bringing about a shift from traditional education to a modern one in many fields including English Language Teaching (ELT). To this end, practitioners from all levels of educational systems are required to catch up with the necessities of their time. Focusing on contemporary trends and issues in ELT, the book provides an up-to-date comprehensive view over instructional approaches and methodologies along with philosophical aspects of language education. Composed of 10 Chapters created with the contributions of 10 Turkish experts in English language education, the book is geared towards primarily undergraduate students, in-service teachers, and teacher trainers.

In the editor's introductory part, following the significance of the book's scope, a brief presentation of Chapters takes place. Chapters are offered respectively in the wake of a quick acknowledgements part. In each Chapter, pre-reading questions are used as a warm-up for the issued section.

Focusing on basically teacher training, in Chapter 1, Global Issues in ELT, indispensability of social justice issues from teaching is highlighted by stressing the significance of Socially Responsible Teaching (SRC) and Global Issues in Language Education (GILE) with their facilitative effects on critical pedagogy and the way we approach language education. The author presents the ways how global issues reflect on teaching by introducing samples for teaching young learners. The relationship between 4Cs (critical thinking, communication, collaboration, creativity) of the 21st century and GILE is pointed out by suggesting approaches such as Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and Content and

¹ ORCID ID: 0000-0002-8884-2899

Submitted: 13.06.2021

Accepted: 31.12.2021

<https://doi.org/10.51726/jlr.889667>



Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) to integrate global issues into language classrooms asserting the philosophical aspect behind. A sample lesson plan is offered as an example covering the prerequisites for a qualified contemporary lesson by including a global issue at the end of the Chapter.

Chapter 2, Culturally Responsive Education and EFL Classroom, intends to provide information about culturally responsive education and its constituents in the classroom. The reasons behind global mobility, including the Syrian Conflict, which affects Turkey due to its 'open-door' policy, and the qualifications of culturally responsible educators to empower a safe environment from a wide range of ethnic backgrounds are explained in a detailed way by the author. Prerequisites for a culturally inclusive classroom are tied down considering six aspects: the physical environment, classroom management, classroom interactions, instructional approach, cultural adjustment, and connecting school and home. As a wrap-up of the Chapter, the author assigns readers to create an actionable plan for a culturally responsive classroom environment to show readers the practical aspect of a culturally inclusive classroom.

Considering the pedagogical side of language education, Chapter 3, EFL Programs, Curricula Textbooks and Instructional Materials, a theoretical framework is introduced by giving curriculum design models from the earliest to the latest. Following the framework, the authors presents components of the curriculum stressing the relationship between theory and practice. Improvements in foreign language education are reviewed in Turkey context, and a series of curriculum reforms and innovations, whose dates are 1997, 2005, 2013, and 2017, are presented in a detailed way asserting the requirements with reasons behind these periodic revisions of the foreign language curriculum. The relationship between The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the last introduced curriculum in Turkey is examined thoroughly highlighting the dynamic nature of curriculum development and supported by reflection questions at the end of the Chapter.

Cultivating Critical Thinking Skills in the EFL Classroom is presented as the 4th Chapter in the book. In the Chapter, the author extensively presents critical thinking promoting strategies, the role of teachers in the process following the history of critical thinking skills inferring prominent figures in the field. After an extensive introduction of the skill, integration of critical thinking into language classrooms is put forward by giving a brief literature review of the studies which support the possibility of developing critical thinking skill in language classrooms touching upon critical thinking enhancing activities. The requirement of critical thinking skills to be a globally competent individual is highlighted by dwelling upon the relationship between critical thinking in foreign language education and the information age. Following the adaptation of Socratic Questioning Method in EFL classrooms, Blooms's taxonomy is also introduced to provide better insights into higher-order thinking skills. At the end of the Chapter, the challenges for teachers are presented by attracting attention to the long-term commitments' positive effects on learners' critical thinking skills enhancement.

Chapter 5, Teaching EFL with Technology, starts with introductions of the basic terminology of technology-integrated EFL classrooms. Following the basic terminology presentation, rationale and benefits of technology use in language classrooms are rendered putting stress on practicality and pedagogical frameworks. Along with its merits, the digital divide and the difficulty of training learners in the effective use of netiquette are presented as challenges of using technology in language instructions. Pursuant to the explication of EFL learners' and teachers' roles in the demanding world of the 21st century, the author outlined the process of integrating technology into language classrooms step by step. After describing teaching technologies, the criteria for EFL teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of existing online resources before bringing them into the classroom in technology-enhanced language tasks sense are included through guidelines of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) underlining the dynamic nature of technology use in EFL classes and the need of an ever-changing as well as a continuous approach to material design. At the end of the Chapter, three activities are provided for readers to have a better understanding of the practical use of technology in EFL classrooms.

