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Research Articles

- 1. Typology and Classification of Target Culture Perception in Foreign Language Learning: A Case of Japanese L2 Learners / Page: 1 - 19**
Tolga ÖZŞEN
- 2. The effects of instruction type on the pragmatic development of compliments and compliment responses in L2 English learners / Page: 20 - 42**
Burcu GOKGOZ-KURT
- 3. The (Non-)Teaching of Pragmatics in an EFL Context / Page: 43 - 58**
Mehmet KANIK, Gaelle Makougang YOUBI, Tasong Tsofac SHARON, Mustafa KASAPOĞLU
- 4. The Effect of Student-Centered Teaching Practices on the Development of Speaking Skills: A Meta-Analysis Study / Page: 59 - 105**
Özlem BATMAZ
- 5. The Last Decade of Writing Teaching Research (2010-2020): A Systematic Review / Page: 106 - 149**
Arzu ATASOY
- 6. Hedges and Boosters in Research Article Abstracts of Turkish and Chinese Scholars / Page: 150 - 162**
Arzu EKOÇ-ÖZÇELİK
- 7. The Effect of Authorship and Writing Skills Course on Secondary School Students' Writing Attitudes and Writing Self-Efficacy / Page: 163 – 188**
Mehmet Volkan DEMİREL
- 8. L1 and L2 Summarizing Strategies Used by EFL Learners / Page: 189 - 202**
Hatice ALTUN, Gökhan ÇETİNKAYA
- 9. Transition into Online Education During COVID-19: The Case of Speaking-based Courses at an English Language Teaching Program in Turkey / Page: 203 - 222**
Kenan ÇETİN, Ayşegül DALOĞLU



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Typology and Classification of Target Culture Perception in Foreign Language Learning: A Case of Japanese Language Learners

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ABSTRACT

This study discusses the knowledge about, perceptions of, and interaction with the Japanese culture of Japanese language FL learners who are majoring in Japanese at the undergraduate level in Turkish universities. The field survey was conducted with 298 undergraduate students in a Japanese Language Programs in early 2019. The data were collected using a structured questionnaire. As a result, it was confirmed that the participants acquire a wide range of academic knowledge about Japanese culture during their undergraduate education, and their perceptions of Japanese culture are based on historical and social facts as well as popular culture. However, the students have little interaction with Japanese culture in daily life. In the light of the data obtained in the research, Japanese cultural perceptions of the Japanese FL learners were classified into typologies and discussed in terms of knowledge, perceptions, and interaction.

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Conflict of Interest

The author reports there are no competing interests to declare.

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Introduction

It is now well established that it is not possible to establish communication in a target language without knowing and understanding the sociocultural background or understanding the culture without learning how different ideas and ways of seeing the world are expressed through the target language. The social and cultural dimensions of foreign language (FL) learning are as important as other prominent components such as grammar and lexis (Alptekin, 1993; Byram, 1997; Kramch, 1993; 1998; Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2011; Razi, 2012; Ziebka, 2011). Particularly with the development of communication technologies in the era of globalization, physical borders are no longer a limit in accessing information and interacting with people. FL learners are in need of more than linguistic competence to be able to communicate effectively across boundaries (Furstenberg, 2010, p. 329). Besides a historical, cultural, and social common background between one's own culture (C1) and the target culture (C2), the sociological, anthropological, theological variables and layers, and macro-political discourses regarding the target country are still some of the prominent variables in terms of target language and culture learning. In terms of the Japanese language, the behavioural norms and tendencies of the Japanese sociocultural structure (Sato, 1985) have isolated Japanese culture partially, even from its cultural and geographical neighbours such as China and Korea. Therefore, learning the Japanese language and culture, and establishing the inextricable link between communication and culture in Japanese can be even harder for Japanese FL learners, particularly those outside the *Kanji* cultural zone. This makes it even more important to understand Japanese culture in Japanese language learning. Therefore, scrutinizing what the Japanese FL learners know about and how they describe it is one of the first agendas to be able to discuss further issues such as methodologies or strategies for Japanese language teaching on solid ground.

This study will focus on the Japanese culture image of undergraduate students majoring in the Japanese language. In order to depict the Japanese culture image of the students, the discussion is going to focus on three primary topics: Knowledge about Japanese culture and society, perceptions of Japanese culture, and interaction with Japanese culture. It is believed that evaluating the image of Japanese culture of undergraduate students in this triangle of knowledge, perception, and interaction will provide solid ground to scrutinize what will be the most effective and realistic way to develop FL learners' translingual and transcultural competence. This study addressed the following research questions:

R.Q.1. What kind of knowledge do undergraduate students gain in an undergraduate program?

R.Q.2. What kind of Japanese culture image do undergraduate students have? How do they describe the Japanese culture?

R.Q.3. Do undergraduate students actually have interaction with Japanese culture in their daily lives? If so, what kind of interaction and how often does it occur?

Literature Review

Conceptual Framework on Japanese Culture Narrative

Japan used the Japanese language as a foreign policy tool to spread Japanese culture and imperial ideology to regions of the Far East in the early of 20th century (Berreman, 1944). However, particularly since the 1970s, Japanese culture has started to be considered in Japanese language education under different titles such as the culture of Japan (*Nihon no bunka*), Japanese issues, Japanese way of life (*Nihon jiyō*), Japanese society (*Nihon shakai*), etc. (Ikeda, 1975; Satoh, 1985; Kanemoto, 1988; Toyoda, 1988). These discussions generally tended to use Japanese culture as a tool to explain everyday life, notions, and words that appeared in the textbooks; and also the ‘Japanese mind, which cannot directly be expressed in words’ (Ikeda, 1971, p.100). Japanese culture was considered as an important supporting agent of the ‘Japanese language teaching’ process (Kawakami, 2007, p. 5). Learners in Japan were mostly the main target rather than learners abroad.

In recent years, it can be said that discussions of Japanese culture as a course subject in Japanese language teaching are mainly based on two approaches. One is ‘pictured Japanese culture’ (*sōzō no Nihon bunka*) (Kawakami, 2007), which is coded as stereotypes (Kawakami, 1999) through classifications (Hosokawa, 2002) built by the teacher’s individual life experiences, language textbook authors’ worldview and values (Kumagai, 2014a, p. 202), and in some cases, narratives in textbooks (Kumagai, 2014b, p. 240). This approach symbolizes the understanding that defines norms, behaviour patterns, thoughts, and so on within a single ‘static and fixed culture image’ (Kubota, 2014) with a single ‘correct’ pattern.

Particularly since the 1960s, after Japan’s emergence as an economic power (González de la Fuente, 2021, p. 3; Koschmann, 1997, p. 758), the ‘Japaneseness’ discourse (*Nihonjinron*) that has received much criticism from several aspects (Befu, 1980; 2001; Dale, 1986; Guarné & Yamashita 2015; Mouer & Sugimoto, 1986; Rear, 2017) has become the source of inspiration for Japanese language teaching abroad too. Such concepts such as homogeneity (Benedict, 1946; Eguchi & Kimura, 2021), uniqueness (Lipset, 1996), singularity of Japanese culture (Ong, 2019), monolithic culture (Murayama-Cain, 2011), hierarchy (Nakane, 1967), collectivism, group-oriented (Sugiyama Lebra, 1976; Vogel, 1979), *amae* (dependency) (Doi, 1971), harmony, consensus, politeness (Hendry, 1993), prescriptivism, punctuality, and other characteristics related to communication and language such as modesty, taciturnity, greetings, ambiguity, honorifics, and so on have been introduced to Japanese language learners as ‘the Japanese culture’.

Theoretical Framework on Japanese Culture Teaching

Hinkel’s definition of the term culture for students learning a foreign language(s) helps us to have a clearer view. Culture can refer to tangible components such as literature, the arts, architecture, styles of dress, cuisine, customs, and festivals that can be discussed and explained relatively easily; Hinkel defines this aspect as ‘visible culture’ (2014, p. 5). To the contrary, again according to Hinkel, there is a more complex definition which is defined as ‘invisible culture’, referring to socio-cultural norms, worldviews, beliefs,

assumptions, value systems, and so on. Eventually, those aspects form the perceptions and behaviour patterns of those who learn the target language (Byram, 1989). However, it is also fact that along with the developments in information technology in the era of globalization, acquiring knowledge and information on Japan's culture is becoming easier for each individual, and that diversifies the needs, expectations, motivations, goals, and perceptions (Coleman, 2009) of the Japanese learners' too.

However, the conceptualizing notions given above as 'correct information' (Kubota, 2014) regarding the target culture through limited sources (in some cases just one single source) may affect the way students interpret Japanese culture within a fixed reading frame. On the other hand, linguistic practices (e.g., ambiguous expression, politeness), sociocultural codes and/or patterns (e.g., punctuality) may differ according to variables such as gender, age, region, occupation, and context. Moreover, as Kubota points out, it is important to understand that commonly-accepted beliefs about the target culture may not reflect the complexity of how people actually live and communicate (Kubota, 2014, p. 227). The ways that people interact and communicate, the understanding of notions, and the values that people have in daily life may differ from the taught one. For example, for elderly persons living in a mountain village in Japan, understanding punctuality may differ from the white-collar Japanese who reside in Tokyo. Or, normative linguistic expressions (e.g., using honorifics, polite forms), which are taught as 'correct' may be interpreted as too bureaucratic in dialogue with the elder villager. On the contrary, as a foreigner in a mountain community in Japan, when it comes to communicating with locals it may be more effective to use 'broken' Japanese rather than 'accurate, fluent, and perfect' Japanese.

Today, while the Japanese culture is diversifying, with the help of internet technologies students can acquire different 'truths' than those taught in classroom. Apart from the 'pictured Japanese culture' mentioned earlier, 'one's own culture' (ko no bunka), that each student defines culture as a result of their experiences and communication in their own world (Hosokawa, 2005), is also discussed as a second approach. In this regard, similar to Hosokawa's discussion, Kubota's The Four Ds discussion is also important. Kubota's The Four Ds approach to culture teaching may help teachers and students to develop a cultural reading outside the standardized framework mentioned earlier. Kubota states that the four concepts can provide a heuristic approach for teachers to reconceptualize concepts in culture teaching. Kubota firstly mentions that teachers should critically evaluate the prescriptive information about language and culture presented in course materials and convey language and culture in a more descriptive way. Moreover, culture should be considered as having diversity, not uniformity. For Kubota, culture is always shifting and reshaping itself in new forms. Thus, culture needs to be viewed as a dynamic organism and cultural practices, products and perspectives need to be understood in historical contexts. On the other hand, although these concepts broaden students' and teachers' understanding of culture, since there is a fine line between those concepts and the current framework, the discursive construction of culture should be carefully discussed (Kubota, 2014, p. 226-232).

Considering all these realities, admittedly a rooted perception of Japanese culture courses that has its origin in history is still predominant, but a more individualistic interpretation of Japanese culture has also been getting stronger with the help of

developments in information technology. Therefore, the culture perception of Japanese FL learners is becoming more complicated. Since it is no longer to be measured or evaluated within the current frameworks, a hybrid view that comprises ‘dictated’ and ‘acquired’ culture perceptions would be more efficient. Moreover, such issues in Japanese language teaching as Japanese culture teaching approaches, methodologies, course design, teaching curriculums, and even non-native speaker (of the Japanese language) education will remain partially limited unless we shed light on what the learners know and think about Japanese culture too.

Background of the Field Survey: Japanese Language and Culture in Turkey

Interest in a foreign language (FL) and the target culture (C2) may depend on many different variables: a) Political discourse about the country of the target language, b) intensity of historical relationships, c) common cultural history and memory, d) influence of the culture of the target language on daily life, e) the history of research on the target language and culture, f) visibility of the target language and culture in the media, and g) commercial/political investments in the target country. In this regard, Japan's diplomatic relations with Turkey go back to the last quarter of the nineteenth century and its economic relations go back to the early twentieth century (Esenbel, 2006). Since the 1890s, which is considered the starting point of relations, a discourse of solidarity and support has formed the basis of the relationship between the two countries (Pehlivanurk, 2011, p.103). Since particularly 1980s, economic relations have improved and as of 2019 according to the Turkish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 224 Japanese companies operate in Turkey in the energy, health, transportation, construction, and education sectors. Investment in projects such as hospitals, bridges and tunnels have made Japan more visible in Turkish society. The number of NGOs that focus on Turkish-Japanese relations as well as higher education programs of Japanese Language and Culture in Turkey has been increasing, especially since the 1990s. The Japanese language itself has also drawn interest as a Japanese cultural element. The Japanese language learner population in Turkey has increased at a rate similar to that of the rest of the world (Table 1) (Japan Foundation, 2018).

Table 1 Number of Japanese Teaching Institutions, Teachers, and Students in Turkey

	Institutions (N)	Teachers (N)	Students (N)	Composition by Educational Stage (Learners)		
				Primary & Secondary N (%)	Higher N (%)	Other N (%)
1987	5	8	124	- (-)	- (-)	- (-)
1990	3	11	133	0	133 (100%)	0
1993	11	32	763	48 (6.2%)	410 (53.7%)	305 (39.9%)
1998	18	66	1340	191 (14.2%)	692 (51.6%)	457 (33.6%)
2003	21	55	1229	219	662	348

				(17.8%)	(53.8%)	(28.3%)
2006	25	57	1473	226 (15.3%)	863 (58.5%)	385 (26.1%)
2009	20	53	1189	134 (11.3%)	841 (71.3%)	204 (17.3%)
2012	40	97	1965	131 (5.9%)	1303 (66.3%)	531 (27.0%)
2015	42	87	2194	277 (11.9%)	1462 (66.6%)	491 (22.4%)
2018	34	85	2500	155 (6.2%)	1788 (71.5%)	557 (22.3%)

Considering the age of participation in cultural activities such as Japanese speaking competitions held in Turkey, and language courses outside the university, it is seen that the participation of the young population is intense. On the other side, the visibility of Japan and Japanese culture in conventional national media is low because Japanese companies do not do much advertising in Turkey. Japanese TV shows do not appear much in conventional media either. But recently, popular cultural products, Japanese literature and traditional Japanese culture have started to attract more attention. It is now possible to learn about Japan without knowing Japanese through publications in Turkish and translations of novels, books and *mangas*.

Taking all of these into account, it is still difficult to say that there is an extensive and deep interest in Japanese culture among most of Turkish society. On the other hand, knowledge of Japanese culture and language in Turkey is deepening, and Japan now figures more prominently in the daily lives of Turkish people. Therefore, it can also be said that the base for the arousal of interest in Japanese culture and language has begun to form.

Methodology

Research Design, Materials, and Procedures

The data were collected from February to May 2019 using a researcher-made structured questionnaire in Turkish language. Ethical Committee approval for conducting the survey was obtained from the ethics committee at the author's university in February 2019. In order to collect data regarding the issue, the approach of this research was essentially based on a descriptive research design that mainly targets to picture the current condition of the issue being considered as a research problem. In order to proceed with the research, a quantitative survey questionnaire was employed. The survey has 20 questions in three sections. It has both open-ended and multiple-choice questions. The closed-ended questions were designed both to identify the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants and to understand the place of culture in Japanese language education. In the open-ended questions, each participant was asked to write three words that describe Japanese culture in their own opinion in order to portray the participants' perception of Japanese culture. The first section has multiple-choice questions about the participants' sociodemographic information such as age, gender, motivation for learning Japanese, and the income levels of the students' parents/caregivers. It should be noted here briefly why the income of parents/caregivers' was asked but not students. Some studies show us that a parttime job (i.e., income source) is not common among Turkish university students (Toprak-Okay et al., 2019; Koç, 2019). Although there is no concrete data for Japanese

undergraduate students, based on these studies, it is thought that the participants of this study are also in a similar situation. For this reason, in order to understand the economic situation of the students, the parent/caregivers' income became the focus point. The second section has multiple-choice questions about the participants' perceptions of Japanese culture and the relationship between Japanese language and Japanese culture. The third section uses a Likert-type scale to inquire about the participants' interaction with Japanese culture.

Participants

Currently, there are five Japanese language-related undergraduate programs in Turkey. However, since one of them (Japanese Translation and Interpreting Department, Ankara Social Science University) was not active when the survey was conducted, the population of the study included all the undergraduate students in the departments of 'Japanese Language Teaching' (Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University), and 'Japanese Language and Literature' (Ankara University, Erciyes University, Hacı Bektaş Veli University) in Turkey. According to the 2019 data of Turkey's Council of Higher Education, 556 students were enrolled in these four programs. Of them, 298 participated in the present study; a participation rate of 53.6%. The four programs start at the beginner level and have curriculums targeting C1 level. Information about the participants is given in Table 2.

Table 2 Participant Information

			Female	Male	No answer	Total
Grade	Prep class	Count	16	21	1	38
		% within grade	42.1%	55.3%	2.6%	100.0%
	First-year	Count	41	39	3	83
		% within grade	49.4%	47.0%	3.6%	100.0%
	Second-year	Count	60	26	0	86
		% within grade	69.8%	30.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	Third-year	Count	24	18	1	43
		% within grade	55.8%	41.9%	2.3%	100.0%
	Senior-year	Count	28	18	2	48
		% within grade	58.3%	37.5%	4.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	169	122	7	298

36.6% of students stated that they learned Japanese by themselves before entering their departments. However, since the question was about where they learned Japanese, there is no concrete data revealing the level attained by these students. On the other hand, in terms of Japanese level before entering university, the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT) may give us a good idea of the students' levels. Among all participants before entering the department, N5-N4 (beginner) level holders are 1.7%, and N3-N1 (intermediate and advanced) level holders are 2%. Of the participants, 75.7% are in middle-income group, and 52% grew up in a metropolis such as Istanbul, Ankara, or Izmir. More than half of the participants (55.2%) had no Japanese friends when the survey was conducted. When just

those who use social media (32.2%) were included, only 12.1% had an actual Japanese friend. Only 35.2% of the participants resided with other students in Japanese language departments.

Results

Knowledge: Japanese Culture Academic Background in Undergraduate Programs

Those four undergraduate programs have different missions and curricula. However, apart from Japanese language, history, and literature courses, culture-oriented courses are

Course name/ semester	Content
Japanese Life Culture 3 rd semester	Nature and Human; The place of esthetic in daily life; Life and death; <i>Giri ve ninjō</i> ; On (indebtedness); House and family; Group concept; Business life; Sempai - Kohai concept; Body Language; Human relations in Japanese; Cuisine Culture; The Culture of Entertainment.
Japanese Folk Literature 5 th semester	Riddle - Tongue Twister; <i>Waraibanashi</i> ; <i>Kowaibanashi</i> ; <i>Issunbōshi</i> ; <i>Momotarō</i> ; <i>Yukionna</i> ; <i>Taketori monogatari</i> .
Japanese Society And Visual Arts 8 th semester	Japanese movies; Comic books; Japanese cartoon; Japanese theatre.
Japanese Culture 1 st & 2 nd semester	Japanese cuisine; traditional tea ceremony; traditional sports; performing arts; festivals; life style; rituals; historical and touristic places; Manga-Anime culture; Samurai culture; gardens; traditional architecture; Japanese universities, university life in Japan; Japanese family structure; marriage traditions; music and film culture; popular entertainment culture; working in Japan and work ethics; juridical information for foreign students; Japan's connection to the world; Japan's resources and products; Japan's industrial structure and economy; Japan's political structure; constitution of Japan.
Anime Manga & Popular Japanese Culture 7 th & 8 th semester	Postmodernism and Popular Culture; popular culture and Harajuku; popular culture and "Cosplay"; <i>Akiba-Otaku-Soshoku Danshi</i> in popular culture; gender and stereotypes; media and anime; Miyazaki Hayao; history of manga; manga categories, language used in manga; <i>Shōnen</i> Manga; <i>Shōjo</i> Manga and BL Manga; Manga series reading.
Japanism And The Image Of Japan In Europe 7 th & 8 th semester	Japanism in Europe; Japanism and <i>Ukiyoe</i> ; Japanism and Painting Art: Van Gogh; Japanism and Literature; Image of Japanese and Japan in Turkey; Ruth Benedict: The Chrysanthemum and the Sword; Japanese images in Meiji Era; Japanese Empire and Japanese images; Japanese images and cinema; Japanese image and media.
Introduction To The Japanese Culture 5 th semester	Individual and Society; Japanese culture as an Intangible Cultural Heritage: holidays, festivals, arts, daily life, cuisine and diet, recreation and leisure; Japanese culture through notions: <i>aimai</i> , <i>amae</i> , <i>amakudari</i> , <i>chimmoku</i> , <i>giri</i> , <i>gambari</i> , <i>home&tatemaie</i> , <i>sempai&kohai</i> , <i>uchi&soto</i> , <i>shūdan ishiki</i> ; Japanese culture in Japanese language teaching.
Japanese Mythology 5 th &6 th semester	Monotheism and polytheism; Buddhism; Shintoism; Japanese mythology; Japanese culture and religion; Japanese folklore
Japanese War And Art Strategies 7 th &8 th semester	Written pre-cultural Japanese cultural history; Confucian understanding and allegiance, Zen and Buddhism; Japanese art history; Japanese caste system; rituals; Budō history; Kendō and strategy; Analysis of Yagyu Munenori's life and work; Nitobe Inazo's work; Miyamoto Musashi's image of war, art, strategy and leadership; A review through his Five Circles
Japanese Calligraphy 5 th & 6 th semester	Basic styles in Japanese Calligraphy: (seal, clerical, regular script, semi-cursive, cursive); materials used in Japanese calligraphy; Japanese characters used in medicine, politics, psychology, geography; Advanced Japanese characters used in the fields of history and sociology; Reading and writing Japanese characters related to environment, technology and economy.
Introduction To The Contemporary Japan/ 5 th	Social and political developments in Pre-war Japan; Modernization and Japan; Sociodemographic issues on contemporary Japan; Japanese family; Women in Japanese society; Globalization and Japanese Society; Rural Japan; Japanese Education system.

conducted too. As of today, based on the information obtained from the education catalogues of the programs, it is seen that the Japanese culture is taught in a wide range in those programs (Figure 1). Considering the content of these courses, it is also seen that Japanese culture is taught in a wide range from traditional and popular actors to sociological, anthropological, historical and political dimensions. Another point to be emphasized is that these courses are mostly taught in the 5th semester and later, and students who enroll in those courses are mostly third and senior-year students. That is, students are supposed to have an intermediate level of Japanese language and are capable of confirming and deepening the information given in the course by using primary sources. This, in turn, may allow the students to establish more solid ground to describe the Japanese culture by going beyond the image given in the courses. **Figure 1** Japanese Culture-Related Courses in Japanese Language Undergraduate Programs in *Turkey*

Besides all these, there are also student clubs at those four universities that focus on Japanese culture called the Turkish-Japanese Friendship Society, the Japanology Society, and the Japanese Culture Society. Those clubs perform different kinds of activities such as tea ceremony, martial arts, origami, calligraphy, manga drawing and writing, anime and film

subtitle translation, cooking Japanese food, and more. In other words, they have the opportunity to experience and apply what they learned in the course in the field to some extent.