A new model as the name of the Chapter 6 suggests, Teaching and Learning Grammar through the SPOT (SLC) Model, is defined as an integrated model of contextualized grammar instruction which adopts deductive and inductive approaches together. After a theoretical framework of approaches for teaching grammar today, the SLC Model, which is basically designed for teaching grammar for young learners of grades 6-8, is presented by principles. Grounds for each section employed by the SLC Model, which are Spot-Light, Language Spot and Check Spot, are encapsulated referring units in a coursebook offered by the Ministry of Education (MoNE) used between 2005-2010. Following this extensive presentation of the SLC Model, a brief summary of a narrative study conducted by the author is included to provide evidence to show the effectiveness of the SLC Model. Since grammar teaching addresses both form and function in teaching young learners, the author furnished two activities dwelling on functions and structures and asking appropriate comprehension questions to provide readers with feasible clues.

Automated Scoring of Productive Skills in Language Assessment is introduced as the seventh chapter of the book. The Chapter starts with the statements of productive skills scoring challenges. In line with a brief representation of constructed response tasks and automated scoring, the author puts forward the advantages of automated scoring systems and challenges of human scoring. To this end, each productive skill is separately handled adopting a comparative approach while evaluating the pros and cons between automated scoring and human scoring. After the introduction of different approaches to score writing tests using automated scoring systems regarding the role of human involvement, speaking skill assessment through automated scoring systems is introduced, and along with the verification of automated speech scoring results validity, shortcomings of the scoring are presented, too. The author does not overlook contributory and confirmatory usages of automated score along with the presentation of a hybrid approach which human and machine scoring is combined. At the end of the Chapter, benefits of the automated scoring system's implications on ELT are introduced placing emphasis on the significance of feedback touching upon the demerits of inconsistency and instructor-centeredness of human scoring in English language learning.

Chapter 8, Some Patterns of Language Alternation Practices by Turkish EFL Learners, deals with the use of mother tongue as a compensation strategy in EFL learning contexts. The Chapter begins with the introduction of language alteration and pedagogical functions by introducing the reasons behind code-switching pedagogy. Following the introductory part, findings of some studies, mostly Conversation Analysis (CA) studies, are presented focusing on learners' language alternation practices through different perspectives. The relationship between scaffolding and language alternation is explicitly discussed focusing on pros and cons under sociocultural theory topic. Explaining social constructivism as a research paradigm, authors intently highlight CA-for-SLA, especially the use of CA, as main methodological approach in research in detail. Towards the end of the Chapter, using sociocultural theory, research, which aims to reveal the way learners' language alternation is used as a means of scaffolding, conducted by the authors is offered through three sub-topics benefitting from conversation extracts. At the end of the Chapter, implications of the study are presented referring to the extent and advantages of L1 use in language classrooms.

Affective States and Learning Outcomes in EFL Education is the name of the Chapter 9, whose focus is psychological aspect of individual differences in foreign language learning and teaching addressing affective factors are presented. Author firstly introduces the term 'affect' and discusses Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis in foreign language learning extent after a brief introduction of Monitor Model's every hypothesis. Under the name of affective factors, motivation, attitudes, and anxiety are included alternately without ignoring discussing the varieties within each subject matter. All these three factors are presented through practicable examples, and the Chapter ends with suggestions for teachers to practice without ignoring the role of affective factors in the language learning process, and therefore, some EFL classroom implications are also elaborated to this end.

Since professional development is an indispensable part of being a teacher, Action Research (AR) is presented in the last Chapter, Pre-service and In-service EFL Teachers as Researchers, as a professional development strategy. Pursuant to the definitions and views for AR, facilitative aspect of AR is provided for pre-service teachers from six prominent perspectives in brief, and some suggestions were made to raise awareness of the readers on the necessity of action research. Characteristics of AR are provided for novices to have a better insight into the strategy to develop their effective and practical knowledge with the aim of enhancing teaching and learning. In short, AR is introduced to pre-service teachers to use them in-service practice. Consequently, certain task processes are offered for pre-service teachers to make the point clearer and more practical.

All in all, *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: Contemporary Issues in EFL Education* is a worthwhile resource regarding its to-the-point contributions for not only pre-service but also in-service foreign language teacher training. With its guiding and practice-oriented comprehensive content, the book enables readers to cover different perspectives of foreign language teaching providing them with up-to-date research adopting critical and constructive insights. Considering all of these, this book deserves to be counted among the prominent books for ELT education.