As a first impression, it can be said that the academic environment of Japanese undergraduate programs in Turkey provides a wide range of superficial ‘background knowledge’ (Mahoney, 2009) about Japanese culture and a partial opportunity to practice and perform the acquired knowledge in daily life, despite the economic and geographic limitations. On the other side, Coleman’s typology regarding cultural lessons in Japanese language teaching (Coleman, 2009) gives us an opportunity to consider the courses in terms of Coleman’s approach. According to Coleman’s typology there are four types of courses: Descriptive, Particularist, Scientific and Emphatic approaches (Coleman, 2009, p. 321-328). The Descriptive approach teaches various cultural aspects of Japanese communication as a prescribed repertory, and deals with stylistic behaviours such as greetings and other interactions that are formal and ritualized (Coleman, 2009, p. 322-323).

The Particularist approach presents Japanese communication as the expression of a unique Japanese culture, and makes extensive use of actor (emic, folk) concepts. It also has intellectual roots in the Group Model and Nihonjinron as well (Coleman, 2009, p. 323-324). The Scientific approach relies on observation and logic to identify universal processes in human communication, and attempts to explain them. It recognizes both culture-specific and pan-human communication patterns, and encourages comparisons between Japan and countries with similar levels of technological sophistication and affluence (Coleman, 2009, p. 324-327). Lastly, the Emphatic/insight approach cultivates students' interpersonal skills, assumes certain universal aspects of human nature, and combines linguistic pragmatics and clinical psychology (Coleman, 2009, p. 327-328). In this sense, it may be said that most of culture-oriented courses mentioned above in the Japanese language undergraduate programs have predominantly Descriptive, Particularist, and partially Scientific approaches.

Perception: Japanese Culture Image of FL Learners

This part of the study discusses how the participants described Japanese culture. In order to demonstrate conclusively the perceptions of participants regarding Japanese culture, an open-ended question was used in the survey questionnaire. The open-ended question was: What three words would you use to describe Japanese culture? Each participant was asked to write three words freely that describe Japanese culture in their own opinion. Their responses included 798 words. This 798-word pool includes those used more than once (e.g. tradition was provided 48 times). The lexical analysis was used in the later part of study to devise codes regarding Japanese culture in the participants' own words and to establish the themes related to the cultural image of the participants based on these codes.

Table 3 Most Frequent Descriptions of Japanese Culture

1	Respectful/kind/polite (78 times)	11	Religious (16 times)
2	Tradition (48 times)	12	Food (15 times)
3	Discipline (40 times)	13	Rooted (13 times)
4	Interesting (30 times)	14	Order (12 times)
5	<i>Anime</i> (27 times)	15	<i>Kimono</i> (12 times)
6	Authentic/genuine (26 times)	16	Kindness/courtesy (12 times)
7	<i>Bushido</i> (19 times)	17	Simplicity/pureness (11 times)
8	Different (18 times)	18	Harmony (11 times)
9	<i>Manga</i> (17 times)	19	Festivals (10 times)
10	Nature (16 times)	20	Collectivism (10 times)

Firstly, the undergraduate students' perceptions of Japanese culture will be analysed by looking at the words most frequently included in their responses (Table 3). Table 2 shows 20 words that they used 10 times or more. Considering those 20 most frequently-used words, it can be said that the participants emphasize different aspects of the Japanese culture by focusing on mainly two dimensions: society and culture. The social dimension here mostly refers to social behaviour patterns, social norms and social structure, and especially social relations, while the cultural dimension refers to the culture-oriented objects, organizations, and products. It can also be seen that some are more realistic concepts based on experience and knowledge while others are more abstract concepts based on impressions or hearsay. If these definitions are interpreted within Hinkel's framework (Hinkel, 2014), the majority can be counted as invisible culture actors as well.

Considering all 798 words provided by the participants to describe Japanese culture, the tendency on the perception of Japanese culture mentioned above can be seen in more detail. The participants preferred 410 words (51.3%) to describe Japanese culture from the viewpoint of the social dimension, which refer to social structure, social norms, behaviour patterns, and images. 388 (48.6%) words refer to cultural image and objects, items or products.

In the study, since the students were asked to write their own words freely, some students wrote the same concept in Turkish, while others wrote it in Japanese. Again, some students wrote the same notion with different expressions even in Turkish (synonym, idiom, etc.). Therefore, in order to establish the themes related to the cultural image of the participants based on these words, those 798 words with similar meanings were combined by author. This generated a pool of 180 notions. These 180 notions were classified according to their meaning and content.

Two dimensions were considered in the classification. The first dimension seeks out whether the themes were *concrete* (based on daily life, experience or theoretical knowledge) or *abstract* (based on impressions and hearsay or less dependent on knowledge). The second dimension tries to determine whether the participants described Japanese culture through *society* and *people*, or through *cultural beliefs*, *items* and *products*. Figure 2 shows the results of review of the pool of 180 words.

approaches if we interpret Coleman's framework (Coleman, 2009). Besides, Moreover, from the viewpoint of Kubota's framework, diversity and dynamism (Kubota, 2014) elements are strongly presented in the participants' pool of images of Japanese culture.

Interaction: Japanese Culture in Everyday Life

The interaction of students with Japanese culture in daily life is directly related to geographical, cultural, historical and political proximities and distances, as noted at the beginning of this study. Experiencing Japan in everyday life in Turkey, or in more tangible terms, students' interaction with Japan itself, is not easy without making a special effort. Thus, learners' efforts have to be the starting point for assessing their interaction with Japanese culture. This study evaluates interaction with Japanese culture based on two separate factors, money and time. In most cases, money is related with consumption of products from the target culture (Agyeiwaah et al, 2019), and how much money they spend on interacting with Japanese culture might be a quantifiable way to understand student efforts in terms of being in contact with Japanese culture. How much time they spend in contact with Japanese culture, apart from lessons and designated tasks, might also be a way to interpret their interactions with Japanese culture.

Understanding the money factor requires looking at the economic conditions of university students in Turkey. As mentioned earlier, most of the students' families are middle class. A glance at the monthly pocket money that students receive from their parents, excluding compulsory payments such as rent and bills, shows that they lead an economic life in direct proportion with their family income. As of the year the survey was performed, 39.6% of undergraduate students in Japanese language programs receive 500 Turkish lira (TL), 32.2% receive 500-750 TL, and 15.8% receive 750-1,000 TL as monthly pocket money¹. Considering that most students' monthly pocket money was 400-650 TL at the time in Turkey, the participants' economic levels are not below the average in Turkey. However, when we examine their average monthly spending on Japanese culture (e.g. purchasing a book, an equipment for the hobby from Japan, or having lunch/dinner at Japanese restaurant, etc.) by means of the question in the survey, it is understood that 28.9% never spend any pocket money on Japanese culture-related activities or items, and almost half (49%) of them spend only 10% of their pocket money on this. It is of course difficult to state by basing only the data given above that there is a direct relationship between students' financial condition and their interaction level with Japanese culture. However, in most cases, money is related with consumption of target culture products, and this may not always be directly proportional. Considering the reality where participants' total monthly pocket money is less than one hundred dollars, it can be assumed that it is at least difficult for students to maintain the interaction with Japanese culture on a consistent basis with ten percent of their pocket money.

¹ Since it is aimed to reveal the purchasing power of Turkish undergraduate students, the currency is stated in Turkish lira.

Table 4 Interaction with Japanese Culture in Everyday Life by Students (time/week)

	0 min.	less than an hour	1-3 hours	3-6 hours	more than 6 hours
			%		
Daily conversation with Japanese native-speaker teachers	58.1	22.8	9.4	4	3.7
Speaking Japanese with ordinary Japanese people	14.8	29.9	25.5	12.4	16.8
Hobbies related Japan	40.3	24.8	18.5	8.1	6.7
Watching Japanese movies (in Japanese language)	42.3	12.8	25.8	13.1	4.7
Watching Japanese tv series	51	13.1	16.8	10.1	8.1
Watching <i>anime</i> (in Japanese language)	30.2	21.1	21.8	13.1	13.1
Reading manga (in Turkish translation and/or original)	51.3	18.1	11.4	8.7	8.7
Reading Japanese novels (in Turkish translation and/or original)	52.7	20.8	13.1	6.7	5
Club activities related to Japan	53	17.4	19.5	6.4	2.7

Another question is how much time the participants allocated to Japanese culture. Table 4 shows us that they mostly do not interact with Japanese culture and people in everyday life outside of their academic schedule. It also shows how much time the participants allocated for each activity on a weekly basis. Less than one-tenth of the students allocate 3 or more hours in a week to the club activities which are partially costly and daily conversation with native speaker teachers. On the other side, speaking Japanese with ordinary Japanese people, watching Japanese anime, and reading Japanese comics (*manga*) can be counted as the activities that the students relatively allocate time to.

At first, it may seem that doing relatively more ‘money-requiring’ activities such as watching *anime* and Japanese movies, and reading *manga*, contradicts the money-interaction assumption discussed earlier. However, internet provides opportunities to access official and relatively low-cost resources even for Turkish students (e.g. Netflix, Amazon Prime, etc.). In some cases, students reduce the expense even more by sharing the monthly bill. Moreover, putting aside ethical and legal discussions, as a reality, students may and/or do preferably use unofficial and cost-free media tools (e.g. free anime/movie streaming sites) to watch *anime*, movies and to read *manga* as well. Therefore, on the contrary of money-consumption contradiction, it is possible to say that they tend to prefer an internet-based interaction method as a low-cost method.

Discussion

Undergraduate students who study Japanese language and culture as a field of expertise can be regarded as *future experts on Japan*. Their knowledge about, perceptions

of and interaction with Japanese culture are directly related to the future of academic, diplomatic, cultural and economic relations between their native country and Japan.

In terms of academic environment, apart from history and literature there are several different courses focusing on Japanese culture in the syllabuses of the four universities' programs. Students who take those courses are mostly third and senior-year students, which may us to interpret that they are capable to confirm what they learned and deepen the knowledge regarding what they are interested in. This, in turn, may allow the students to establish more solid ground to describe the Japanese culture by going beyond the culture image given in the courses. And thus they can combine both approaches (Pictured vs One's own culture) and form their image of culture in a hybrid way.

Opportunities to access Japanese culture in Turkey are very limited. Only one of the four universities is in a metropolitan area where cultural events are mostly held. Students of the other three universities live in relatively small towns and have less opportunities to engage in activities regarding Japanese culture. Despite all these limitations, they do not only read Japanese culture uni-directionally but also describe its social, historical aspects at a certain level. In terms of Hinkel's definition of the term 'culture', 180 notions provided by students to describe Japanese culture show a balanced distribution between invisible (abstract) and visible (concrete) culture (Figure 2).

In terms of interactivity with Japanese culture, firstly students tend not to effort financially for interaction, and this is reflected in their activities. They tend to contact with Japanese culture mostly through internet-based methods. The other significant point is that they prefer activities that they can move on their personal timelines (e.g. watching anime, film; reading manga) instead of activities that require reciprocal interaction (e.g. club activities).

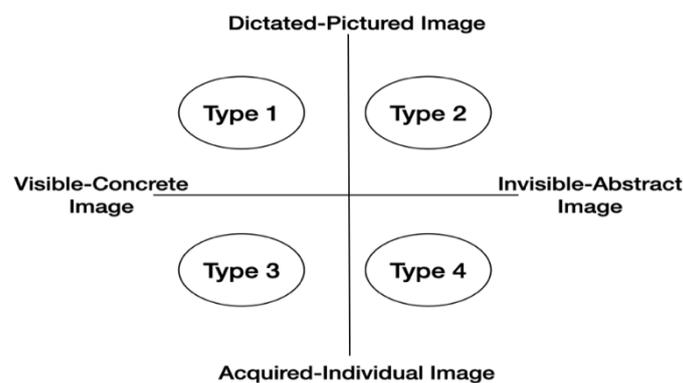
The less interaction and more infrequent communication there is with real Japanese people, the fact that the academic environment provides a level of knowledge within the Descriptive approach and the lack of involvement with Japanese culture in daily life leads us to interpret that the undergraduate students' Japanese culture image is relatively closer to the 'pictured image' defined by Kawakami. On the other hand, it is a reality that students now tend to acquire the information about Japanese culture that they are interested in and thus shape the image on their own via the internet in tandem with the 'standardized Japanese culture' taught by the teacher and/or educational institution. Some notions not taught in curricula such as fashion, idol, visual-kei, and etc. also support this inference.

Conclusion

It should also be noted that although it seems that they shape Japanese culture via knowledge they have acquired on their own, there may actually be a paradox here. In the 1980s, Japanese culture began to be branded as a soft power with the 'Cool Japan' approach. Especially since the 2000s, Japanese pop culture items such as *anime*, *manga*, games, fashion and subcultural lifestyles such as *otaku* have been exported to the global market as global cultural products (Goldstein-Gidoni, 2005). The global fetishism of Cool Japan's pop culture elements (Abel, 2011) has also allowed the Japanese language to become a cultural

product. Japanese culture is presented to the global market as ‘manufactured cultural items’, and the diversity of cultural perceptions generally occurs within the range of options on the market. The examples are not limited to *anime* and *manga*. The sale of *tofu*, one of the simplest elements of Japanese cuisine, and the marketing of martial arts (*Kendō*, *Aikidō*, *Judō*, etc.) as a fitness workout, embellished with Eastern mysticism and exoticism, are also examples of the commodification of Japanese culture. Therefore, the possibility that the information students have accessed and acquired ‘on their own’ may have been produced and created by the market and/or government institutions should also be considered. Accordingly, it is debatable whether the knowledge that individuals gain by themselves has occurred within a pool of commodities or through a deeper, natural process. Hence, evaluating the cultural perceptions of Japanese learners should require both the qualitative and quantitative aspects. In the light of all these data and discussions, the image of Japanese culture according to Japanese learners can be seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Typification of Japanese culture of Japanese FL learners



As can be understood from Figure 3, type 1 refers to a visible-concrete Japanese culture image that is formed by external sources, while type 2 refers to an invisible-abstract Japanese culture image that again is shaped by outside sources. On the other side of the coin, types 3 and 4 show us both visible and invisible Japanese culture images that are shaped from students’ experiences. The general characteristics of these typologies of the Japanese FL learners in terms of knowledge, perception, and interaction can be summarized in Table 5.

Table 5 General Characteristics of Typologies of Japanese Culture as Described by Japanese FL learners

Type 1	Knowledge	- Relatively superficial, mostly taught by media tools, curriculum or teacher.
	Perception	- Relatively tangible, mostly traditional culture component (foods, festivals, dress, etc.) oriented.
	Interaction	- Relatively limited, mostly no effort to acquire; passive.
Type 2	Knowledge	- Relatively shallow knowledge, mostly taught by media tools, curriculum or teacher.

	Perception	- Mostly focuses on social and cultural norms, rules, customs, behavioral patterns, etc., obtained from tv shows, textbooks, and/or internet media.
	Interaction	- Relatively limited, some efforts made if student is interested in the component.
Type 3	Knowledge	- Relatively deeper, acquired by both outsources (media, curriculum, teacher) and personal effort.
	Perception	- Relatively tangible, mostly interest-based, mostly popular culture component (anime, manga, fashion, etc.) oriented.
	Interaction	- Mostly own efforts, usually via internet media, tv shows, social capital, network.
Type 4	Knowledge	- Relatively intangible and deeper, in some cases more academic, usually use individual sources and networks to procure.
	Perception	- Completely own interest based, mostly focuses on values, norms, history, philosophy, art, etc.
	Interaction	Mostly own efforts, generally via reading texts such as books, papers, researches, textbooks on the subject.

It is a fact that the image of the target culture (C2) of those who major the target language (FL) is shaped according to the regional dynamics, as mentioned earlier. Accordingly, it is also a fact that local or regional findings cannot go beyond being ‘field data’ in general discussions. Therefore, the findings presented in this paper are also limited to the region where the field study was carried out. In this sense, the cultural perspective typologies of FL students and the general characteristics of these typologies proposed in this paper is a proposition and is thought to have the potential to be further developed and solidified through more field studies in different societies. Last but not least, it is believed that the findings of this paper may contribute to developing a common discussion framework that will enable the exchange of ideas in the target culture (C2) teaching to proceed on more solid ground.

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The effects of instruction type on the pragmatic development of compliments and compliment responses in L2 English learners

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ABSTRACT

Despite the wide array of previous research in the area of interventional pragmatics studies, the question of what type of instruction best promotes learners' pragmatic interlanguage development has yet to be explored. With the aim of exploring L2 English learners' speech act behavior in complimenting and compliment responding, the present study sought to determine the relative effects of inductive and deductive instruction using structured input activities within the framework of Processing Instruction. To accomplish this goal, three intact classes of the same proficiency level were randomly assigned to inductive instruction, deductive instruction, and a control group with no instruction. Data was collected through a written Discourse Completion Task followed by a Self-Assessment Questionnaire for Compliments and a multiple-choice Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire for compliment responses administered using a pre-, post-, and delayed post-test design. Findings revealed that both experimental groups showed improvement compared to the control group; however, the effects of instructional treatment varied across test types.

Statement of Publication Ethics

The author hereby declares that this study was conducted in accordance with the scientific publication ethics, and the ethical approval for the study was obtained from the University of South Carolina (#00008349) as well as Kütahya Dumlupınar University Research Ethics Committee with the meeting number 2022/08 dated 05.10.2022.

Conflict of Interest

The author reports no conflicts of interest.

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Introduction

In language teaching, relatively little attention is paid to communicative functions compared to other aspects of language. A key component of communicative competence is pragmatic competence (Alcón Soler & Martínez-Flor, 2008; Timpe-Laughlin et al., 2015), which is considered highly challenging for learners who aim at communicating effectively (Ishihara & Cohen, 2021). According to Taguchi (2015), learners find L2 pragmatics hard because it requires them to go beyond a mere focus on structures and pay attention to “multipart mappings of form, meaning, function, force, and context” that are “intricate,” “variable,” and lack “systematic and one-to-one correspondence” (p. 1). This is partly because pragmatic competence encompasses both pragmalinguistic competence, which is “the more linguistic end of pragmatics,” and sociopragmatic competence, which is “the sociological interface of pragmatics” (Leech, 1983, pp. 10-11). An additional challenge is the pre-existing native cultural and pragmatic norms of L2 learners that need to be monitored during communication (Bialystok, 1993; Kasper & Rose, 2002), as a pragmatic error is more likely to cause displeasure or offense than a grammatical or pronunciation error (Ishihara, 2010; Wolfson, 1989).

Schmidt (1993) argues that despite many years of exposure to the L2, even proficient L2 speakers do not necessarily reach a desirable endpoint in the pragmatic functioning of the language (Taguchi, 2010). This may be due in part to a lack of contextual factors, the unlikelihood of noticing (Schmidt, 1993), or lack of saliency (Kasper & Rose, 2002), but also because language learners underestimate the difficulty of balancing two different discourse orientations emanating from their target and native languages (Kramersch, 1985, p. 170). Since L2 speakers who have “coexisting discourse worlds” must switch them during communication (Edmonson, 1985, p. 201, as cited in Wildner-Bassett, 1990, pp. 142-143), they must become aware of this coexistence in order to notice the pragmatic uses in the target language. If L2 learners are unable to achieve this, pragmatic transfer which may lead to pragmatic failure may occur (Thomas, 1983).

Instruction is one way to help L2 learners notice the use of pragmatic patterns in the target language to make them part of their communicative competence. Since the benefits of instruction in teaching pragmatics are now established by previous research (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper & Rose, 1999; Taguchi, 2015), review studies including meta-analyses have called for more studies examining the effects of different instructional paradigms on learning (Kasper, 1996; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015). Previous research has mainly focused on the effects of explicit and implicit research paradigms on learners’ pragmatic development (e.g., Ebadi & Pourzandi, 2015; Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001); however, more research is needed that aims to bring “greater nuance” to the effectiveness of different types of instruction and target pragmatic forms in learning L2 pragmatics (Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019).

Despite the large body of work addressing the efficacy of L2 pragmatics instruction, a cursory glance at the reviews listing the types of speech acts examined in previous studies reveals that relatively little attention has been paid to the study of compliments and compliment responses (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015; Takahashi, 2010). Considering that they are commonly encountered by L2

learners in their daily lives in a second language learning environment or in popular media, it could be argued that participants are likely to find the situations in the study useful and less challenging than some other speech acts, such as complaining, due to their rare usage in some cultures (Cohen & Olshtain, 1994, p. 152). Besides, since giving and returning compliments is a means of fostering cooperation and supporting a positive face among people (Wolfson, 1983, p. 89), instruction helps raise learners' awareness of using compliments and compliment responses in a socially, semantically, and syntactically appropriate manner.

While there are studies that examine the effects of different instructional modes on the development of learners' compliments and/or compliment responses, the studies that address the importance of instruction type and go beyond the paradigms of explicit and implicit instruction are limited (e.g., Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001). Taguchi (2015), in particular, calls for additional interventional studies in which instruction includes input processing activities (Vanpatten, 1996) and implicit instruction includes noticing and processing. Therefore, the present study aims to extend previous speech act research on compliments and compliment responses by examining how different instructional paradigms with structured input activities affect learners' pragmatic development in the short term.

Literature review

Pragmatic Instruction: Complimenting & Compliment Responding

The idea that instruction is key to L2 pragmatic development is consistent with Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis, which states that learners should be able to notice the features of the target language in order for L2 development to occur. He also points to the fact that even children learning their first language acquire strategies for the pragmatic use of their L1 rather than just being exposed to it. It is also true that adult L2 learners do not receive the feedback necessary for learning L2 pragmatics outside of the classroom setting (Kasper & Rose, 2002). In this regard, although studies have confirmed that teaching L2 pragmatics is achievable and helps learners support their interlanguage pragmatic development, it raises the question of how the type of instruction and the pragmatic form affect the learning of pragmatics in L2 English (Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015).

The speech acts of compliments and compliment responses, which are relatively under-researched in L2 English pragmatics, are considered a supportive way to build relationships and establish solidarity between interlocutors (Wolfson, 1989). They serve as expressions of support, admiration (Manes, 1983), greeting, farewell, or congratulation, among others (Wolfson, 1989). Researchers have proposed several taxonomies to classify interlocutors' strategies for giving or responding to compliments. For compliments, the most widely accepted set of formulae was proposed by Manes and Wolfson (1981). They analyzed over six hundred compliments and identified the nine most common syntactic structures as well as various semantic and thematic patterns. Previous research also proposed three main categories for compliments, namely appearance/possessions, abilities/performance/skills, and personality traits (Ishihara, 2004; Manes & Wolfson,

1981), and further pragmatic variations based on gender, social status, and context have also been pointed out (Ishihara, 2010). Pomerantz (1978) divided responses to compliments into three major categories that formed the basis for similar classifications: Acceptance, rejection, and self-praise avoidance mechanism. Herbert (1986) created a similar taxonomy for compliment responses based on his evaluation of more than a thousand compliment responses and concluded that a simple “accept” response such as “thank you” was given less frequently by American college students than a “comment accept” or “downgrade” response, which he believed contradicted the general view. Next, Holmes (1988, 1993) suggested three main categories (accept, deflect/evade, reject) based on data he collected in New Zealand. Although all of these taxonomies vary in a number of ways, they all show that native English speakers are unlikely to prefer rejects in responding to compliments.

Regardless of how structured they may seem from a purely descriptive perspective, learning compliments and compliment responses is generally challenging for L2 learners, especially as regards their linguistically and socially appropriate use. This is primarily due to cross-cultural differences in values and norms that affect how compliments and compliment responses are perceived and practiced. Previous descriptive studies have typically collected natural data from native (e.g., Wolfson, 1983) or non-native (e.g., Baba, 1996) speakers of English or used role-playing to uncover or enhance strategies and forms commonly used by non-native speakers of English (e.g., Cheng, 2011; Hasler-Barker, 2016). Compliment responses have been studied more frequently than compliments (e.g., Alsuhaibani, 2022; Cheng & Liang, 2015), and few studies (e.g., Ishihara, 2004) have examined both compliments and compliment responses simultaneously using an intervention design.

Billmyer (1990) was one of the first to investigate the effects of instruction on real-life, authentic interactions between L1 and L2 speakers of English. Half of her participants received instruction in compliments and responding to compliments, while the other half did not. Because the instructed ESL group communicated more appropriately with native English speakers in their interactions, she concludes that teaching socio-pragmatic language rules can help learners communicate more appropriately in real life.

Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) also studied the effects of pragmatics instruction on the use of compliments and compliment responses by Cantonese L2 English learners in Hong Kong. The study used portions of films collected as a corpus of compliments and compliment responses from forty American feature films. These authentic examples of compliments and compliment responses were used to investigate whether two different instructional paradigms, namely inductive and deductive instruction, make a difference in instructional gains. Results indicated that there was a contribution of instruction, although this effect was similar for both types of instructional paradigms, with the exception of sociopragmatic skills, which were measured through a discourse completion test. The researchers pointed out that the heterogeneity and high pre-test scores of the participants may have affected the interpretation of the results. Therefore, they suggested that further research be conducted to examine the effects of instruction on students with lower language levels and similar pre-test performances.

Ishihara (2004) examined how instruction on compliments and compliment responses benefited ESL learners ($n = 31$). The instruction, which took place in four sessions over a period of approximately three hours, included a variety of activities and skills such as writing compliments for different macro- and micro-social contexts, note-taking, feedback & evaluation, and reading. Both groups received a pre- and an immediate post-test, followed by a delayed post-test administered a year after instruction. The tests included writing compliment dialogs using both compliments and their responses. The results indicated a positive effect of explicit instruction on improving learners' awareness and use of the targeted pragmatic forms, with some degree of attrition measured by the delayed post-test. The findings are very important for exacerbating the efficacy of instruction for learners' pragmatic development, but further studies are needed that examine a comparison of different instructional paradigms.

One such study by Ebadi and Pourzandi (2015), which was conducted with 56 Iranian intermediate EFL learners, investigated the effects of implicit and explicit teaching of compliments and compliment responses using a control group on a pre-post design. The instructional sessions, the details of which were not provided, included either inductive or deductive teaching and lasted three weeks with a total of six academic sessions. The results of the open-ended DCTs revealed that learners in both instructional groups made more progress than those in the control group. The authors further reported slightly higher gains by learners in the implicit instruction group although they cautioned that the difference was "by a small margin" (p. 24).

Alsuhaibani (2022) aimed at examining the effects of consciousness-raising instruction and corpus-based instruction on EFL learners' development of compliment responses. With 136 EFL university students, it used a quasi-experimental design with three groups: control, consciousness-raising, and corpus groups. A discourse completion test (DCT) was utilized as a pre- and post-test to measure the effects of instruction. An open-ended questionnaire was also employed to investigate students' impressions of pragmatic education of praise answers. It was shown that instruction on compliment responses through both consciousness-raising and corpus-based instruction was effective, but no significant differences were found between the two instruction types. The findings also demonstrated that students value pragmatic training, indicating that it is vital, necessary, beneficial, and pleasurable all at the same time.

In another study, Zhang (2021) examines how much L2 learners develop in their use of compliment responses through Computer Mediated-Communication (CMC) alone and CMC along with data-driven teaching. Chinese EFL students at a university ($n = 59$) were assigned to the experimental group participated in CMC and had data-driven teaching in compliment responses, whereas the control group learned compliment responses through CMC without data-driven instruction. Experimental participants surpassed the control group for both appropriateness and variety in the immediate and delayed post-intervention tests, showing that data-driven instruction combined with CMC enhances pragmatic development in L2.

Although the realization of complimenting and/or responding to compliments has received high attention in various interventional studies besides those with cross-cultural,

and descriptive designs (e.g., Aston, 1995; Billmyer, 1990; Cheng, 2011), researching these speech acts especially for testing the effectiveness of various intervention types continues to merit investigation for their frequency and function.

Inductive Instruction, Deductive Instruction, and Structured Input Activities

Previous reviews on L2 pragmatics instruction have shown that explicit teaching is mostly more effective than implicit teaching (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015; Takahashi, 2010). However, in their meta-analysis of the efficacy of pragmatics teaching, Jeon and Kaya (2006) maintained that, given the scarcity of available data, the supposedly stronger results of explicit pragmatic teaching should not be seen as conclusive and should be further explored in future work.

The teaching and processing modalities used in the present study, namely inductive and deductive instruction, were both explicit although inductive and deductive modalities could have possibly involved more implicit and explicit processing, respectively. Therefore, it should be pointed out that in this study, inductive learning was meant to be different from implicit learning, as the former comprised explicit learning. As Takimoto (2008b) also indicated “*inductive* and *deductive* refer to processing strategies in learning and instruction, whereas *implicit* and *explicit* refer to the levels of fostering awareness” (p. 370). The two instructional types used in the present study, inductive and deductive instruction, are detailed in Decoo’s (1996, p. 96) five modalities in Table 1.

Table 1. Decoo’s Teaching Modalities

Modalities	Explanation
Modality A	Actual deduction
Modality B	Conscious induction as guided discovery
Modality C	Induction leading to an explicit “summary of behavior”
Modality D	Subconscious induction on structured material
Modality E	Subconscious induction on unstructured material

The present study uses the first two instruction modalities, namely Modality A and B. Both of these modalities are considered explicit teaching paradigms, where the learners are expected to notice the input provided in the classroom. According to Decoo (1996, p. 97), Modality A & B can be summarized as follows:

Modality A (Actual Deduction): The grammatical rule or pattern is explicitly stated at the beginning of the learning process and the students move into the application of this grammar (examples and exercises).

Modality B (Conscious induction as guided discovery): The students first encounter various examples, often sentences, sometimes embedded in a text. The “conscious discovery” of the grammar is then directed by the teacher: on the basis of the examples he normally asks a few key-questions and the students are led to discover and formulate the rule. The rationale usually given is that students who discover the rule on their own will profit from this.

As Takimoto (2008a) claims, these two modalities “share a common objective: to enhance the salience of target forms in order to promote attention to and noticing of” the

structures being taught (p. 32). Interventional research on the acquisition of L2 pragmatics further supported the finding that explicit instruction combined with input enhancement activities is the most effective way to teach target forms (e.g., Takahashi, 2010; Takimoto, 2008a).

Input enhancement, a term introduced by Smith (1993), refers to a set of teacher-induced or externally-induced techniques that make the target forms more salient for helping learners to learn them. According to him, meaning-based activities alone may not provide the learners with the necessary input to notice the forms, and thus, enhancement of the input is crucial, which may span from the highlighting of texts to the use of gestures. In order to see the effects of input enhancement, the present study uses structured input tasks which were described as one way to enhance L2 learners' input by Ellis (2003).

Structured input activities are claimed to be effective in improving the input learners receive (Ellis, 1997, 2008). The basis of the term "structured input" originates in Vanpatten's (1996) processing instruction, in which the fundamental idea is that the learners are able to process the input through the help of the structural clues and special cases in the structure of the input. In other words, the learners are driven to process the specifically produced target features, and thus, pay attention to the form better than they would otherwise do. Taking stock of the definitions of Vanpatten (1996), Ellis (1997) provided nine principles of interpretation tasks, which are known to resemble structured input activities, and some of those relevant to the present study are listed below:

- (1) An interpretation activity consists of a stimulus to which learners must make some kind of response.
 - (2) The stimulus can take the form of spoken or written input.
 - (3) The response can take various forms but it should be non-verbal or minimally verbal.
 - (4) The activities can be sequenced to require learners to attend to meaning, then notice the form and function of the structure, and, finally, identify and correct errors.
 - (5) As a result of task completion, learners should understand the form-meaning connection of a particular structure
 - (6) Interpretation tasks should require both personal and referential responses from learners.
- (pp. 155-159)

In order to investigate how interpretation tasks such as structured input activities can be used in L2 pragmatics teaching, the current study adopts an interpretation approach Ellis (1997, 2003) described through structured input activities. Including both referential and affective-oriented activities, these activities intended to promote conscious learning through noticing the usages of the structures.

The present study

Previous research has established that instruction helps the learning of target pragmatic forms; however, more research is needed for determining the efficacy of different instructional paradigms (Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019) for teaching how to compliment and respond to compliments. Therefore, the present study seeks to identify and explain the effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the pragmatic

development of compliments and compliment responses in ESL learners by attempting to answer two basic questions:

1. Does short-term L2 pragmatic instruction on complimenting and responding to compliments help promote learning of the target forms in ESL learners?
2. What are the relative effects of instruction for inductive and deductive instructional paradigms in teaching ESL learners complimenting and responding to compliments?

Methodology

Research design and publication ethics

A quasi-experimental design was adopted in this study, with three intact classes acting as two experimental groups and a control group. All three groups took a pre-, immediate post-, and a delayed post-test, which required the learners to complete a written Discourse Completion Task (DCT), with a Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ), and a multiple choice Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire (MAQ). Ethical approval was initially obtained from the Institutional Review Board of the University of South Carolina, and the students signed the informed consent forms. No compensation was provided to interventional groups for taking part in the study, but the control group was offered to be taught similar content on the target subject.

Participants and Context

In this study, there were three intact classes of participants enrolled in the Intensive English Program (IEP) for international students at a large research university in the southeast of the United States. They were enrolled in an intermediate level (B1.1), 9-week speaking & listening class in which they were placed based on their beginning-of-term oral interviews and Michigan Test Listening Scores. Three classes were assigned to deductive instruction, inductive instruction, and control groups through cluster random sampling. The initial set of participants included 45 learners with various first languages (L1s); however, data from 19 participants were excluded from the analysis due to missing data. Therefore, a total of 26 students (F = 12 M = 14) were included in the final analysis. Besides, an initial group of seven participants from various nationalities, as well as 10 native speakers of American English (AE) provided data for the initial development of the questionnaire items. A separate group involving 33 native speakers of AE participated in the research to create a baseline for the data collection instruments and data coding, which will be detailed further in the following sections. Those non-native and native base groups were students at the undergraduate and graduate levels at various universities. Table 2 provides a summary of the participant profiles.

Table 2. Participants' demographic information across groups

Condition	<i>N</i> (F; M)	Age <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Length of U.S. residence ⁶ <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)
Deductive Instruction	8 (3 F; 5 M) ¹	20 (2.67)	5.25 (3.96)
Inductive Instruction	8 (4 F; 4 M) ²	20.5 (1.77)	5.63 (6.07)
Control	10 (5 F; 5 M) ³	21.9 (2.54)	4.70 (3.80)
NS base	33 (19 F; 14 M) ⁴	22.4 (2.1)	N/A
NNS/NS base	17 (7 F; 10 M) ⁵	24.8 (2.8)	45 (2.1)

Note. NS = Native Speaker; NNS = Non-native Speaker

¹L1s represented: Arabic ($n = 3$), Chinese ($n = 3$), Spanish ($n = 1$), Turkish ($n = 1$). ²Arabic ($n = 1$), Chinese ($n = 4$), Japanese ($n = 2$), French ($n = 1$). ³Arabic ($n = 4$), Chinese ($n = 3$), Japanese ($n = 1$), Korean ($n = 1$), Turkish ($n = 1$). ⁴American English ($n = 33$). ⁵Arabic ($n = 1$), Chinese ($n = 1$), Japanese ($n = 1$), Korean ($n = 1$), Turkish ($n = 1$), Spanish ($n = 1$), French ($n = 1$), American English ($n = 10$). ⁶Means were calculated in months.

In addition to the demographic information provided in Table 1, learners were also asked questions about their language background and were expected to self-rate their communicative abilities in L2 English. The learners in all three groups were similar in their age of onset ($m = 14.3$, $SD = 5.09$, $m = 14.1$, $SD = 4.05$, $m = 12.4$, $SD = 3.06$ for deductive, inductive, and control groups, respectively). On a scale out of 6 (1 = rarely, 6 = all the time), learners reported spending a moderate amount of time with native speakers of English with an average of 2.88 ($SD = 1.36$) for the deductive instruction group, 2.63 ($SD = 1.19$) for the inductive instruction group, and 2.80 ($SD = 1.69$) for the control group. While communicating with Americans, learners in instructional groups found themselves equally successful with a mean score of 2.88 ($SD = .64$), and those in the control group self-rated their communication ability as “average” with a score of 3 ($SD = .94$) on a scale out of 5 (1 = not successful at all, 5 = very successful). Finally, for their comfort level while communicating with Americans, out of five (1 = not comfortable at all, 5 = very comfortable), the calculated mean was 2.88 ($SD = .84$) for the deductive instruction group, 3.00 ($SD = .76$) for the inductive instruction group, and 3.40 ($SD = .96$) for the control group.

Target Structures and Instruments

The data for the present study was collected through (a) a written Discourse Completion Task (DCT) with a Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ) to elicit compliments and (b) a Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire (MAQ) for checking learners' development in determining the level of appropriateness in responding to compliments. The scenarios used in the tests were either adapted from Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) or developed by the researcher (data collection instruments are available from the author upon request).

For compliments, target structures were determined based on the formulae proposed by Manes and Wolfson (1981, p. 120, see below) as they have been most commonly cited in similar research. Both in the instructional treatment and the analysis of the DCT the same framework was used.

(1) Your blouse is/looks (really) beautiful.	(NP is/looks (really) ADJ)
(2) I (really) like/love your car.	(I (really) like/love NP)
(3) That's a (really) nice wall hanging.	(PRO is a (really) ADJ NP)
(4) You did a (really) good job.	(You V a (really) ADV NP)
(5) You really handled that situation well.	(You V (NP) (really) ADV)
(6) You have such beautiful hair!	(You have (a) ADJ NP!)
(7) What a lovely baby you have!	(What (a) ADJ NP!)
(8) Nice game!	(ADJ NP!)
(9) Isn't your ring beautiful!	(Isn't NP ADJ!)

For collecting data on compliments, written DCTs were preferred over other forms of assessment because it has been shown that instructional effects were more evident on the results of an assessment tool that did not require too much cognitive processing (Taguchi, 2015), that is, DCTs allow more time for planning compared to other types of productive tasks such as role plays. Another advantage of DCTs is that the context and some other demographic variables such as gender or age can be controlled in DCTs in accordance with the research goals (Cyluk, 2013). For content validity, several measures were taken. First, the DCT used in this study comprised five different scenarios which asked the learners to write two compliments each for appearance and for performance, and one for possession. Since the present study did not aim at measuring the effects of relative power, status/speaker difficulty, or social distance, these variables were kept similar across scenarios to further ensure validity. The SAQ was presented right below DCT and asked learners to rate their own responses. The purpose of the SAQ was to determine learners' level of self-confidence in responding to compliments in an appropriate way. Following is a sample item from the DCT and the SAQ:

(1) DCT sample item

Tom (one of your friends) is a business major. He has an interview today for a part-time job at a large investment company, so he is wearing his best suit. You compliment (express admiration, praise) him on his appearance:

YOU say: “ _____ ”

(2) SAQ sample item

What do you think of your answer? How appropriate is it? Circle one number.

Not very appropriate ☹ 1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5 ☺ Very appropriate

For compliment responses, the target structures were also determined following Holmes' (1988) response categories for their convenience and learnability given the amount of time allocated for instructional treatment (see below). For collecting data on compliment responses, learners were given the MAQ, which asks learners to rate the level of appropriateness of each of the five possible responses on a scale from 1 (very inappropriate) to 5 (very appropriate) for five different scenarios. MAQ over a DCT was preferred as learners might have responded in the same way to all scenarios by just giving a “thank-you” response. Since the purpose was to examine how each learner would

evaluate the appropriateness of different responses, a questionnaire with previously created items was used. The answers in MAQ were created by the researcher through a corpus of answers gathered from non-native and native speakers of English asking them to write acceptable, less acceptable, and unacceptable answer choices ($n = 17$). In order to specify the response categories to be used in the questionnaire, the answers collected from ten native AE speakers were coded based on an adaptation of Holmes' (1988) features explaining response types in English:

- (a) Accept, additional information/comment
- (b) Accept, downgrading
- (c) Deflect
- (d) Reject, comparison
- (e) Accept only (Thank you)

In order to avoid gender bias in these answers, four other native speakers were continuously consulted. Following the development of an answer for each of the five response categories for each scenario, the final version of the questionnaire was sent to a separate group of American speakers of English ($n = 33$) to create the baseline data for the analysis. These steps aimed at ensuring the validity of the content measured by the instrument. Below is a sample item for the MAQ:

(3) MAQ sample item

Scenario X: You met a friend (of the same gender) on campus and he/she tells you that he/she liked your new car very much.

Your classmate: "I like your car, it is pretty cool"

You: _____

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Thanks, I'm really happy with my purchase. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Thanks, but I don't like the color. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. My dad is an expert at buying quality cars for cheap. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Oh, no, it isn't. Your car is much better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Thank you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Although response patterns in real life may not be limited to those included in the study, as the objective of the instruction was to help learners better understand the appropriateness of some forms over others and as the instructional treatment period was one-time only, the response patterns were confined to these five categories.

Participants also completed a questionnaire on language background and demographics. It included several additional questions about how seriously the participants were involved in the lesson and how useful they found the session. This helped to interpret the results if there was a large discrepancy that resulted from the performance or atmosphere in that particular classroom that could negatively affect the learning process. This also helps measure the level of student engagement in and commitment to the tasks to better assess the impact of the instruction (Kasper & Rose, 2002, pp. 246-247). If students

do not take the tasks seriously or do not put forth the adequate effort, the effects of instruction may not be readily apparent in the findings.

Instructional Treatments and Procedures

The study involved three intact classes, which were randomly assigned to two experimental (deductive and inductive instruction) and a control group. While the two experimental groups received instruction on compliments and compliment responses, the control group did not receive any treatment but completed all three tests.

The instructional materials used with learners in the deductive and inductive instruction groups were identical with respect to the target pragmatic structures (treatment materials are available from the author upon request). In designing and developing the materials, suggestions from previous research on metapragmatic instruction were taken into account (Ishihara, 2010; Ishihara & Cohen, 2021). The primary objective of the teaching sessions was to help learners understand (a) the common syntactic and semantic structures used for complimenting, (b) the common adjectives used for complimenting, (c) general tendencies in compliment responding, with a special focus on the inappropriateness of disagreement, and (d) gender differences in complimenting. In order to achieve this, Decoo's (1996) Modality A (Explicit-Deductive Instruction) and Modality B (Explicit-Inductive Instruction with guided discovery) were used to teach ESL learners the speech acts of complimenting and responding to compliments.

Table 3. Instructional treatment features across groups

Group	<i>N</i>	Treatment	Proactive Metalinguistic Instruction
Deductive Instruction	8	Structured input tasks, Pragmalinguistic form-focused activities, Reinforcement activities	Yes
Inductive Instruction	8	Structured input tasks, Pragmalinguistic form-focused activities, Reinforcement activities	No
Control Group	10	No treatment	No

Each treatment group received one, 90-minute treatment from the same instructor, a non-native speaker of English with more than 6 years of ESL/EFL teaching experience, who was the researcher in this study. The content of the target structures was matched for both treatment groups. The treatments, as well as the administration of the tests, took place during the learners' regular class time. The ESL learners were taught in English only but were allowed to ask for the meaning of unknown words in the questionnaire. Below is a summary of each step of the study.

Day #1: Pre-test (Week 4/9)

ESL learners in all three groups took a pre-test (DCT, SAQ, and MAQ, in order) on consecutive days during the fourth week of a 9-week intensive English program. Since there were options to choose from in the MAQ, students were presented with the tests in a specified order not to influence learners' DCT responses. The same procedure was followed on subsequent days.

Day #2: Instructional Treatment and Immediate Post-test (Week 6/9)

Deductive Instruction Group: The students were instructed deductively for 90 minutes on the speech act of complimenting and responding to compliments. Deductive instruction here means helping learners notice new input that can be used later with explicit instructions. First, learners watched a short audio clip with examples of compliments and compliment responses from American speakers with corresponding questions about the content before, during, and after listening. After metapragmatic explanations of Manes and Wolfson's (1981) syntactic categories and Holmes' (1988) adapted categories for compliment responses, learners were asked to identify the compliments and responses in the transcript of the audio clip and categorize them accordingly. They were provided with additional handouts to reinforce their learning of the target structures, which helped learners to further investigate and practice the target structures. In the last 20 minutes of the class session, they also practiced the target structures through structured input tasks as suggested by Ellis (1997). In these tasks, they had to determine which of the two given compliments or compliment responses was more appropriate for the given situation. This allowed learners to specifically identify the less appropriate types of compliments and/or compliment responses by encouraging them to engage in learning (Ellis, 1997). At the end of the session, learners were given 15 minutes to complete the immediate post-test and the language background & demographic information questionnaire.

Inductive Instruction Group: The students were instructed inductively on speech acts for 90 minutes. The instructional sessions of the inductive and deductive instruction groups were identical in content and time on tasks. Here, the inductive instruction meant that the learners had to induce the meanings in order to notice the input and figure out the rules that form these examples. This meant that learners in the inductive instruction group were not given metalinguistic explanations of the content, but were only asked questions to help guide their own self-discovery of the target structures. For example, they also listened to the same audio clip although there was no explicit teaching of formulae before being asked to find and categorize the compliments and responses. The same rule applied to the presentation and practice of further content. In the last 20 minutes of the class session, they were presented with the same structured input tasks. Finally, they also completed the immediate post-test and the language background questionnaire.

Control Group: The learners in this group followed their regular course content without any exposure to the target pragmatic structures in class as confirmed by the teachers assigned to this class. The control group completed the same questionnaires as the treatment groups.

Day #3: Delayed Post-test (9/9)

All three groups involved in the study were given a delayed post-test in the last week of the 9-week term primarily to provide information on how much of the input was

retained by the learners in the deductive, inductive instruction group. Control group was also given the delayed post-test to measure any changes.

Regarding the instructional treatment session, participants were asked questions to determine their level of satisfaction with the treatment session. The first question asked learners to rate the session out of 5 (5 = very useful, 1 = not useful at all). The mean score for the ratings by the learners was 4.13 ($SD = .83$, $SE = .29$) in the deductive instruction group and 3.63 in the inductive instruction group ($m = 3.63$, $SD = .75$, $SE = .26$); however, the difference was not significant. The second question asked learners whether they learned anything they could use outside of class and why. Regardless of the group assignment, all learners were affirmative in their responses and provided some explanation such as the usefulness of the content for complimenting and social relationships. The last question was aimed at understanding how interested they were and how much of the content they could comprehend. The learners in the deductive instruction group were more interested ($m = 4.60$, $SD = .46$, $SE = .16$) than the learners in the inductive instruction group ($m = 4.63$, $SD = .51$, $SE = .18$) without a significant test finding. These results indicate that learners overall benefited from the instructional treatment regardless of their group assignment although learners in the deductive instruction group rated the session better and seemed more interested.

Data Coding and Analysis

Data coding was completed in two main phases. First, the compliments written by the learners in the DCT and the self-ratings in the SAQ were coded by the author. A total of 390 compliments for all groups in three different tests were rated by one male and one female native speaker of AE on a scale out of five (1 = very inappropriate, 5 = very appropriate). Prior to the scoring procedure, raters received short training on the rating process, which involved information on Holmes' (1988) and Manes and Wolfson's (1981) categories and how to deal with ungrammaticality. There were five scenarios and two ratings for each, resulting in a maximum score of 50 points (5 x 5 x 2). To determine the degree of agreement between coders, Cohen's Kappa (κ) was performed and found to be near perfect, $\kappa = .82$ (95% CI, .465 to .748), $p < .001$. SAQ ratings were also summed for each learner for analysis with a maximum score of 25.

For the analysis of compliment responses, the data was first rated based on the native baseline data analyzed descriptively. In order to determine the most-commonly preferred compliment responses, the frequency of the responses was calculated. Twenty-five responses rated by the learners for appropriateness were each worth 4 points which makes a maximum score of 100 points. Based on the baseline data, the response with the highest percentage was worth 4 points, and the response with the next highest percentage was worth 3 points. No points were awarded for other response categories. In determining the percentages, care was taken to ensure that either the highest-scoring option alone or the two highest-scoring options accounted for at least 85% of all responses. If a single scoring category accounted for 85% of all data, the second-highest option was disregarded and received no points. Pre-test and post-test scores were calculated for each learner for each

of the five scenarios, and an overall score was calculated that included the sum of scores from all five scenarios. A Cronbach's alpha value for internal consistency of .83 was obtained for the reliability of the MAQ.

Results

DCT and SAQ Results

The descriptive statistics of the DCT and the SAQ, which were scored out of 50 and 25, respectively, are presented in Table 4 and Table 5.

Table 4. Group means and standard deviations for the DCT

Group	<i>n</i>	Pre-test		Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Deductive Instruction	8	19.63	2.26	23.63	1.30	22.88	1.25
Inductive Instruction	8	19.38	3.02	23.63	1.69	23.25	1.17
Control Group	10	20.40	2.17	20.40	2.37	20.8	1.98

Table 5. Group means and standard deviations for the SAQ

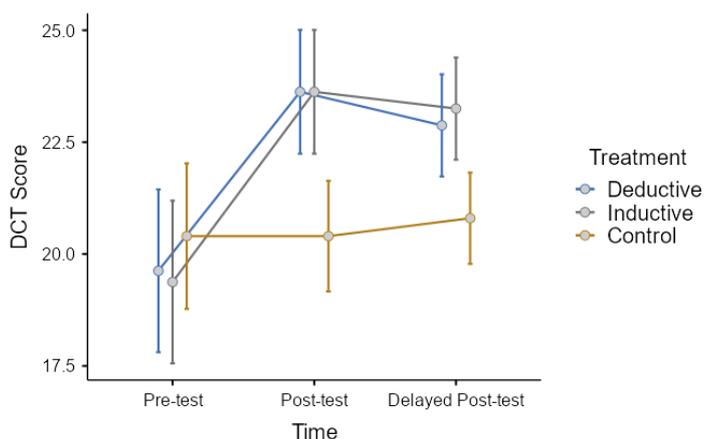
Group	<i>n</i>	Pre-test		Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Deductive Instruction	8	19.3	2.71	22.1	2.30	21.0	2.20
Inductive Instruction	8	17.0	2.73	19.6	3.38	20.0	2.39
Control Group	10	18.7	2.87	19.6	3.44	19.6	2.99

For the pre-test scores of DCT and SAQ, there were no statistically significant differences among the three groups as revealed by the findings of the one-way ANOVA, $F(2, 23) = .423$, $p = .66$ for DCT, $F(2, 23) = 1.443$, $p = .26$ for SAQ. Before conducting a repeated measures (RM) ANOVA, data was checked for the assumptions of normality and sphericity. Assumptions associated with the normality of the distributions were examined through an examination of skewness and kurtosis values, and no violations were noted. Also, the Shapiro-Wilk test further indicated that the data was normally distributed ($p > .01$) for both tests on all three conditions. For DCT data, Mauchly's test indicated a violation of sphericity ($p = .02$), so degrees of freedom were corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\epsilon = .68$), and finally, the assumption of independence appeared reasonable. For SAQ data, similar violations of sphericity were noted ($p = .02$) and Huynh-Feldt corrected results are reported ($\epsilon = .87$). Also, for both tests and on all three conditions, the assumption of the equality of variances was met through non-significant Levene's test findings.

A two-way RM ANOVA within and between-subjects design for DCT showed a significant main effect for Time, $F(1.51, 17.36) = 21.20$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .048$, and a significant interaction effect between Treatment and Time was also shown [$F(3.02, 75.5) = 19.25$, $p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .31$]. However, the main effect for the Treatment group was not significant, $F(2, 23) = 3.29$, $p < .055$, $\eta_p^2 = .22$. Bonferroni adjusted pairwise comparisons for Time variable further revealed significant effects for pre- and post-tests, $t(25) = -3.97$, $p < .001$ (Figure 1). No other significant post-hoc findings were found. The results of the

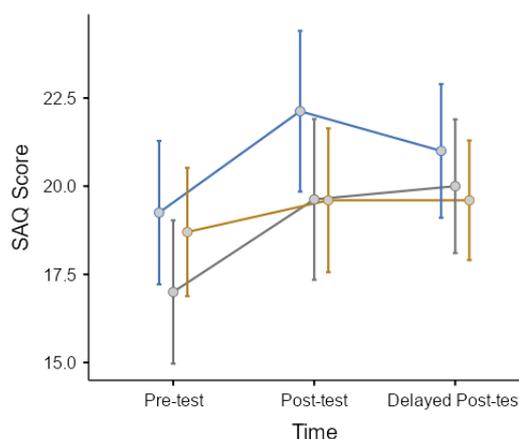
two-way RM ANOVA of the SAQ, with Huynh-Feldt adjustment, revealed a significant main effect for Time, $F(1.75, 20.1) = 21.20, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .048$. However, no significant finding for the main effect for Treatment $F(2, 23) = 21.20, p = .32, \eta_p^2 = .09$, or for an interaction effect were found $F(3.5, 40.21) = 2.47, p = .07, \eta_p^2 = .18$. As is also shown in Figure 2, no statistically significant differences between the deductive and inductive instruction groups were found although both groups improved from the pre-test to the post-test, $t(25) = 4.65, p < .001$, and the positive effects of treatment for both groups were maintained through the delayed post-test although no additional gains were made through delayed post-test.

Figure 1. Interaction plot for the DCT



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Figure 2. Interaction plot for the SAQ



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

As for the compliment responses, the data obtained from the MAQ is presented in Table 6, with a maximum score of 100.

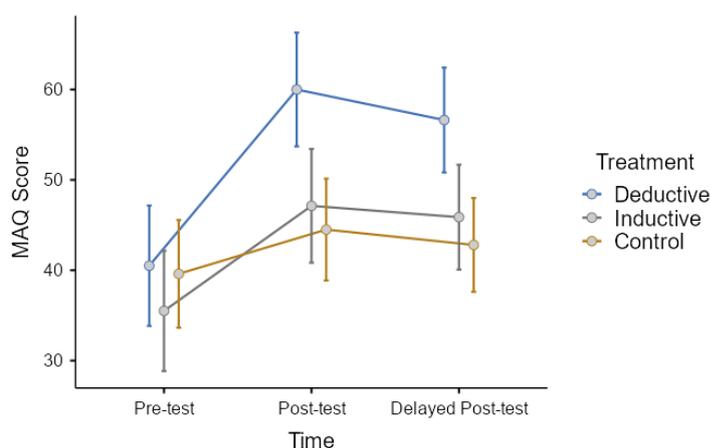
Table 6. Group means and standard deviations for the MAQ

Group	n	Pre-test		Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Deductive Instruction	8	40.5	9.19	60.0	7.39	56.63	7.39
Inductive Instruction	8	35.5	9.34	47.13	9.05	45.88	9.05
Control Group	10	39.6	8.91	44.50	7.39	42.80	7.39

Before examining the effects of Instruction on the MAQ scores of learners at three different time points, first, a one-way ANOVA was conducted and revealed no statistically significant differences among the deductive instruction, inductive instruction, and control groups, $F(2, 23) = .70, p = .51$. Also, the data was checked for assumptions of RM ANOVA, no violations of normality ($S-W = p > .01$) and sphericity ($W = .94$) were found. For the assumption of homogeneity of variances, no violations were noted as revealed by non-significant Levene's test results, $F(2, 23) = .04, p = .96$. After meeting the assumptions, a two-way RM ANOVA of the MAQ scores was conducted, and the results showed a significant main effect for Time $F(2, 23) = 27.72, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .55$, and for Treatment, there was also a significant main effect $F(2, 23) = 5.61, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .33$. Additionally, a significant Treatment x Time interaction effect was also found, $F(4, 46) =$

3.76, $p = .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .25$. Revealing the positive effects of instructional treatment, Figure 3 further illustrates the amount of gain both treatment groups made from pre- to post-tests. Furthermore, post hoc comparisons showed that the deductive instruction group made higher gain scores than the inductive instruction group with a statistically significant difference with Bonferroni adjustment, $t(23) = 2.76$, $p = .03$. As revealed by the delayed post-test findings, the effects of both types of instruction was sustained in the delayed post-test although there was a small amount of drop in the delayed post-test.

Figure 3. Interaction plot for the MAQ



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Discussion

The first research question the present study sought to investigate was whether instruction benefits ESL learners in their pragmatic development of the speech act of complimenting and compliment responding. The findings demonstrate that both treatment groups outperformed the control group as measured by the DCT and the MAQ. This finding is not surprising as the positive effects of instruction have already been established in the related literature (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019). The findings provide further evidence for the fact that when teaching L2 pragmatics, input, on its own, may not be sufficient for learning the target structures, and thus, it is very important to emphasize them for increasing their saliency (Taguchi, 2015, p. 27). Learners in both treatment groups were also found to have improved their confidence in assessing their performance in writing compliments over time compared to those in the control group, which further evidences how instruction helps learners gain confidence in their abilities.

The second research question of the present study aimed to investigate whether the type of instruction made a difference in terms of learners' progress in L2 pragmatics. However, the answer to this question varied across tests. For compliments measured by the DCT, the findings revealed that learners benefited from instruction with no significant effect of the type of instruction. This finding does not support the study of Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) who found deductive instruction to be more effective than inductive instruction in teaching EFL students complimenting and responding to compliments. Similar to the

current study, their study also examined the effects of two instructional paradigms, but in the present study, structured input activities were used as part of the treatment in both treatment groups, which may have affected the findings. One explanation is that both treatment groups used structured input activities which increase the salience of target forms by enhancing learners' attention to the input. Therefore, the target forms could have become identically salient regardless of the instructional modality (e.g., Takimoto, 2009, p. 20), resulting in learner gains that are not significantly different in both treatment groups. However, it should be noted that more evidence is needed to confirm this claim, which could, for example, be possible through a study design in which there are four different treatment groups: Groups receiving deductive and inductive instruction with and without structured input activities. For the SAQ ratings, the findings exacerbate previous studies because learners improved the self-perceived accuracy of their own answers; however, the type of instruction they received made no difference (Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001).

However, for compliment responses, the findings of the second research question were mixed with learners in the deductive instruction group improving more than those in the inductive instruction group, as revealed by the MAQ, which echoes some previous research (e.g., Hasler-Barker, 2016; Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001). However, it should be noted that the type of instruction very much depends on a number of different variables such as the learnability of the target forms, the sociopragmatic norms of the L1, and the context. Therefore, studies with larger sample sizes are needed to make robust claims regarding the effectiveness of certain instructional modalities over others.

Previous studies comparing the effectiveness of input-based tasks with varying degrees of explicitness have found that tasks that involve more in-depth processing of input usually presented as part of less explicit instruction are more effective. The primary reason for this is the type of processing such tasks require, which promotes a more in-depth perception and thinking of the input, despite the lack of psycholinguistic evidence for this (Takimoto, 2008b). In the present study, this finding could not be confirmed, as learners in the deductive instruction group made more gains. It may be the fact that a large amount of metapragmatic information combined with structured input activities contributed to learners' better retention of the knowledge in the post-test. Furthermore, the reason for inductive instruction group to lag behind may also be attributable to the short instructional time in the present study. The treatment period may not have been sufficient for the learners to engage in the self-discovery of the structures expected in inductive learning. Studies with longer instructional time might provide more insights into a better understanding of this issue.

Suggestions for Practice

Various pedagogical implications can be observed based on the findings of the present study. First, learners could be taught forms of L2 pragmatics either as a separate module or by being incorporated into regular class hours. One of the key aspects of such instruction is that learners should be made aware of the highly context-sensitive nature of compliments and compliment responses, which may pose challenges to learning. To help

raise learners' awareness of these features, they should be maximally exposed to naturally-occurring data inside and outside the classroom through various activities or assignments that require them to collect authentic samples of the target pragmatic structures.

For L2 pragmatics teaching to become a systematic component in L2 classrooms, it is crucial to make it an essential part of language teacher education and training programs. While most language teachers are trained in teaching various L2 skills and other components, they often lack such training in L2 pragmatics, which is not surprising given its "peripheral" position in L2 teaching (Jeon & Kaya, 2006, p. 166). Therefore, an emphasis on the teaching of L2 pragmatics could empower language teachers who are best able to determine what, when, and how to teach pragmatics. It should, however, be noted that determining the most effective methods for teaching L2 pragmatics is not straightforward as a number of factors such as learning outcomes, target structures, and context deserves consideration. However, as shown by the findings of the present study and other previous work (e.g., Takimoto, 2009), any kind of activity that draws learners' attention to form through input enhancement has been proven beneficial (Taguchi, 2015). Therefore, teachers may be encouraged to incorporate such activities into their classroom teaching. The use of technology might offer abundant opportunities for teachers who aims for more engagement in in the teaching of L2 pragmatics (e.g., Zhang, 2021).

Another related issue is the quality and quantity of the pragmatic content of the materials used for language teaching. Such features should be taken into consideration in the development and selection of classroom and online materials to make L2 pragmatic learning and teaching more effective. Materials that best help raise learners' awareness of the value of using L2 pragmatic forms appropriately through the use of more authentic input from real life sources such as corpora may be encouraged. Therefore, equipping language teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to teach L2 pragmatics through various training and professional development activities is crucial. Some of the areas where teachers need guidance involve teaching and assessment methods, teaching resources, and the use of technology for effective learning and teaching of L2 pragmatics.

Conclusion

The present study addressed two fundamental questions in the literature: (a) the learnability of speech acts and (b) the effects of different teaching paradigms on learning L2 pragmatics. The results demonstrate the benefits of two explicit teaching paradigms, namely, inductive and deductive for the development of complimenting and compliment responding. The results are also consistent with previous research conducted in an EFL setting (e.g., Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001) in that the deductive instruction group improved more. Regardless of the instructional modality, the present study shows that instruction is an effective tool for developing pragmatic knowledge in an ESL environment.

The study is not without limitations. First, it should be acknowledged that the sample size is small, which severely restricts the interpretation and the generalizability of the findings due to decreased effect size and power. Furthermore, the treatment period was limited to one class session, which restricts the amount of exposure to and engagement

with the target forms. However, it should also be noted that treatment length depends on the content and intervention methods (Takahashi, 2010). Another limitation of the study is that DCTs or MAQs are not data collection tools that elicit naturally occurring data. Therefore, more authentic and interactive forms of data collection such as role-playing or the authentic data learners collected could be used in further studies. Therefore, further studies with larger sample sizes that examine a variety of L2 pragmatic forms using less controlled methods of data collection over longer periods of time might provide more insights into the learning and teaching of L2 pragmatics. More research might be done to investigate the influence of various learner-related characteristics including gender and competency in learning L2 pragmatics in greater depth. Despite its limitations, the present study contributes to the existing literature on the relative effects of inductive and deductive instruction in teaching compliments and compliment responses by showing how deductive and inductive instruction with structured input activities was effective.

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The (Non-)Teaching of Pragmatics in an EFL Context

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ABSTRACT

Pragmatics is an area that may be underrepresented in ESL/EFL teaching. This study aims to investigate to what extent pragmatics is taught in an international EFL setting. For this purpose, 28 class sessions taught by 17 teachers from seven different cultural backgrounds were observed for their inclusion of pragmatic features in their classes. The results indicate, despite teaching in an international school setting, these teachers did not make pragmatics an important component of their teaching. Pragmatics accounted for only 8.5 percent of the total observation time and when dealt with, it was handled incidentally when there was a moment to emphasize a pragmatic feature or when the textbook included a section or task relevant to pragmatics. Teachers' incidental treatment of pragmatics signals its importance in language teaching. Thus, suggestions are made to include pragmatics in materials in EFL programs and in teacher education programs.

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Statement of Publication Ethics

The study has been conducted by following publication ethics. The ethics committee approval has been obtained for the current study: Final International University Ethics Committee, 17/11/2021, 100/050/REK.010

Authors' Contribution Rate

All the authors contributed to the data collection, analysis and manuscript writing.

Conflict of Interest

This study has no conflict of interest.

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Introduction

English is the global language used around the world by people whose first language may or may not be English. People travel more today than before as international arrivals statistics demonstrate (The World Bank, 2022a) and people need to engage in communication with people in English when they travel for almost any reason such as for business, education, tourism, journalism, etc. It is also possible now to easily communicate even if you do not travel. Within the past two decades, the Internet has spread around the world (The World Bank, 2022b) and new communication technologies have appeared. In the past, communication was possible with landlines and not very frequent because of the cost of making international calls. The advent of new digital technologies and mobile communication devices has transformed the way people communicate from a distance and has made such communication affordable and ubiquitous as indicated by the increase in the number of internet users (The World Bank, 2022b). Now, people do not need to rely on text or voice alone but can do all within the same communication act. Even people who do not travel can be in contact with others from different cultures and language backgrounds, which makes interpersonal language skills and knowledge of language use indispensable for second language learners and users.

The area that deals with language use is pragmatics and it is an essential part of language competence (Roever, 2009). It is, however, not uncommon to see English users from different backgrounds having communication breakdowns or misunderstandings. People may find one another inappropriate or rude if they are not apt to use language in context efficiently. Since successful interpersonal communication entails knowledge of language use in context, teaching pragmatics in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes is essential. However, pragmatic aspects of language have not received enough attention in teaching EFL; including textbooks published to teach English as a second or foreign language (see Konakahara, 2011; Nu & Murray, 2020; Vellenga, 2004). Thus, EFL teachers need to take initiative and supplement their methods and materials to teach pragmatics. Whether they do so, however, is a question to pursue. In the introduction of their book, *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics*, Ishihara and Cohen (2010, p. ix) suggest that substantial research has been done on pragmatics in the past few decades but “not much of this empirical work has as yet been systematically applied to the L2 classroom and few commercially available textbooks offer research-informed instruction. In addition, few teacher education programs seem to deal with the practical application of pragmatics theories.” Given this, it seems a challenging task for EFL teachers to include pragmatics in their teaching. Thus, this descriptive study is an attempt to investigate to what extent pragmatics is taught in an EFL context.

Literature Review

Various definitions of pragmatics broadly focus on language use, or meaning, in communicative contexts (e.g. Cutting, 2002; Dimitracopoulou, 1990; Graddol et al., 1994; McNamara & Roever, 2006) and it is “determined by the conditions of society” (Mey, 2001, p. 6). Since communication necessitates extending and interpreting meaning, contextual factors that are beyond the surface level meaning naturally influence the

communicative act and since knowledge of language involves being able to communicate with it, pragmatics becomes an essential part of the knowledge of language. Various models of language competence include pragmatics as part of the knowledge of language (e.g. Bachman, 1990; Littlewood, 2011). Ishiara and Cohen (2010, p. 5, citing Yule, 1996) state that people need pragmatic competence to be able to “interpret the intended meanings, assumptions, purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions that are being performed” not just to decode the literal meaning. If a person is only able to understand the literal meaning without intentions or purposes, that communication is likely to fail. For example, “yeah, you are great”, intended as a sarcastic message, would mean the exact opposite of the intended meaning when understood literally. Similarly, when one does not know how to apologize, make requests, give compliments, or refuse invitations appropriately within a speech community, failed communicative acts are inevitable.

Ishiara and Cohen (2010, p. 3) list three factors for pragmatically successful communication including overall language proficiency, social factors such as age, gender, social status, etc., and past experience communicating with speakers who have functional pragmatic ability. Thus, it may be difficult for students in an EFL environment to function in pragmatically-appropriate ways for they are unlikely to have sufficient experience communicating with pragmatically-competent speakers despite the affordances the Internet provides for intercultural communication. For such successful communication to take place, experience in a context is rather essential because contextual factors are fluid rather than constant unlike syntactic or morphological properties of a given language that do not tend to change to a great extent. Since “contexts of use tend to be rather different from culture to culture, and consequently from language to language” (Mey, 2001, p. 263), developing pragmatic knowledge becomes a challenge for second language learners. Since speech acts, an important component of pragmatic ability, are culture-dependent, they may not be valid across cultures (Mey, 2001, p. 263), which can further complicate pragmatic knowledge and skills.

The implication of this for a speaker is that they need to analyze the conditions that make the utterances appropriate in a given situation in a given speech community. When utterances by an L2 speaker or interpretations of utterances by an L2 speaker are not appropriate, then miscommunications are likely and a possible negative appraisal of the L2 speaker’s personality as being impolite by his/her interlocutors (Brock & Nagasaka, 2005, p. 17). Further, Taguchi (2012) propounds that knowing the grammar and lexis of a language is not sufficient for proficiency, being able to speak appropriately and understand the intentions of another speaker are the key elements of successful learning of a language. This suggests that second language learners are to develop their pragmatic competence in order to be able to communicate appropriately according to the sociocultural values of the target language. This may be achieved through effective exposure to pragmatic instruction by EFL learners in EFL settings because “some necessary features of language and language use are quite subtle and not immediately noticeable by learners” (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003, p. 38). Hence, when students acquire the basic knowledge of pragmatics, they could be more responsive to speakers' intended meanings in communication. With frequent practice of pragmatic features, students are more likely to

be proficient in communication with the speakers of the target language. According to Liu (2007) pragmatic instruction is crucial for EFL students as most of the language learning takes place in classrooms. If it is not part of instruction, even students with a high level of grammatical proficiency may not have developed a sufficient level of pragmatic competence. They will tend to show a wide range of competence in language use (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003, p. 38), which suggests that pragmatics needs to be a part of ESL/EFL instruction.

The teaching of pragmatics has been a point of interest for some researchers within the past couple of decades and this interest has continued till recent years. In experimental conditions, researchers have found evidence that instruction in pragmatics may help learners develop various pragmatic skills through a variety of instructional modes. In some of these recent studies, researchers focused on the effect of instruction on pragmatic awareness and development from different contexts with learners with different L1 backgrounds (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2022; Barón et al. 2020; Civelek & Karatepe, 2021; Çetinavcı, 2019; Derakhshan & Arabmofrad, 2018; Gazioğlu & Çiftçi, 2017; Glaser, 2016; Nguyen et al., 2019; Takimoto, 2020; Nguyen & Pham, 2022; Yılmaz & Koban Koç, 2020). These studies were conducted with students with different L1 backgrounds in different contexts such as Arabic, German, Japanese, Persian, Spanish, Turkish, and Vietnamese. In these studies, the researchers tested the effect of different instructional methods including consciousness-raising, corpus-based, deductive and inductive teaching, explicit instruction, feedback, metapragmatic instruction, task-based instruction, video-enhanced input on learning pragmatic aspects of speech acts, implicatures, and politeness. Despite this variety in topic, methods, L1 background, and context, however, all these studies conclude that instruction works in experimental conditions.

Yet, many second language learners or users may still be experiencing difficulties in using language in context employing pragmatic conventions of English as pragmatics is not systematically treated in teaching second/foreign languages (Nguyen & Canh, 2019). This may be because pragmatics is not represented as much as other aspects of language in teaching education programs (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003, p. 37). Consequently, teachers may not feel they are well-equipped to teach pragmatics. Non-native teachers may have further issues without experience in the target language communities. Savvidou and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2019), for example, report that Non-native teachers (NNTs) of English face difficulties in determining which pragmatic feature is suitable for L2 at different ages and language levels. In the same vein, in Cohen's (2016) survey study, native teachers (NTs) were reported to be more comfortable teaching pragmatics and more knowledgeable about sociocultural contexts. Similarly, Economidou-Kogetsidis et al. (2021) compared email production by native teachers and NNTs and how they perceive emails addressed to faculty and identified differences between the two groups.

However, the native and non-native distinction alone may not be sufficient to explain the issue. Szczepaniak-Kozak and Wąsikiewicz-Firlej (2018) compared NTs and NNTs of EFL in Poland in terms of their use of request speech acts as part of the natural class discourse and found that there were differences between them, yet classroom context

provided a constraint on the input relevant to pragmatics and native teachers did not enrich the input. They assert, as a result, that training in pragmatics should be a part of teacher certification programs. Since such differences are identified, their classroom practices pertaining to pragmatics may be influenced. In this regard, Atay (2005) argues “generally, L2 teachers do not teach pragmalinguistic information as they are not consciously aware of it or they lack the relevant knowledge themselves.” Tajeddin and Khodaparast (2020), on the other hand, report that teachers did not consistently teach pragmatics in their classes, although they demonstrated awareness of pragmatics. Further, Vásquez and Fioramonte (2011) report teachers’ difficulties in teaching pragmatics due to curriculum constraints. Examination constraints may also interfere with the teaching of pragmatics. Teachers may end up paying more attention to the grammar and lexicon of ESL/EFL lessons if examinations constrain them in this regard causing an oversight in terms of communicative competence.

Self-reported data from teachers about what they do in class is useful (e.g. Cohen, 2016), yet it is essential to see what EFL teachers actually do in their classes. Thus, this study aims to find out to what extent pragmatic features are taught in an international university where both the students and teachers come from different backgrounds. The majority of the studies in instructional pragmatics involve contexts where teachers and student participants fit into a profile such as sharing a first language (see for example Taguchi, 2015). Since pragmatics would be needed in an international school setting where the teachers and students come from different backgrounds, investigating the actual practices of EFL teachers in such a context may yield different results than in monolingual settings because of a possible authentic need to use pragmatic features.

Methodology

Research design and publication ethics

The current study utilizes a qualitative research method to examine to what extent pragmatics is taught in the School of Foreign Languages of a university in North Cyprus. Before the observations, approval from the ethics committee of the university was obtained. Furthermore, all the participants signed a consent form and willingly accepted the researchers to observe their lessons at the English preparatory program of the university. The learners were also informed about the study.

Context

The university is an international one where the majority of the student body is composed of international students. The university has faculties that offer English-medium programs. Upon enrolling in the university, the students take a proficiency test if they fail to document language proficiency in English. Those students who do not pass the test attend the intensive English program for at least one semester, with the majority attending the program for two semesters.

Participants

The participants were 17 EFL teachers at the university. Thirteen of the participants were female and four were male with an age range of 25 to 46 years. All the participants had B.A or M.A. degree in English Language teaching or related fields of study and certificates to teach English. Five of them were pursuing doctoral degrees at institutions in Cyprus and the UK in English language teaching and education at the time of the study. The teachers were from different countries around the world with different language and educational backgrounds such as Iran, India, Morocco, Turkey, Cyprus, the UK, and Cameroon. They were not formally involved in teaching pragmatics. Since the student and teacher body has an international makeup, there is potential to incorporate the teaching of pragmatics due to this international and intercultural contact.

Data collection and analysis

For the purpose of the study, we observed 28 class sessions. The class sessions observed ranged in length from 30 minutes to 85 minutes. A total of 1375 minutes of teaching was observed. During the observations, we used an observation form, containing activities observed, procedures, timing, materials, interaction, topic, and the focus of the lesson. We prepared a list of pragmatic features to guide us while observing the classes. To analyze the data, we used a coding sheet. The data in the observation form was transferred to a coding sheet to record time allocation, the number of activities in general and the number of activities focusing on pragmatic features, specific pragmatic features, the type of teaching and materials, and the nature of the activity, which allowed to analyze the teaching of pragmatics descriptively. We cross-examined the analysis to establish consistency in coding. Following the coding procedures, we then calculated minutes, percentages, the numbers of materials, activities and the like. Follow-up interviews were also conducted with 6 teachers. Questions directed to the teachers centered on their educational background related to pragmatics, their perception of the importance and benefits of pragmatics, the curriculum, their teaching practices, materials, recourses related to pragmatics.

Procedure

We initially obtained ethics committee approval before conducting the study. Next, we talked to the administration of the School of Foreign Languages of the university to ask for their consent to approach the instructors. After their consent, we asked the instructors for their permission to observe their classes. Those who agreed signed the informed consent form. We, then, scheduled observation sessions and conducted the observations over three weeks. After the observations, we analyzed and coded the forms and running commentary. We then interviewed six teachers and analyzed the data qualitatively to corroborate the findings from the observations.

Findings

The first finding pertains to the amount of time spent on pragmatics in EFL classes in the context. The total length of the class sessions observed was 1375 minutes. The

findings show that of this total time, only 117 minutes involved some teaching of pragmatics, accounting for only 8.5 percent of the teaching time. Considering the importance of pragmatics as essential knowledge in successful interpersonal and intercultural communication, even in an international environment, pragmatics does not seem to be getting sufficient attention. Table 1 depicts this finding.

Table 1. Time allotted to pragmatics

	Time allocation in minutes (%)
Time spent on pragmatics	117 (8.50)
Time spent on other aspects of language	1258 (91.50)
Total	1375

A related finding is with respect to the number of sessions that included aspects of pragmatics in teaching. The analysis revealed that of the 28 sessions observed, only 10 included some teaching of pragmatics, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Number of classes that included pragmatics

	Number (%)
Classes teaching pragmatics	10 (35.7)
Classes not teaching pragmatics	18 (64.3)
Total	28 (100)

Ten sessions out of 28 seems to be high enough as about 36% of sessions included pragmatics. However, when considered together with the total time spent on teaching pragmatic aspects, which accounts for only 8.5% of the sessions, it seems that the sessions that included pragmatics dealt with it in passing rather than having extended tasks and activities.

As pragmatics is an area to teach in its own right, whole class sessions could be allocated to teach it, but it was not the case in this context. There was only one session that made it a major component where a teacher taught a planned lesson on writing polite emails. This is relevant to another finding. Of these 10 sessions, four of them included incidental components. It was in the form of opportunistic explanations of pragmatic features brought up by the course book or through student output leading to teacher explanation, without much intentional planning to teach pragmatic features. Only six sessions seemed to include intentional teaching, four of which also included spontaneous components. These findings are significant in that there seems to be an oversight about pragmatics. Usually, teachers in this context do not plan to teach pragmatics and do not make it an important component of their teaching as evident in the minimum amount of intentional teaching activities and the minimum amount of time spent on pragmatics.

This minimal teaching of it, however, does not mean that pragmatics was not used as part of the class discourse. For classroom management purposes, pragmatic features such as speech acts were frequently used as shown in the following exchanges:

T: Now, I want three students to read the description for me.

(Students read it)

T: Thank you very much. Excellent!

T: Would you mind opening the door or A/C for me, please? I feel a bit stuffy.

(A student opens the door.)

Students also demonstrate some use of pragmatic acts as in the following:

S: Sorry to interrupt you miss.

S: Sorry I am late.

Since pragmatics does not seem to receive enough attention in planning, the materials involved in teaching pragmatics are not varied. Table 3 shows this finding. The teachers observed employed three types of instructional materials a total of nine times. Six of these instances involved the textbook. One teacher used a PDF that included components relevant to pragmatics and two used worksheets.

Table 3. Instructional materials used to teach pragmatics

Materials	Number of times used
Textbook	6
A PDF page on smartboard	1
Worksheets	2
Total	9

This finding shows that the textbooks could be a source for pragmatics teaching. This finding further demonstrates that the teachers do not plan instructional materials to complement the textbooks. Thus, if textbooks include informed treatment of pragmatics, then pragmatics could potentially find a major place in EFL teaching contexts. Yet, the teachers who were interviewed highlight a problem with respect to textbooks as they seem to believe textbooks are focusing on formal features of language such as language structures as evident from the following excerpt the teacher uttered during the interview.

Textbooks are more structure-focused, formal, not real-life oriented. (44, Female)

The same teacher also acknowledges that the book has “some short authentic videos set in the target language,” which may allow teachers to focus on some pragmatic features. Three other teachers who were interviewed also expressed that the textbooks did not include rich information, and authentic tasks to teach pragmatics. One teacher mentioned that the book has topics such as the ones related to responding to suggestions, yet she said “but I do not know if it is there to teach pragmatics” (26, Female). This may indicate that the teachers may not necessarily have sufficient training in pragmatics and its teaching. This teacher, for instance, mentioned that she did not study pragmatics as part of her undergraduate program in English Language Teaching, although she mentioned that she did in her master’s program. These remarks also suggest that teachers may need recourses to help them teach pragmatics and textbooks take the focal point, which emphasizes the need for textbooks rich in pragmatic input and practice.

In the classes we observed, we were also interested in the types of activities the teachers employed when teaching pragmatics. Since pragmatics entails the use of language in context, the types of activities that the teachers have their students do become an essential issue. In these classes, we observed five different ways of treatment of pragmatic content. Of these, one was an explanation of certain aspects of pragmatics in an unplanned manner where the teachers were touching upon the topic. Some of the other activities, however, may have the potential for creating the context for learning such as role-play and discourse completion tasks, especially the oral version. In such activities, students are supposed to perform certain speech acts, which may help develop pragmatic competence. Table 4 outlines these activities.

Table 4. Activities employed to teach pragmatics

Activity	Number of times used
Drilling and practicing	1
Lecturing	3
Role-play	1
Oral and Written DCT	3
Gap filling	3
Total	11

Within the ten sessions that focused on pragmatics, three main aspects of pragmatics, namely speech acts, implicatures and politeness received some attention. Some of these seemed to be intentional teaching whereas others included the teaching of the feature without an indication of pre-planning with teachers' providing instruction from their own experience as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Pragmatic features taught

Target pragmatic feature	Number of times taught	Teaching
Speech acts	6	
Greeting	1	Intentional
Apology	1	Incidental
Request	1	Incidental
Suggestion and advice	1	Intentional/ Incidental
Offer	1	Incidental
Complaint	1	Intentional/ Incidental
Compliments	1	
Implicatures	4	Intentional (2); incidental (2)
Politeness	5	Incidental (4); intentional (1)

The following exchange is an example of dealing with a pragmalinguistic item incidentally.

T: Let's listen. Okay. Let's listen one more time, and then-

S: Yes

T: I didn't ask. I said "let's listen one more time". If I ask I would say "Shall we listen one more time?" or "Would you like to listen one more time?" Okay, but when you say "let's", it means let's do it, yes?

This notion is also evident in the interview data. Teachers may feel the need to emphasize it although the curriculum does not as they believe it is an important part of language proficiency. Teachers expressed:

The curriculum does not significantly emphasize it. As I have experienced living in the target language, I do pay attention when the opportunity arises. (44, Female)

We don't consciously teach it, but as language teachers we unconsciously use them. We use them while giving examples from daily life and the curriculum doesn't introduce it for me. (25, Female)

If there is a relevant point, I mention it, but it's not part of the curriculum. (31, Male)

It is noteworthy that this teacher associates teaching pragmatics with her experience in the target language community, which may have made her more sensitive to the everyday functions of language in contexts of use. The teachers think that pragmatics is important in language teaching because of factors such as speaking skills, politeness, interpretation of meaning, and intercultural competence. The following remarks highlight the point.

One gesture, voice... we need to learn to teach better. For example, some gestures African students make... If I learn about such things, I can put them into teaching practice. (26, Female)

Although the remark focuses more on gestures, she highlights differences in communication patterns, which is relevant for teaching pragmatics. For other teachers, it was a crucial part of teaching a language.

It is a crucial part of teaching a language. It is the real language, verbal-nonverbal, used in the target language. (44, Female)

But as teachers, they should study pragmatics. They know the difference between use and usage and they can easily put the knowledge in practice and without pragmatics, we won't be able to teach properly. (25, Female)

These remarks may suggest that the teachers in this context believe that pragmatics is an essential skill to highlight, which may explain incidental teaching of it although the textbook does not necessarily include it.

Other instances of incidental exposure to pragmatic features are those moments when the materials included them such as dialogues. For instance, the following exchange was heard as part of an audio track of the textbook that the teacher was using.

A: Let's meet for coffee sometime?

B: Great idea.

In this listening activity, the focus was not on the pragmatic feature, but rather on different professions. Students were listening to the audio track and identifying different

professions. Whether this exposure is a teaching that could be attributed to pragmatics is uncertain, yet we included them as such in this study because they were somewhat exposing students to pragmatic features.

In another example, students practice a dialog about “solutions to problems.” The section in the book does not have an explicit focus on pragmatics, but dialogues include speech acts:

A: Can you replace it, please? It's broken.

B: I am sorry to hear that. Don't worry we can just replace it.

A: The keyboard is not working.

B: I am sorry. Let me replace it for you.

Some teaching, on the other hand, seemed pre-planned, or specifically focused on pragmatics. The following is an example of intentional treatment of pragmatic features. The topic in the textbook is culture and the teacher starts the exchange as the following:

T: What comes to your mind when I say “culture”?

Ss: Weddings, national holidays, clothes, food, dancing.

...

T: How to greet people?

(Students give examples and say the words in their language.)

Students, then, learn about formal and informal language for greeting followed by a video that deals with international etiquette. There are specific examples of pragmalinguistic formulas (e.g. Do you mind if I ask you a few questions?) and also aim to make the students become aware of different ways of politeness in different cultures specifically focusing on Japanese customs.

Another example of intentional teaching is when a teacher introduced how to write formal and informal emails. She explicitly went over the components of emails. She used a pdf material that she projected on the smartboard. She further discussed style. It could be said this was a needs-based teaching as in this context, the students frequently write emails to their professors that lack components like subject, greeting, salutation, or signature. Yet, such explicit focus was rare as evident from the findings.

Discussion

The findings of the study indicate that pragmatics was not a strong component of the lessons observed. Rather than focusing on whether pragmatics is teachable, which many studies have documented that it is (see the literature review section above and Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Taguchi, 2015 for reviews on the issue), the study took the approach to see whether it is actually taught. The results were not promising despite the setting being an international one. The lessons observed did not allocate a significant amount of time to pragmatics. The majority of the classes did not touch on pragmatic features at all and when they did, they mostly dealt with them in passing without necessarily including them as part of the instructional plan. The main material was the coursebook bringing up the feature, sometimes incidentally. Only three lessons included supplementary materials that include

pragmatic features. In this study, the majority of the teachers were NNTs and it may have influenced the choice of not making pragmatics an important component of the lessons. Teachers may not have felt comfortable including the issues in class. One teacher, for example, acknowledged that she did not know much about pragmatics when she was asked which aspects of pragmatics EFL/ESL students should learn. Furthermore, the two lessons that included intentional teaching of pragmatics with supplementary materials were bilingual speakers, one growing up in the UK, and another in a country where English is an official language. Taken together, these findings echo Cohen (2016) and Savvidou and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2019) in that NNTs may not be comfortable with choosing or teaching pragmatic features.

In this study, the teaching of pragmatics was mostly opportunistic. It may be an indication that the teachers feel the necessity to teach about some pragmatic conventions. Nguyen and Canh (2019) speculate that the reason why teachers do not focus on pragmatics may be due to their lack of awareness of its importance or their lack of training on it. The findings of this study suggest that it is the latter. The teachers had awareness of its importance, yet lacked the training needed to cover it in their classes. Another possible reason is that the teachers follow coursebooks adopted by the institution and they need to follow a set schedule implemented for the whole groups. Thus, a lack of planned teaching of pragmatics may be an indication that the coursebook does not have a clear focus on it. In a study on teachers' perception of coursebook adaptation for teaching pragmatics, Karatepe and Civelek (2021) found that the teachers did not consider the coursebook activities sufficient to teach pragmatics, but they reported that they did not adapt the activities. In the same study, the teachers reported lack of knowledge regarding pragmatics as the most common reason for this discrepancy. Other reasons reported by Karatepe and Civelek (2021) were heavy workload, test-oriented education system, lack of time, and learners' low proficiency levels. In the context of the current study, coursebooks do not seem to deal with pragmatic features explicitly and that may prevent teachers from developing an awareness of such features. Furthermore, since there are set quizzes and exams at intervals throughout the year, the teachers need to complete two units every week in order not to lag behind other groups because all the groups need to progress at a similar pace, which may also prevent teachers from adapting their materials. The exams may also create a washback effect by emphasizing grammar and vocabulary more so than sociocultural aspects of language as exams mainly focus on accuracy. Yıldırım (2010), for example, documented such effects with respect to the English component of the university entrance examination in Turkey. Students reported that their teachers focused on grammar and reading much more than speaking and writing during their high school English classes and they made use of tasks and activities that might help develop pragmatic awareness very infrequently.

The interview data revealed that the teachers had an opportunistic approach to teaching pragmatics. When there was a moment to emphasize it, the teachers used the occasion for teaching pragmatic features. Yet, there was uncertainty about what constitutes pragmatics or what to teach about it. One interesting finding from the interview data is that one teacher who lived in the target language community associated that she knew how

important it was because she lived in the target language community as she experienced language use in real life. This is, in some way, paradoxical because in an international environment where the common language of communication is English as in the context of the study, one might expect that the rules of use may be at the focal point. The reason for the paradox could be that in such international encounters where the communication does not usually involve native speakers and turns out to be a lingua franca communication, participants may be more tolerant of pragmatic divergences, which is a notion previously voiced about ELF communications (e.g. Seidlhofer, 2004; Elder & Davies, 2006).

Conclusion

The study demonstrates that pragmatics is not emphasized in an EFL context by teachers with different linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds in an international school setting. Although there may be constraints on teachers' choices such as coursebooks, time, and exams, a lack of emphasis on pragmatics in teacher education programs may be a factor. In this setting, pragmatics is usually highlighted briefly as part of linguistic courses in undergraduate ELT programs. It may also be listed as an elective course rather than being an integral part of the teacher education curriculum. Focusing on this need, Atay (2005), for instance, suggests a teacher training course on pragmatics that aims to raise trainee teachers' consciousness about pragmatics conventions and contexts. In her proposal, trainee teachers are initially given conceptual training about communicative competence and pragmatic competence and do a series of tasks including data collection, analysis, comparing native and non-native choices, assessment of samples, and role-playing and providing feedback. She also suggests a similar course of action for in-service teachers. Through such educational practice, teachers may become more sensitive to pragmatics and incorporate it in their teaching.

There is now a good body of research on instructional pragmatics and textbook evaluations. This study is an attempt to see the place of pragmatics in the actual teaching of pragmatics in an EFL setting. Although the findings cannot be generalized because the study was conducted in a specific school setting, given that the teachers come from different backgrounds, findings may have some relevance to different contexts. Further research may investigate the issue with more comprehensive qualitative designs to explore the reasons for teachers' choices. Then, concrete actions could be taken to address the issue.

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The Effect of Student-Centered Teaching Practices on the Development of Speaking Skills in Turkish Teaching: A Meta-Analysis Study

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to determine the effect of student-centered teaching practices on the development of speaking skills. In this direction, 24 experimental studies that met the inclusion criteria were examined in terms of various variables by meta-analysis method. The total sample size of the studies included in the meta-analysis consisted of 1192 students, 600 students in the experimental group, and 592 students in the control group. Comprehensive Meta Analysis v2.0 (CMA) statistical program was used to determine the effect sizes, publication biases, heterogeneity levels, and moderator variable analysis of the studies. YÖK National Thesis Center, Ulakbim Social Sciences Database, Google Scholar and ResearchGate databases were used to collect the data. Because of the analysis, it was seen that the studies included in the meta-analysis were heterogeneous. In the analysis of the data, the Random Effects Model was used depending on the heterogeneity rate, and the effect sizes were calculated with *Hedge's g*. According to the results of the analysis, it was seen that the effect of student-centered teaching practices on the development of speaking skills had a strong effect (*Hedge's g* = 1.375). On the other hand, the moderator variables of the study (level of education, year of publication, type of publication, sample size, duration of the experiment, type of speech, teaching practices) were also examined, and it was determined that the variables, except for the sample size, did not differ statistically significantly.

Acknowledgments

Statement of Publication Ethics

Authors' Contribution Rate

Conflict of Interest

This study was conducted in accordance with scientific publication ethics.

Ethics Committee Decision is not required for this study.

This study is single-authored.

There is no conflict of interests for this study.

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Introduction

Along with the transition to the information society in the world, certain understanding changes have emerged in the field of learning. One of these changes is the constructivist understanding of learning systemized by Bruner. Constructivist understanding of learning aims not to give information directly, but to help learners acquire skills such as metacognitive thinking, analysis, problem solving, and synthesis. Based on students' individual differences, this approach emphasizes the importance of using methods, techniques, and strategies appropriate for each student's learning needs. With constructivist learning, the student was given the responsibility for learning, and the teacher was seen as a guide in the process of accessing information and an active role was given to the student in processing the information (Tosunoğlu & Melanlıoğlu, 2006; Alkan, Deryakulu & Şimşek, 1995).

Student-centered teaching practices based on the constructivist approach were first used in teaching with the 2005 Turkish Curriculum. Before 2005, the curricula included teacher-centered teaching practices based on the traditional approach. These practices were based on a traditional approach, and teacher activities were prioritized in finding knowledge. The students were only the followers of the teaching process and were taught according to the behavioral teaching model. However, with the transition to the constructivist approach, the opportunity for students to construct their own knowledge independently and individually was created, and simultaneously, activities such as sharing their own knowledge with groups on a collaborative basis were encouraged (Danforth & Smith, 2005). The fact that the Turkish course is a skill course and makes it necessary to use the cognitive activities of the students effectively requires the use of student-centered methods and techniques frequently. The development of basic language skills in Turkish lessons is particularly dependent on student-centered practices.

For the specific purposes specified in the Turkish Curriculum, “ensuring that students use their native language consciously, correctly and carefully in accordance with the rules of speaking and writing, and to enable them to express their feelings and thoughts, their opinions, or thesis on a subject in an effective and understandable way, verbally and in writing” (MEB, 2019) seem to be aimed at the development of direct speaking skills. Speaking activities should be created in a way that allows the student to obtain information, analyze it logically, cooperate with other students, express himself effectively, and evaluate the work of himself and his peers. During speaking activities, the teacher should assume the role of an assistant and encourage students to learn by doing, to develop their thinking power and to cooperate with their friends; It should provide an educational environment where students' experiences, levels, and motivations are taken into account, and active participation in learning activities is ensured.

When the literature on the subject is examined, it is seen that student-centered individual and interactive studies have a positive effect on improving speaking skills. In a study by Türkben (2019), it is seen that the interactive teaching strategy affects the development of speaking skills and results in favor of the experimental group in terms of introduction to speech, use of body language, termination of speech, and application of external structure components of the language. It is seen that studies using the cooperative

learning method, which is one of a student-centered interactive activities (Kao, 2003; Liao, 2005; Liang, 2002; Namaziandost et al., 2019), have a positive effect on the development of speaking skills. In a study examining the effect of communicative language teaching techniques on the development of students' speaking skills (Supriyani, 2018), it was concluded that role-playing and filling the knowledge gap techniques had a significant effect on the development of students' speaking skills.

Since speaking skill is a skill that develops based on activity and practice, besides the teacher's guidance, various methods, techniques, and strategies should be used by putting the student at the center to support the development of this skill in the teaching process. Each individual has different cognitive capacities, affective characteristics, and different types of intelligence. Therefore, every student encounters different learning experiences during the teaching process. The most important feature of student-centered practices in this context is that they make the learner active in the teaching process. The role of the teacher is to create an environment in which students can learn by themselves, rather than presenting the information ready-made (Senemoğlu, 1997). In student-centered teaching practices, there is the belief that the student's own thoughts can develop under the guidance of the teacher (Warwick & Stephenson, 2002). At this point, learner autonomy should be supported, and activities that motivate learners should be designed. The evaluation of success in teaching is not only product-oriented; A multiple assessment approach (J.G. Brooks & M. G. Brooks, 1993) should be adopted by looking at the student's performance, development, behavior and actions in the process, communication with his environment and peers.

The methods, techniques and strategies preferred in student-centered teaching practices are arranged according to the learning needs of the students. The student can conduct teaching practices by collaborating interactively with his peers, as well as making an effort to reach information individually. These practices, which are based on constructivist understanding, are based on activities that students take part in the teaching process by constructing their own conceptualizations and perceptions, to understand the world around them. For this reason, teaching should provide students with opportunities that allow exploration, creativity, and active communication (Harakchiyska, 2018). Student-centered activities are created by providing students' cognitive development, paying attention to the affective dimensions of teaching, the developmental and social aspects of learning, and individual differences in learning practices (Daniels & Perry, 2003).

Considering that speaking skill is based on an interaction (Dohen, Schwartz, & Bailly, 2010), learning environments enable students to think, wonder, build their own knowledge and use the knowledge they have created, solve problems, cooperate and be responsible to realize this interaction. It should include student-centered activities that lead to Learning environments should be arranged in a way that allows individuals to interact more with each other and to provide them with rich learning experiences (A. Erdem & M. Erdem, 2015). Interactions in student-centered practices enable students to communicate verbally with each other, to realize their mistakes, to receive feedback, and to obtain information about the use of their own language skills (Hirst & Slavik, 1990). In this

respect, it is important to benefit from student-centered methods, techniques, and strategies based on interaction in the development of speaking skills.

Looking at the literature, it is seen that experimental studies test the development of speaking skills from various aspects using student-centered teaching practices (Sarikaya, 2020; Orhan, Kırbaş, & Topal, 2012; Sevim & Turan, 2017; Kardaş & Şahin, 2016; Yeğin, 2014; Aydoğan, 2019; Özcan, 2013; Yaşar, 2017; Pat, 2017; Kardaş, 2018; İl, 2018; Sallabaş, 2011; Bulut, 2015; Uzunyol, 2019; Demirci, 2019; Yıldız, 2014; Uysal, 2014). However, the absence of a meta-analysis study showing the effect of student-centered teaching practices in Turkey on speaking skills in teaching Turkish as a native language reveals the necessity of this study. In this direction, the aim of this research is to determine the general effect of student-centered strategies, methods, and techniques on the development of students' speaking skills. In the scope of the research; It was tried to determine whether the effect values of the studies included in the meta-analysis differ according to the education level of the participants, the type of publication, the sample size, the years of the studies, the type of speech used, and the strategies, the methods, and techniques used or not. Another important feature of the research is that it is a synthesis of experimental studies examining the effects of student-centered teaching practices on the development of students' speaking skills.

Methodology

This research is a meta-analysis research. Meta-analysis is a statistical procedure used to quantitatively collect the results of a large number of primary studies to conclude or summary of primary studies (Arthur, Bennett, & Huffcutt, 2001). Meta-analysis studies allow researchers to generalize between individual studies. On the other hand, it makes it easier to determine which features of the study arise from the differences between the studies (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). In studies in the meta-analysis type, research findings are reanalyzed, integrated, and interpreted. (Büyüköztürk et al., 2018). In accordance with the meta-analysis method, the research results of the articles and theses on student-centered teaching practices used in teaching Turkish as a native language was reached, the effect sizes of the moderator variables of the research were determined, and the effect of these results on the development of speaking skills was examined. In this study, the meta-analysis steps of Ellis (2010) were followed respectively.

Procedure

1. Determination of Research Purpose and Moderator Variables

The first step followed in meta-analysis studies is to determine the purpose and problem and, accordingly, to specify the moderator variables (Card, 2011). The aim of this research was to examine the effect of student-centered teaching practices on the development of speaking skills. For this purpose, experimental studies in which student-centered strategies, methods, and techniques are used at all education levels were included in the research as an object of study. In studies in which student-centered teaching practices were used as independent variables, teaching level, publication type, sample size, year of study, a type of speech used, teaching practices used and the duration of the

experiment were determined as moderator variables. In line with moderator variables, the research seeks answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent do student-centered teaching practices affect the development of students' speaking skills?
2. Do the effect sizes determined according to the education level of the studies differ significantly?
3. Do the effect sizes determined according to the publication type of the studies differ significantly?
4. Do the effect sizes determined according to the sample size of the studies differ significantly?
5. Do the effect sizes determined according to the year of the studies differ significantly?
6. Do the effect sizes determined according to the type of speech used in the studies differ significantly?
7. Do the effect sizes determined according to the teaching practices used in the studies differ significantly?
8. Do the effect sizes determined according to the experimental period of the studies differ significantly?

2. Data collection

The databases used in the literature review are: YÖK National Thesis Center, Ulakbim Social Sciences Database, Google Scholar, and ResearchGate databases. The literature review was conducted using the words “student-centered teaching practices”, “constructivist approach”, “speaking skills”, “oral expression”, “method”, “technique”, “strategy”, “student-centered teaching”, “Turkish teaching”. A total of 24 studies, which are suitable for the independent variables of the study, were included in the meta-analysis.

3. Determination of Inclusion Criteria

In this study, the following criteria were taken into account in the studies included in the meta-analysis:

1. Studies carried out in the field of teaching Turkish as a native language,
2. The studies were conducted with an experimental and a control group experimental design,
3. The studies were conducted between 2005-2022,
4. Studies are based on student-centered strategy, methods and technique,
5. Including the standard deviation, sample size, and arithmetic mean data required to determine the effect sizes of the studies,
6. The studies are from graduate theses and independent articles (not produced from the thesis),
7. These studies were conducted in Turkey.

4. Coding Process and Coding Reliability

In this study, a coding process was developed for the studies included in the meta-analysis. In meta-analysis studies, the coding process consists of the descriptive data of the study and information showing the experimental findings of the study (Lipsey & Wilson, 2000). In this direction, a coding form developed by the researcher was created. In this coding form, the name of the study, the year, the type of publication, the sample size of the experimental and control group, standard deviation and arithmetic averages, and information on the teaching practices used in the studies are included.

To ensure encoder reliability, one or more people other than the researcher performing the application should encode the data. In meta-analysis studies, the coefficient of agreement is generally used, the correlation coefficient in continuous data, the Cohen Kappa coefficient for the agreement between two encoders, and the Fleiss Kappa coefficient for the agreement between three or more coders (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). In this study, the agreement between the two encoders was calculated using the Cohen Kappa (Cohen's κ) coefficient. Thus, 10 studies randomly selected from among the studies were coded by a second coder. The coefficient of fit was calculated as $\kappa = .90$. In order for the Cohen Kappa coefficient to be considered good in terms of fit, it must be greater than .60 (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). From this view, it can be said that the coder reliability is good.

Table 1. Descriptive Data for Studies Examining the Effect of Student-Centered Teaching Practices on the Development of Speaking Skills

		Frequency	Percentage
Year of research	2005-2010	2	%8.33
	2011-2015	8	%33.33
	2016-2022	14	%58.33
Publication type of research	Master's thesis	14	%58.33
	Doctoral thesis	6	%25.00
	Article	4	%16.66
Education level of the sample group	Primary school	3	%12.50
	Secondary school	18	%75.00
	University	3	%12.50
The type of speech	Prepared	10	%41.66
	Impromptu	14	%58.33
Student-centered teaching practices	<i>Individual Activities</i>		
	Critical Speaking	1	%4.16
	Six Hats Thinking Technique	1	%4.16
	Images	1	%4.16
	Concept Map	2	%8.33
	Rhymes	1	%4.16
	Diction Activities	1	%4.16
	Story Usage	1	%4.16
	5E Learning Model	1	%4.16
	Listening Supported Instruction	1	%4.16
	Direct Instruction	1	%4.16
Active Learning Method	2	%8.33	

<i>Interactive Activities</i>			
	Drama	2	%8.33
	Creative Drama	3	%12.50
	Academic Contradiction	1	%4.16
	Cooperative Learning	1	%4.16
	Interactive Teaching Strategy	1	%4.16
	Micro-Teaching	3	%12.50
Sample size	10 ≤ n ≤ 20	7	% 29.16
	21 ≤ n ≤ 30	10	% 41.66
	31 ≤ n	7	% 29.16
	Total	24	% 100.0

Looking at Table 1, which shows the descriptive data regarding the studies included in the meta-analysis, it is seen that the most experimental studies were conducted between the years 2016-2022 (58.33%). When evaluated in terms of publication type, notably it is noteworthy that most of the studies in the type of master's thesis (58.33%) were included in the meta-analysis, and the highest rate of these studies was carried out at the secondary school level (75.0%). In experimental studies, it was seen that the impromptu speech type (58.33%) was preferred more than the prepared speech type (41.66%), and the sample size was found to be between 21-30 with a rate of 41.66%.

It was determined that critical speaking, six hat thinking techniques, visuals, rhymes, diction activities, use of stories, listening-supported teaching, and direct teaching practices (f=1), which were grouped individually within the student-centered teaching practices, were the least preferred practices at a rate of 4.16%. Concept map and active learning method applications (f=1) were the most preferred applications with 8.33%.

Creative drama and micro-teaching (f=3) grouped as interactive among student-centered teaching practices were the most used practices with a rate of 12.52. While drama (f=2) was the second most used interactive type of activity, cooperative learning, interactive teaching strategy, and academic conflict technique were the least used (f=1) student-centered teaching practices with 4.16%.

Data analysis

1. Calculation of Effect Size

Meta-analysis studies aim to combine the effect size values obtained from independent studies on a subject and to obtain the average of these values (Şen, 2019). The basic unit of meta-analysis studies is effect size calculations. Fixed effects and random effects models are used in these calculations. The model that assumes that the parameter measuring the effect size is the same (homogeneous) in all studies is called the "fixed effects model" while the model that takes different values from one study to the next and allows it to act as a (heterogeneous) random variable is defined as the "random effects model" (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). Effect size variations; It occurs in cases such as the variation in the number of samples and the method used, and the diversity of the subjects (Cooper, 2017). The effect size is obtained by converting the arithmetic mean, standard

deviation, t , f , or r values of the studies into a standard measurement value with certain formulas (Rosenthal, 1991). After performing the heterogeneity test on the effect sizes obtained in the study, it should be decided which model should be selected. According to the test, if the studies show a heterogeneous distribution, the random effects model should be used, and if not, the fixed effects model should be used (Ellis, 2010). In this study, the heterogeneity test was calculated according to the I^2 value. An I^2 value of 25%, 50% and 75% indicates low, medium, and high values, respectively (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). In the research, the effect sizes of the studies were calculated with the Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (CMA) program. Before the calculations were made, values such as sample size, standard deviation, arithmetic mean, t , and p scores of the experimental and control groups were coded into the program. Effect sizes were calculated using Hedges's g coefficient. The confidence level was accepted as 95% in calculations for effect sizes. The effect size was interpreted according to the following criteria (Cohen, 1992):

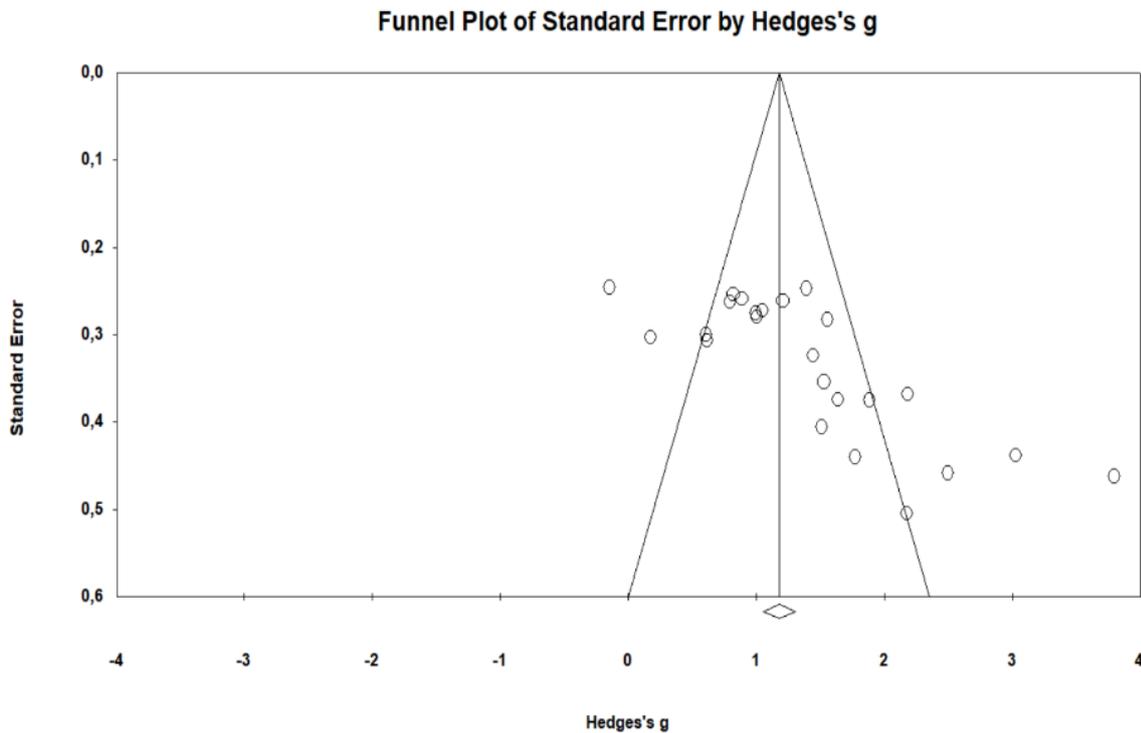
- $.00 \leq \text{Effect size value} \leq .20$ (Weak Effect)
- $.21 \leq \text{Impact magnitude value} \leq .50$ (Small Impact)
- $.51 \leq \text{Effect size value} \leq 1.00$ (Medium Effect)
- $1.00 > \text{Effect size value}$ (Strong Effect)

2. Research Validity and Publication Bias Calculations

One of the most important factors threatening the validity of meta-analysis studies is publication bias. The term “publication bias” is used to express that meaningful results are more likely to be presented and published than non-significant and erroneous results (Petiti, 2000). In order to eliminate publication bias, errors were detected in the data of independent studies, and 5 independent studies were eliminated during the analysis by taking expert opinion in order not to damage the reliability of the study. Card (2011) mentions six methods to use in examining publication bias. These are: analysis of moderator variables, funnel plot, Rosenthal's Fail-safe N test, Orwin's N test, regression analysis, Duval and Tweedie trim and fill methods.

In this study, the funnel plot technique was used to determine publication bias, Rosenthal's Fail-safe N test, Orwin's N test, Begg and Mazumdar Rank Correlation Tests were used to show the effect of publication bias. In Figure 1, Funnel Plot data showing the bias of the research are given.

Figure 1. Funnel Plot Related to Study Bias



Looking at the graph, it is seen that Duval and Tweedie's trimming-filling process is not needed since the effect sizes do not show much asymmetric distribution compared to the random model. Therefore, it is seen that the publication bias is not significant in the funnel plot (Duval & Tweedie, 2000).

The publication bias of the study was evaluated with Rosenthal's Fail-safe N Test. With this method, it is aimed to evaluate the effect of missing studies on the overall estimate of the experimental effect (Rosenthal, 1979). Rosenthal's Fail-safe N Test gives the number of studies required to make the statistically significant population effect size value not statistically significant (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). Table 2 contains information about Rosenthal's Fail- safe N test.

Table 2. Rosenthal's Fail-Safe N Test Data that Shows Publication Bias Situation in Publications which Form the Study Sample of Meta-Analysis

Z-value for reviewed studies	19.87
P-value for reviewed studies	.00
Alpha	.50
Direction	2.00
Z-value for Alpha	1.96

The number of studies reviewed	24
Fail-safe number (FSN)	2443

According to Table 2, the safe N value obtained by Rosenthal's method was determined as 2443. Accordingly, the number of studies required to bring the effect of student-centered teaching practices on the development of speaking skills to a statistically insignificant level is 2443. The small number of this number indicates that the publication bias is very high. According to Rosenthal (1979), $n > 5k + 10$ means that the publication bias of the study is very low. Since the safe N value of 24 studies included in the meta-analysis is greater than $5 \times 24 + 10$, that is, 130, it is concluded that the publication bias is low.

Table 3 shows the values from Orwin's Fail-safe N test. Orwin's Fail-safe N method gives the average number of unpublished studies required to reduce the population effect size value in the meta-analysis to a specified value (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). The Orwin method uses the standardized mean of difference in effect sizes to calculate the number of studies with a mean effect size of zero (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004).

Table 3. Orwin's Fail-Safe N Test

Hedge's g in reviewed studies	1.17
Criteria for a "nonsignificant" Hedge g	.10
Hedge g mean for missing studies	.00
The number of necessary missing studies in order to reduce Hedge g value to below 0,1 (FSN)	260

According to Table 3, the number of studies required for the Hedge $g = 1.17$ effect size value given according to the random effects model to decrease to the insignificant $g = .10$ value was determined as 260. Another effective method in determining the publication bias of the research is the Begg-Mazumdar Rank Correlation test. The Begg-Mazumdar Rank Correlation test is found by calculating Kendall's Tau Value between the standardized values of the effect size and its variances. The obtained value reflects the relationship between the effect size and the sample size. If there is a statistically significant difference at this point ($p < .05$), it can be said that there is publication bias. Finding a statistically insignificant correlation value reveals that there is no publication bias (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). Table 4 presents the Begg-Mazumdar Rank Correlation Test data.

Table 4. Begg- Mazumdar Rank Correlation Test

Kendall's S statistic (P-Q)	146
Kendall's tau coefficient	.525
Z value for tau	3.59
P value (1-tailed)	.016

Looking at Table 4, the Kendall tau value was .525. The z-statistic of this value was found to be 3.59. The one-tailed P value of this value is .016. Therefore, the significance value is not statistically different from zero. This situation reduces the possibility of publication bias (Begg & Mazumdar, 1994).

Results

1. Heterogeneity Testing and Model Determination

In meta-analysis studies, heterogeneity test is important to decide which model to analyze. The researcher should determine the characteristics of the study before deciding on the model (Borenstein et al., 2009). Two models are used in meta-analysis: These are the fixed effects model and random effects models. The heterogeneity test is used when deciding on the model of the study. The heterogeneity test helps see certain interventions or populations in cases where the effect sizes of the studies are very high or low (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). It is necessary to look at values such as forest plot, Q-statistic, and I^2 statistics to check whether there is heterogeneity between studies and to select the required model. In this study, the Q-statistic and I^2 values were looked at to analyze the heterogeneity. For this purpose, heterogeneity analysis according to the Fixed Effects Model is given in Table 5. The most common way to test for heterogeneity and determine whether the heterogeneity is statistically significant is the Q (df) statistic based on the X^2 test.

Table 5. Findings Related to Effect Sizes of Studies According to the Fixed Effects Model

Average Effect Size (g)	Degree of Freedom (df)	Homogeneity Value (Q)	P-value	Standard Error (SE)	I^2	%95 Confidence Interval for Effect Size (ES, %95CI)	
						Lower Limit (Min.)	Upper Limit (Max)
1.180	23	134.720	.00	.064	82.928	1.055	1.304

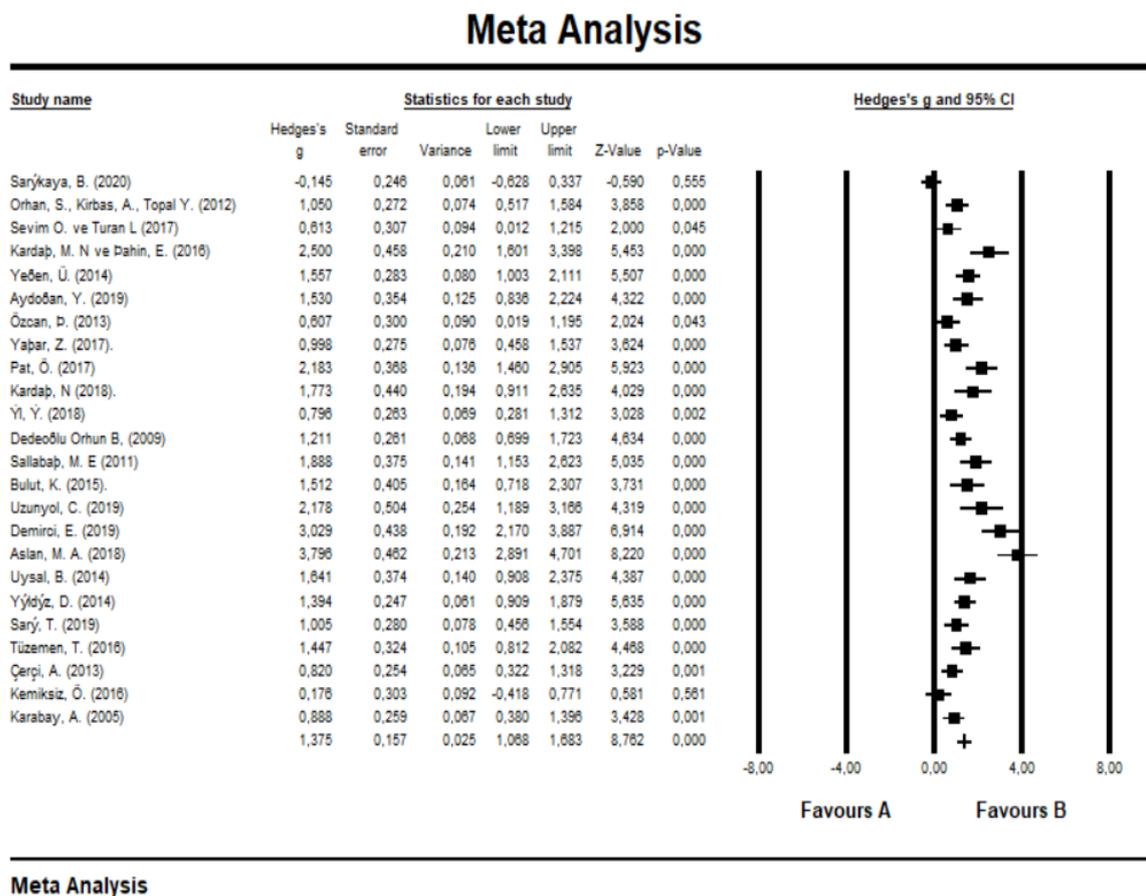
I^2 = The ratio of true heterogeneity to the total change in the observed effect.

The Q value showing the homogeneity value in Table 5 was found to be 134,720. The fact that the P value is significant at the .00 level and the I^2 value is as high as 82.928% indicates that there is a statistically significant level of heterogeneity. Because the I^2 value reveals that the variance between studies in meta-analysis studies is not due to coincidence, but due to heterogeneity. This value varies between 0 and 100, and as the value approaches 100, heterogeneity increases (Şen & Yıldırım, 2020). On the other hand, when the X^2 table was examined depending on the Q value (134,720), it was determined that the critical value of 23 degrees of freedom (df) was 35,173 at the 95% significance level. When the effect sizes are heterogeneous, a statistically significant X^2 value indicates that the studies have different distributions and thus do not share a wide effect (Hedges and

Olkin, 1985). As a result of all these findings, the “Random Effects Model” was preferred in calculating the average effect sizes of the studies (Yıldız, 2002). According to this model, the actual effect size varies from study to study. There are two main reasons for this. The first reason is the real heterogeneity of the effect size, and the second reason is related to the errors in the studies. (Borenstein et al., 2009).

The effect size of the study was determined as 1,375 according to the Random Effects Model. The lowest limit of the effect size was 1.068 and the upper limit was 1.683 in the 95% confidence interval. According to these findings, it is seen that student-centered teaching practices have a strong effect on the development of students' speaking skills (Cohen, 1992). In Figure 2, the distribution of the effect sizes of individual studies is shown on the forest plot.

Figure 2. Forest Plot of Study



According to Figure 2, the study with the highest confidence interval line belongs to Aslan (2018), while the study with the lowest confidence interval belongs to Sarıkaya (2020). Looking at the weights of the studies, it is seen that Aslan (2018) has the smallest weight, while Sarıkaya (2020) has the largest weight. When all studies are considered, it is seen that the smallest effect size is -.145 and the largest effect size is 3.796.

2. Findings on the Effect of Student-Centered Teaching Practices on the Development of Students' Speaking Skills

The effect of student-centered teaching practices on the development of students' speaking skills is shown in Table 6 according to the random effects model.

Table 6. Findings on Effect Sizes of Independent Studies by Random Effects Model

Average Effect Size (<i>g</i>)	<i>N</i>	Standard Error (<i>SE</i>)	Variance (<i>v</i>)	<i>Z</i>	<i>p</i>	%95 Confidence Interval for Effect Size (ES, %95 CI)	
						Lower Limit (Min)	Upper Limit (Max)
						1.375	24

* $p < .05$

According to Table 6, the overall effect value (Hedge's *g*) of student-centered teaching practices on the development of speaking skills is 1.375. While the standard error value is .157, the P value is statistically significant with .00. The lowest limit of the 95% Confidence Interval for the Effect Size was 1.068, and the upper limit was 1.683. Accordingly, it is concluded that student-centered teaching practices are highly effective in improving students' speaking skills. The positive effect size values indicate that the performances in these dimensions are in favor of the experimental group in terms of effect size (Wolf, 1986).

3. Findings Related to the Variable of Education Level in Which the Studies were Made

The teaching level moderator was examined in 3 groups. In Table 7, the findings regarding the moderator variable of education level are given.

Table 7. Findings Related to the Instructional Level Variable by Random Effects Model

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Confidence Interval (%95CI)		Degree of Freedom (<i>df</i>)	Heterogeneity Test	
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit		<i>Q</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Primary school	1.419	.787	2.052	2	.840	.657
Secondary school	1.451	1.090	1.813			
University	.900	-.223	2.024			

In Table 7, it is seen that the highest effect size is at the secondary school level with 1.451. Primary school has an effect size of 1.419, while the university has the smallest effect with .900. The education level where the experimental studies are done the most is the secondary school ($n=31$). Primary school and university are equal with 3 experimental studies. The fact that the *Q* value belonging to the education level is .840 and the critical value determined with 2 degrees of freedom in the X^2 table at the 95% confidence interval

is below the critical value of 5.991 and the p value is greater than .05, which shows that the effect sizes do not differ significantly according to the education level variable.

4. Findings Regarding the Variable of Publication Type of Studies

The findings regarding whether there is a significant difference between the effect sizes according to the type of publication in which the studies were conducted are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Findings Related to Publication Type Variable by Random Effects Model

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Confidence Interval (%95CI)		Degree of Freedom (<i>df</i>)	Heterogeneity Test	
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit		<i>Q</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Random Effects Model						
Article	.950	.017	1.882			
Doctoral Thesis	1.207	.708	.705			
Master's Thesis	1.574	1.179	1.968		2.206	.332
Heterogeneity between groups				2		

The majority of the studies on the type of publication consist of the master's thesis (n=14). Then, there are doctoral thesis (n=6) and article (n=4) types, respectively. The highest effect size value is in the type of master's thesis with 1.574. The effect size of doctoral theses is 1.207, and articles are .950. In general terms, all three publication types have large effect sizes. However, the fact that the *Q* value determined as 2.206 is below the critical value of 5.991 determined with 2 degrees of freedom in the 95% confidence interval and $p > .05$ shows that the difference is not at a statistically significant level.

5. Findings Regarding the Sample Size Variable of Studies

The findings regarding whether there is a significant difference between the effect sizes of the studies according to the sample size are shown in Table 9. The sample size of the studies was grouped as 10-20, 21-30, and 31+. Studies with a sample size of 21-30 (n=10) are the experimental studies with the highest amount. Experimental studies with sample sizes of 10-20 and over 31+ are n= 7 each.

Table 9. Findings Related to Sample Size Variable by Random Effects Model

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Confidence Interval (%95CI)		Degree of Freedom (<i>df</i>)	Heterogeneity Test	
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit		<i>Q</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Random Effects Model						
10-20	1.806	1.504	2.108			
21-30	1.439	.856	2.022			
31+	.926	.504	1.348		11.107	.004
Heterogeneity between groups				2		

According to Table 9, the sample group with the highest effect size (1,806) is 10-20 people. The sample size of 21-30 has the second smallest effect size of 1.439, while the sample size of 31+ has the smallest effect size of .926. It is seen that the Q value of 11.107 is below the critical value of 5.991 determined with 2 degrees of freedom in the 95% confidence interval. The fact that the P value (.004) is less than .05 reveals that the difference is statistically significant.

6. Findings Related to the Variable of Year of Studies

The findings regarding the effect sizes according to the year of the studies for which answers were sought in the research are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Findings Related to the Variable of Studies Year by Random Effects Model

Model	%95 Confidence Interval (%95CI)		Degree of Freedom (df)	Heterogeneity Test	
	Hedge g	Lower Limit		Upper Limit	Q value
Random Effects Model					
2005-2010	1.048	.688	1.409		
2011-2015	1.266	.968	1.564		
2016-2022	1.512	.976	2.048	2.093	.351
Heterogeneity between groups			2		

Among the included experimental studies, the studies with the highest amount (n=14) were conducted between 2016 and 2020. Between 2011 and 2015, n=8 studies were conducted, and between 2005 and 2010, at least n=2 studies were conducted. The effect sizes of the three groups in which the studies were conducted were above 1 and were close to each other. The highest effect size is the studies between the years of 1.512 and 2016-2022. The second highest effect size belongs to studies between 2011 and 2015, with 1,266. The lowest effect size was found in studies conducted between 2005 and 2010, with 1,048. The Q value of the moderator variable is below the critical value of 5.991 with 2 degrees of freedom in the confidence interval of 2.093 to 95%. In addition, the fact that the P value (.351) is greater than .05 shows that the difference between the effect size values is not statistically significant.

7. Findings Regarding the Speech Type Variable

In this research, the variable of speech type was grouped into two categories as prepared and unprepared. Most studies were done in n=14 impromptu speech types. The prepared speech type is found in n=10 experimental studies.

Table 11. Findings Related to Speech Type Variable by Random Effects Model

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Confidence Interval (%95CI)		Degree of Freedom (<i>df</i>)	Heterogeneity Test	
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit		<i>Q</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Random Effects Model						
Prepared Speech	1.139	.653	1.626		1.601	.206
Impromptu Speech	1.537	1.159	1.916			
Heterogeneity between groups				1		

In Table 11, it is seen that the effect sizes of the two speech types are above 1 and are close to each other. While the effect size of the impromptu speech type is 1.537, the effect size of the prepared speech type is 1.139. The *Q* value is below the critical value of 3.841, which is determined with 1 degree of freedom in the confidence interval of 1.601 to 95%. The fact that the *P* value (.351) is greater than .05 indicates that the difference between the effect size values is not statistically significant.

8. Findings Related to Student-Centered Teaching Practices Variable

The findings regarding the effect sizes among the student-centered teaching practices used in the studies are shown in Table 12. Since student-centered teaching practices consist of different methods and techniques, they were analyzed in two groups as "individual" and "interactive". Individual-type teaching practices are *n*=13, and interactive-type teaching practices are *n*=11.

Table 12. Findings Related to the Variable of Teaching Practices by Random Effects Model

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Confidence Interval (%95CI)		Degree of Freedoms (<i>df</i>)	Heterogeneity Test	
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit		<i>Q</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Random Effects Model						
Individual Activities	1.307	.838	1.776		.234	.629
Interactive Activities	1.453	1.093	1.813			
Heterogeneity between groups				1		

According to Table 12, the highest level of impact (1,453) is student-centered teaching practice of the interactive type. Individual types of student-centered teaching practices have an effect size of 1,307. The *Q* value is below the critical value of 3.841, which is determined with 1 degree of freedom in the .234 to 95% confidence interval. Additionally, the fact that the *P* value (.629) is greater than .05 indicates that the difference between the effect size values is not statistically significant. According to this model, the effect size of interactive applications, which is one of the student-centered teaching applications, is higher than individual applications.

9. Findings regarding the duration of the experiment

The experimental periods of the studies were examined in two groups, at 11-14 and 5-10 weeks intervals. There are $n=10$ studies between 11-14 weeks and $n=14$ studies between 5-10 weeks.

Table 13. Findings Related to the Experimental Time Variable by Random Effects Model

Model	Hedge g	%95 Confidence Internal (%95CI)		Degree of Freedom (df)	Heterogeneity Test	
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit		Q value	p value
Random Effects Model						
11-14	1.277	.778	1.776		.269	.604
5-10	1.447	1.043	1.852			
Heterogeneity between groups				1		

In Table 13, it is seen that the effect sizes between the experimental periods are close to each other and have a value above 1. The highest effect value is in studies between 1,447 and 5-10 weeks. The Q value is below the critical value of 3.841, which is determined with 1 degree of freedom in the .269 to 95% confidence interval. Additionally, the fact that the P value (.629) is greater than .05 indicates that the difference between the effect size values is not statistically significant.

Discussion and Conclusion

As a result of this research, which was carried out to examine the effect of student-centered teaching practices on the development of speaking skills, it was seen that student-centered teaching practices had a strong effect on the development of students' speaking skills (Hedge's $g= 1.375$). This value has a high effect level according to Cohen's (1992) classification. Of the 24 studies included in the meta-analysis, only 1 had a negative effect size. The highest effect size among the studies was Aslan's (2018) study with Hedge's $g= 3.796$. The smallest effect size is Sarıkaya's (2020) study with Hedge's $g= -.145$. The fact that the P value of the studies included in the meta-analysis according to the random effects model is .00 indicates that student-centered teaching practices have a statistically significant effect on the development of students' speaking skills (Cohen, 1992). Most of the studies in the type of meta-analysis show that peer/student-centered teaching has a wider and positive effect level than teacher-centered teaching, supporting the result of this study (Rohrbeck, Fantuzzo, Ginsberg-Block, Miller, 2003; Johnson, Maruyoma, Johnson, Nelson, 1981; Roseth, Johnson, Johnson, 2008). On the other hand, when the moderator is examined as a variable, it is seen that peer-centered education also positively affects the development of language skills such as writing, listening, and speaking (Keck et al., 2006; Mackey, Goo, 2007).

In this study, it is a finding that student-centered teaching practices have a strong effect on improving students' speaking skills (Hedge's $g= 1.375$). The positive and

significant changes in the speaking skills of the students in the experimental group who used interactive teaching strategies in the study by Türkben (2019) to determine the effect on the speaking skills of students learning Turkish as a second language support this finding. Similar to the results of this study, according to a meta-analysis study by Biçer (2017) in which the effect of student-centered teaching practices on academic success in teaching Turkish was examined, it was concluded that student-centered cooperative learning has a stronger effect than the traditional teaching approach.

According to the education level variable of the studies, it is seen that the highest effect size is at the secondary school level with Hedge's $g= 1.451$. The P value being greater than .05 revealed that the effect sizes did not differ significantly according to the education level variable. Considering the findings of the study conducted by Cole (2018), in which the effect of peer education on verbal expression skills was examined, it was seen that the highest effect size (Hedge's $g= .628$) was at the primary school level, unlike this study, according to the education level variable. Alsowat (2020), who examined the effect of student-centered language teaching practices on language learning outcomes, found that language learning practices had a moderate effect on language outcomes ($d=.90$), and similarly, technology-based language teaching had a moderate impact on general and produced vocabulary. It has been determined that it has an effect ($d=.98$) and the highest effect size is at the university level ($d=.85$) at the education level. The fact that student-centered teaching practices have a moderate effect on language outcomes does not coincide with the findings of this study. On the other hand, the fact that the highest effect size at the education level is at the university level is a differences in this study.

Looking at the publication type variable, the type of study with the highest effect size (Hedge's $g= 1.574$) was the master's theses. On the other hand, $p>.05$ indicates that the difference is not statistically significant.

According to the sample size variable of the study, the highest effect size (Hedge's $g= 1.806$) belongs to groups of 10-20 people. The P value (.04) being less than .05 reveals that the difference is statistically significant.

According to the variable of the year in which the studies were conducted, it was seen that the years 2016-2022 had the highest effect size (Hedge's $g= 1.512$). Additionally, the fact that the P value (.351) is greater than .05 shows that the difference between the effect size values is not statistically significant. The increase in experimental studies examining the development of speaking skills after 2016 explains the fact that the effect size of the study between these years is higher than other years (Arung, 2016). Additionally, the fact that student-centered teaching practices have been used more and more under the guidance of teachers with the constructivist approach since 2016 explains the increase in the effect size compared to other years.

The highest effect size (Hedge's $g= 1.537$) in the speech type variable of the study belongs to the studies conducted in the impromptu speech type. The fact that the P value (.351) is greater than .05 indicates that the difference between the effect size values is not statistically significant. Considering that the impromptu speaking type causes less evaluation anxiety in students compared to prepared speech (Kemiksiz, 2016), it can be expected that the effect size will be high.

According to the teaching type variable used in the studies, the highest effect size (Hedge's $g= 1.453$) was observed to be interactive type student-centered practices. The fact that the P value (.629) is greater than .05 indicates that the difference between the effect size values is not statistically significant. In the literature, it is seen that this finding of the research is supported by different experimental studies (Kılıçarslan, 2014; Yıldız, 2014, Espino 1999). In a study by Kılıçarslan (2014), it was concluded that drama, which is one of the interactive teaching strategies, positively affects students' verbal expression skills. Drama is included in the group of interactive teaching strategies in this research. The positive effect size of the 5 studies in which drama was used shows that the teaching type findings of the studies are similar to each other. In another study examining the effect of interactive teaching strategy on speaking skills (Yıldız, 2014), it was concluded that the activities that students actively participate in interactively affect their speaking skills positively. Similarly, in a meta-analysis study conducted by Cole (2018), it was concluded that peer education greatly and positively affected the development of verbal expression skills of English learners with Hedge's g effect size of .578 ($p < .001$). Also, more than half of the included studies had confidence intervals that crossed the zero threshold, meaning that individually they were statistically indistinguishable from a zero effect size. According to the publication bias result of the study, the effect size of the published studies is smaller with Hedge's $g= .377$ compared to the unpublished studies (Hedge's $g= 1.159$). In the study, the effect size of three groups in the type of peer education, cooperative education, and guidance education, which are used as moderator variables, were examined. Peer education-type experimental studies with the highest effect size Hedge's $g= .836$. In the meta-analysis type study conducted by Batdı and Batdı (2015), it was found that the effect of creative drama, which is one of the student-centered teaching practices, on academic achievement is at a high level (Hedge's $g= 1.68$).

In another study by Cole (2014), the effect of student-centered instruction on students' literacy and language skills was examined. With Hedge's $g= .486$ ($p < .001$), it was concluded that the effect of student-centered education on literacy and language skills was small. The teaching methods used in the studies were divided into three groups in the types of peer education, cooperative teaching and guide teaching. In this study, the fact that the highest effect size (Hedge's $g= 1.453$) was student-centered teaching practices of the interactive type, indicating that the effects of the two studies on language skills in terms of student-centered teaching practices were similar.

Pattanpichet (2011), in his study examining the effect of student-centered collaborative teaching practices on the development of students' oral expression skills, found that Hedge's $g= 2.36, 1.20, 2.76$ values were found to have wide and positive effects in three oral tests, respectively. The fact that the teaching type variable, which is one of the findings of this study, has the highest effect size in terms of the development of speaking skills in interactive student-centered teaching practices reveals that both studies have a positive effect on speaking skills in terms of this variable.

The studies with the highest effect size (Hedge's $g= 1.447$) according to the experimental duration variable of the studies were those conducted between 5-10 weeks.

The fact that the P value (.629) was greater than .05 revealed that the difference between the effect size values was not statistically significant.

As a result, it has been determined that student-centered teaching practices have a positive and high-level effect on the development of students' speaking skills. However, the heterogeneity of the study made the level of statistical significance of the moderator variables important.

The fact that the research is the first meta-analysis study on this subject in Turkey, examining student-centered teaching practices over different variables, and showing in which situations the effect sizes of the variables on speaking skills differ, reveals the importance of this study. As a requirement of the constructivist approach, making the student active in education enables the student to interpret and analyze the information, to think about the information with a questioning approach, and to construct new information using their prior knowledge. In future studies, the relationships between effect sizes can be examined based on the sub-dimensions of other basic language skills (reading, writing, listening) of student-centered teaching practices. Among the student-centered teaching practices, applications with large effect sizes can be determined and used in the development of language skills.

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Dil Eğitimi ve Araştırmaları Dergisi

Araştırma Makalesi

Türkçe Öğretiminde Öğrenci Merkezli Öğretim Uygulamalarının Konuşma Becerisinin Gelişimine Etkisi: Bir Meta Analiz Çalışması

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ÖZ

Bu araştırmanın amacı, öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının konuşma becerisinin gelişimine etkisini belirlemektir. Bu doğrultuda dâhil edilme ölçütlerini karşılayan 24 deneysel nitelikte çalışma meta analiz yöntemiyle çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmiştir. Meta analize dâhil edilen çalışmaların toplam örneklem büyüklüğünü deney grubunda 600 öğrenci, kontrol grubunda ise 592 öğrenci olmak üzere toplam 1192 öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Çalışmaların etki büyüklükleri, yayın yanlılıkları, heterojenlik düzeyleri ve moderatör değişken analizlerini belirlemek için *Comprehensive Meta Analysis v2.0 (CMA)* istatistik programı kullanılmıştır. Verilerin toplanmasında YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi, Ulakbim Sosyal Bilimler Veri Tabanı, Google Akademik ve ResearchGate veri tabanları kullanılmıştır. Yapılan analizler sonucunda meta analize dâhil edilen çalışmaların heterojen yapıda olduğu görülmüştür. Verilerin analizinde heterojenlik oranına bağlı olarak Rastgele Etkiler Modeli kullanılmış etki büyüklükleri ise *Hedge's g* ile hesaplanmıştır. Analiz sonucuna göre öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının konuşma becerisinin gelişimine etkisinin güçlü bir etki düzeyine sahip olduğu (*Hedge's g*=1.375) görülmüştür. Öte yandan çalışmanın moderatör değişkenleri (öğretim düzeyi, yayın yılı, yayın türü, örneklem büyüklüğü, deney süresi, konuşma türü, öğretim uygulamaları) de incelenmiş, örneklem büyüklüğü dışındaki değişkenlerin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmadığı belirlenmiştir.

Bilgilendirme

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Giriş

Dünyada bilgi toplumuna geçiş süreciyle birlikte öğrenme alanında da belirli anlayış değişiklikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu değişikliklerden biri Bruner tarafından dizgeleştirilen yapılandırmacı öğrenme anlayışıdır. Yapılandırmacı öğrenme anlayışı, bilgiyi doğrudan vermeyi değil, öğrenenlerin üstbilişsel düşünme, analiz etme, sorun çözme, sentezleme gibi becerileri kazanmasını amaçlar. Öğrencilerin bireysel farklılıklarını temel alan bu yaklaşım, her öğrencinin öğrenme gereksinimine uygun yöntem, teknik ve stratejileri kullanmanın önemini vurgular. Yapılandırmacı öğrenmeyle birlikte öğrenciye öğrenme sorumluluğu verilerek, bilgiye ulaşma sürecinde öğretmen kılavuz olarak görülmüş ve bilgiyi işlemede öğrenciye etkin bir rol verilmiştir (Tosunoğlu ve Melanlıoğlu, 2006; Alkan, Deryakulu ve Şimşek, 1995).

Yapılandırmacı yaklaşımı temel alan öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları, ilk kez 2005 Türkçe Öğretim Programıyla öğretimde kullanılmaya başlanmıştır. 2005'ten önce öğretim programları, geleneksel yaklaşımı temel alan öğretmen merkezli öğretim uygulamalarını içermektedir. Bu uygulamalar geleneksel yaklaşıma dayalıydı ve bilgiyi bulmada öğretmen etkinlikleri ön plana alırdı. Öğrenciler, öğretim sürecinin yalnızca izleyenleri konumunda olup davranışçı öğretim modeline göre öğretim görmekteydiler. Ancak yapılandırmacı yaklaşıma geçişle birlikte öğrencinin kendi bilgisini bağımsız olarak bireysel bir biçimde yapılandırma olanağı yaratılmış, aynı zamanda kendi öznel bilgisini iş birliğine dayalı bir biçimde gruplarla paylaşma gibi aktiviteler teşvik edilmiştir (Danforth ve Smith, 2005). Türkçe dersinin bir beceri dersi olması ve öğrencinin bilişsel faaliyetlerini etkili bir şekilde kullanmayı gerekli kılması öğrenci merkezli yöntem ve teknikleri sıklıkla kullanmayı gerektirmektedir. Türkçe derslerindeki temel dil becerilerinin gelişimi özellikle öğrenci merkezli uygulamalara bağlıdır.

Türkçe Öğretim Programı'nda belirtilen özel amaçlarda öğrencilerin “ana dilini, konuşma ve yazma kurallarına uygun olarak bilinçli, doğru ve dikkatli kullanmalarının sağlanması, duygu ve düşüncelerini, bir konudaki görüşlerini veya tezini sözlü ve yazılı olarak etkili ve anlaşılır biçimde ifade etmelerinin sağlanması” (MEB, 2019) gibi ifadelerin doğrudan konuşma becerisinin gelişimine yönelik olduğu görülmektedir. Konuşma etkinlikleri, öğrencinin bilgiyi elde etmesine, onu mantıklı bir şekilde analiz etmesine, diğer öğrencilerle işbirliği yapmasına, kendini etkili bir biçimde ifade etmesine, kendisinin ve akranlarının çalışmalarını değerlendirmesine olanak verecek bir şekilde oluşturulmalıdır. Konuşma etkinlikleri sırasında, öğretmen yardımcılık rolünü üstlenerek öğrencileri yaparak yaşayarak öğrenmeye, düşünme gücünü geliştirmeye ve arkadaşlarıyla iş birliği yapmaya özendirilmeli; öğrencilerin deneyimleri, düzeyleri ve güdülerinin dikkate alındığı, öğrenme etkinliklerine etkin katılımın sağlandığı bir eğitim öğretim ortamı sağlanmalıdır.

Konuyla ilgili alanyazına bakıldığında öğrenci merkezli bireysel ve etkileşimsel türde yapılan çalışmaların, konuşma becerisini geliştirmeye yönelik olumlu etkisi olduğu görülmektedir. Türkben (2019) tarafından yapılan bir araştırmada etkileşimsel öğretim stratejisinin konuşma becerisinin gelişimini etkilediği ve konuşmaya giriş, beden dilinin kullanımı, konuşmanın sonlandırılması ve dilin dış yapı bileşenlerinin uygulanması gibi yönlerden deney grubunun lehine sonuçlandığı görülmektedir. Öğrenci merkezli

etkileşimsel uygulamalardan biri olan işbirlikli öğrenme yönteminin kullanıldığı çalışmaların (Kao, 2003; Liao, 2005; Liang, 2002; Namaziandost vd., 2019) konuşma becerisinin gelişimine olumlu yönde etki ettiği görülmektedir. İletişimsel dil öğretim tekniklerinin öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin gelişimine etkisinin incelendiği bir araştırmada (Supriyani, 2018) rol yapma ve bilgi boşluğunu doldurma tekniklerinin öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerinin gelişiminde önemli düzeyde bir etkisi olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır.

Konuşma becerisi, etkinlik ve uygulamaya dayalı olarak gelişen bir beceri olduğundan öğretmenin kılavuzluğunun yanı sıra öğretim sürecinde bu becerinin gelişimini desteklemek için öğrenciyi merkeze alarak çeşitli yöntem, teknik ve stratejilerin kullanılması gerekir. Her birey, birbirinden farklı bilişsel kapasiteye, duyuşsal özelliklere, farklı zekâ türlerine sahiptir. Dolayısıyla her öğrenci, öğretim sürecinde farklı öğrenme tecrübeleri yaşar. Öğrenci merkezli uygulamaların bu bağlamda en önemli özelliği öğretim sürecinde öğreneni etkin kılmasıdır. Öğretmenin rolü, öğrenciye bilgiyi hazır olarak sunmak yerine öğrencilerin kendi kendine öğreneceği ortamı yaratmaktır (Senemoğlu, 1997). Öğrenci merkezli yapılan öğretim uygulamalarında öğrencinin kendi düşüncelerinin öğretmenin rehberliğinde gelişebileceği inancı yatmaktadır (Warwick ve Stephenson, 2002). Bu noktada öğrenen özerkliği desteklenmeli ve öğreneni güdüleyici etkinlikler tasarlanmalıdır. Öğretimde başarının değerlendirilmesi sadece ürün odaklı değil; öğrencinin performansı, gelişimi, süreç içindeki davranış ve eylemleri, çevresi ve akranlarıyla olan iletişimine bakılarak çoklu bir değerlendirme yaklaşımı (J.G. Brooks ve M. G. Brooks, 1993) benimsenmelidir.

Öğrenciyi merkeze alan öğretim uygulamalarında tercih edilen yöntem, teknik ve stratejiler öğrencilerin öğrenme ihtiyaçlarına göre düzenlenir. Öğrenci, bireysel olarak bilgiye ulaşmada çaba sarf edeceği gibi akranlarıyla etkileşimli bir şekilde işbirliği yaparak da öğretim uygulamalarını yürütebilir. Yapılandırmacı anlayışa dayanan bu uygulamalar, öğrencilerin yakın çevrelerindeki dünyayı anlamak için çeşitli eylemlerde bulunduğu böylece kendi kavramsallaştırmalarını ve algılayışlarını inşa ederek öğretim sürecinde yer aldığı etkinliklere dayanır. Bu nedenle öğretimin öğrencilere keşif, yaratıcılık ve aktif iletişime olanak sağlayan fırsatları sağlaması gerekir (Harakchiyska, 2018). Öğrenci merkezli etkinlikler, öğrencilerin bilişsel gelişimini sağlayarak öğretimin duyuşsal boyutlarına, öğrenmenin gelişimsel ve sosyal yönlerine, öğrenme uygulamalarındaki bireysel farklılıklara dikkat ederek oluşturulur (Daniels ve Perry, 2003).

Konuşma becerisinin bir etkileşime dayalı olduğu (Dohen, Schwartz ve Bailly, 2010) düşünüldüğünde bu etkileşimi gerçekleştirmek için öğrenme ortamlarının öğrenciyi öğretim sürecinde aktif kılan, düşünmeye, merak etmeye, kendi bilgisini inşa etmeye ve oluşturduğu bilgiyi kullanmaya, sorun çözmeye, işbirliği yapmaya ve sorumluluk sahibi olmaya yönelten öğrenci merkezli etkinlikleri içermesi gerekmektedir. Öğrenme ortamları, bireylerin birbirleriyle daha fazla etkileşimde bulunmalarına ve onlara zengin öğrenme yaşantıları kazandırmaya olanak tanıyacak biçimde düzenlenmelidir (A. Erdem ve M. Erdem, 2015). Öğrenci merkezli uygulamalarda etkileşimler, öğrencilerin birbirleriyle sözel iletişimde bulunmalarını, yanlışlarının farkına varmalarını, geribildirim almalarını, kendi dil becerilerinin kullanımıyla ilgili bilgi almalarını sağlar (Hirst ve Slavik, 1990). Bu

yönüyle konuşma becerisinin gelişiminde etkileşime dayalı öğrenci merkezli yöntem, teknik ve stratejilerden yararlanmak önemlidir.

Alanyazına bakıldığında konuşma becerisinin gelişimini öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları kullanılarak çeşitli açılardan sınavan deneysel çalışmaların olduğu görülmektedir (Sarıkaya, 2020; Orhan, Kırbaş ve Topal, 2012; Sevim ve Turan, 2017; Kardaş ve Şahin, 2016; Yeğen, 2014; Aydoğan, 2019; Özcan, 2013; Yaşar, 2017; Pat, 2017; Kardaş, 2018; İl, 2018; Sallabaş, 2011; Bulut, 2015; Uzunyol, 2019; Demirci, 2019; Yıldız, 2014; Uysal, 2014). Ancak Türkiye’de yapılan öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının ana dili olarak Türkçe öğretiminde konuşma becerisine etkisini gösteren bir meta analiz çalışmasının bulunmaması bu çalışmanın gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu doğrultuda araştırmanın amacı öğrenci merkezli strateji, yöntem ve tekniklerin öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin gelişimi üzerindeki genel etkisini belirlemektir. Araştırma kapsamında; meta analize dahil edilen çalışmaların etki değerlerinin katılımcıların öğretim düzeyi, yayın türü, örneklem büyüklüğü, çalışmaların yapıldığı yıllar, kullanılan konuşma türü, kullanılan strateji, yöntem ve tekniklerin moderatör değişkenlere göre farklılık gösterip göstermediği belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Araştırmanın diğer önemli niteliği, öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin gelişimine etkisini inceleyen deneysel araştırmaların bir sentezi olma özelliği taşımasıdır.

Yöntem

Bu araştırma bir meta analiz çalışmasıdır. Meta analiz, birincil çalışmaların sonucuna veya özetine ulaşmak için çok sayıda birincil çalışmanın sonuçlarını nicel şekilde toplamak amacıyla kullanılan istatistiksel işlemlerdir (Arthur, Bennett ve Huffcutt, 2001). Meta analiz çalışmaları, araştırmacılara bireysel çalışmalar arasında genelleme yapma olanağı yaratır. Öte yandan çalışmalar arasındaki farklılıkların çalışmanın hangi özelliklerinden kaynaklandığını tespit etmede kolaylık sağlar (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Meta analiz türündeki çalışmalarda araştırma bulgularının yeniden analiz edilerek bütünleştirilmesi ve yorumlanması söz konusudur. (Büyüköztürk vd., 2018). Araştırmada meta analiz yönteminin doğasına uygun olarak anadili olarak Türkçe öğretiminde kullanılan öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarını konu edinen makale ve tezlerin araştırma sonuçlarına ulaşılmış, araştırmanın moderatör değişkenlerinin etki büyüklükleri belirlenmiş ve bu sonuçların konuşma becerisinin gelişimi üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir. Bu araştırmada sırasıyla Ellis’in (2010) meta analiz adımları izlenmiştir:

1. Araştırma Amacının ve Moderatör Değişkenlerin Belirlenmesi

Meta analiz çalışmalarında izlenen ilk adım amacın ve problemin belirlenmesi ve buna bağlı olarak moderatör değişkenlerin belirtilmesidir (Card, 2011). Bu araştırmanın amacı öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının konuşma becerisinin gelişimine etkisini incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda tüm öğretim düzeylerinde öğrenci merkezli strateji, yöntem ve tekniklerin kullanıldığı deneysel çalışmaların incelenmesi olarak araştırmaya dahil edilmiştir. Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının bağımsız değişken olarak kullanıldığı çalışmalarda öğretim düzeyi, yayın türü, örneklem büyüklüğü, çalışmanın yılı, kullanılan konuşma türü, kullanılan öğretim uygulamaları ve deney süresi moderatör

değişken olarak belirlenmiştir. Moderatör değişkenler doğrultusunda araştırmada aşağıdaki sorulara cevap aranmaktadır:

1. Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin gelişimini ne düzeyde etkilemektedir?
2. Çalışmaların yapıldığı öğretim düzeyine göre belirlenen etki büyüklükleri anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmakta mıdır?
3. Çalışmaların yapıldığı yayın türüne göre belirlenen etki büyüklükleri anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmakta mıdır?
4. Çalışmaların örneklem büyüklüğüne göre belirlenen etki büyüklükleri anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmakta mıdır?
5. Çalışmaların yapıldığı yıla göre belirlenen etki büyüklükleri anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmakta mıdır?
6. Çalışmalarda kullanılan konuşma türüne göre belirlenen etki büyüklükleri anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmakta mıdır?
7. Çalışmalarda kullanılan öğretim uygulamalarına göre belirlenen etki büyüklükleri anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmakta mıdır?
8. Çalışmaların deney süresine göre belirlenen etki büyüklükleri anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmakta mıdır?

2. Verilerin Toplanması

Alanyazın taramasında kullanılan veri tabanları şunlardır: YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi, Ulakbim Sosyal Bilimler Veri Tabanı, Google Akademik ve ResearchGate veri tabanlarıdır. Alanyazın taraması “öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları”, “yapılandırmacı yaklaşım”, “konuşma becerisi”, “sözlü anlatım”, “yöntem”, “teknik”, “strateji”, “öğrenci merkezli öğretim”, “Türkçe öğretimi” sözcükleri kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Araştırmanın bağımsız değişkenine uygun toplamda 24 araştırma meta analize dâhil edilmiştir.

3. Dâhil Edilme Ölçütlerinin Belirlenmesi

Bu araştırmada meta analize dâhil edilen çalışmalarda şu ölçütler dikkate alınmıştır:

1. Çalışmaların anadili olarak Türkçe öğretimi alanında yapılmış olması,
2. Çalışmaların bir deney ve bir kontrol gruplu deneysel desen ile yapılmış olması,
3. Çalışmaların 2005-2022 yılları arasında yapılmış olması,
4. Çalışmaların öğrenci merkezli strateji, yöntem ve teknik üzerine kurulu olması,
5. Çalışmaların etki büyüklüklerini belirlemek için gerekli olan standart sapma, örneklem büyüklüğü ve aritmetik ortalama verilerini içermesi,
6. Çalışmaların lisansüstü tezlerden ve bağımsız makalelerden (tezden üretilmemiş) olması,
7. Çalışmaların Türkiye’de yapılmış olması.

4. Kodlama Süreci ve Kodlama Güvenirliği

Bu araştırmada meta analize dâhil edilen çalışmalar için bir kodlama işlemi geliştirilmiştir. Meta analiz çalışmalarında kodlama işlemi, çalışmanın betimsel verilerinin yer aldığı bölümden ve çalışmanın deneysel bulgularını gösteren bilgilerden oluşmaktadır

(Lipsey ve Wilson, 2000). Bu doğrultuda araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen bir kodlama formu oluşturulmuştur. Bu kodlama formunda çalışmanın adı, yılı, yayın türü, deney ve kontrol gurubunun örneklem büyüklüğü, standart sapma ve aritmetik ortalamaları, çalışmalarda kullanılan öğretim uygulamalarının bilgisi yer almaktadır.

Kodlayıcı güvenilirliğinin sağlanması için uygulamayı yapan araştırmacının dışında bir veya daha fazla kişinin verileri kodlaması gerekmektedir. Meta analiz çalışmalarında genellikle uyum katsayısı, sürekli verilerde korelasyon katsayısı, iki kodlayıcı arasındaki uyum için Cohen Kappa katsayısı, üç veya daha fazla kodlayıcılar arası uyum için ise Fleiss Kappa katsayısı kullanılır (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Bu araştırmada iki kodlayıcı arasındaki uyum Cohen Kappa (Cohen's κ) katsayısı kullanılarak hesaplanmıştır. Böylelikle çalışmalar içinden rastgele seçilen 10 çalışma, ikinci bir kodlayıcı tarafından kodlanmıştır. Uyum katsayısı $\kappa = .90$ olarak hesaplanmıştır. Cohen Kappa katsayısının uyum açısından iyi olarak nitelendirilmesi için $.60$ 'tan büyük olması gerekmektedir (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Buradan hareketle kodlayıcı güvenilirliğinin iyi olduğu söylenebilir.

Tablo 1. Öğrenci Merkezli Öğretim Uygulamalarının Konuşma Becerisinin Gelişimine Etkisini İnceleyen Araştırmalara Yönelik Betimsel Veriler

		Frekans	Yüzde
Çalışmaların Yapıldığı Yıl	2005-2010	2	%8.33
	2011-2015	8	%33.33
	2016-2022	14	%58.33
Çalışmaların Yayın Türü	Yüksek Lisans Tezi	14	%58.33
	Doktora Tezi	6	%25.00
	Makale	4	%16.66
Örneklem Grubunun Öğretim Düzeyi	İlkokul	3	%12.50
	Ortaokul	18	%75.00
	Üniversite	3	%12.50
Konuşma Türü	Hazırlıklı	10	%41.66
	Hazırlıksız	14	%58.33
	<u>Bireysel Uygulamalar</u>		
	Eleştirel Konuşma	1	%4.16
	Altı Şapka Düşünme Tekniği	1	%4.16
	Görseller	1	%4.16
	Kavram Haritası	2	%8.33
	Tekerlemeler	1	%4.16
	Diksiyon Etkinlikleri	1	%4.16
	Hikâye Kullanımı	1	%4.16
	5E Öğrenme Modeli	1	%4.16
	Dinleme Destekli Öğretim	1	%4.16
Öğrenci Merkezli Öğretim Uygulamaları	Doğrudan Öğretim	1	%4.16
	Aktif Öğrenme Yöntemi	2	%8.33
	<u>Etkileşimsel Uygulamalar</u>		
	Drama	2	%8.33
	Yaratıcı Drama	3	%12.50
	Akademik Çelişki	1	%4.16
	Kubaşık Öğrenme	1	%4.16
	Etkileşimli Öğretim Stratejisi	1	%4.16

	Mikro Öğretim	3	% 12.50
Örneklem Büyüklüğü	$10 \leq n \leq 20$	7	% 29.16
	$21 \leq n \leq 30$	10	% 41.66
	$31 \leq n$	7	% 29.16
	Toplam	24	% 100.0

Meta analize dâhil edilen çalışmalara ilişkin betimsel verileri gösteren Tablo 1'e bakıldığında deneysel çalışmaların en çok 2016-2022 (%58.33) yılları arasında yapıldığı görülmektedir. Yayın türü açısından değerlendirildiğinde en çok yüksek lisans tezi (%58.33) türünde çalışmanın meta analize dâhil edildiği ve bu çalışmaların en yüksek oranla ortaokul düzeyinde (%75.0) gerçekleştirildiği dikkat çekmektedir. Deneysel çalışmalarda hazırlıksız konuşma türünün (%58.33) hazırlıklı konuşma türüne (%41.66) göre daha çok tercih edildiği görülmüş, örneklem büyüklüğü ise %41.66 oranıyla en çok 21-30 arasında görülmüştür.

Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları içinde bireysel türde gruplandırılan eleştirel konuşma, altı şapka düşünme tekniği, görseller, tekerlemeler, diksiyon etkinlikleri, hikâye kullanımı, dinleme destekli öğretim, doğrudan öğretim uygulamalarının ($f=1$) %4.16 oranında en az tercih edilen uygulamalar olduğu belirlenmiştir. Kavram haritası ve aktif öğrenme yöntemi uygulamaları ($f=1$) ise %8.33 ile en çok tercih edilen uygulamalar olmuştur.

Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarından etkileşimsel türde gruplandırılan yaratıcı drama ve mikro öğretim ($f=3$) %12.52 oranıyla en çok kullanılan uygulamalar olmuştur. Drama ($f=2$) ikinci en çok kullanılan etkileşimsel türde uygulama olurken kubaşık öğrenme, etkileşimli öğretim stratejisi ve akademik çelişki tekniği %4.16 ile en az kullanılan ($f=1$) öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları olmuştur.

Verilerin Analizi

Etki Büyüklüğünün Hesaplanması

Meta analiz çalışmaları, bir konuya ilişkin bağımsız çalışmalardan alınan etki büyüklüğü değerlerinin birleştirilmesini ve bu değerlerin ortalamasını elde etmeyi amaçlar (Şen, 2019). Meta analiz çalışmalarının temel birimi etki büyüklükleri hesaplamalarıdır. Bu hesaplamalarda sabit etki ve rastgele etki modeli kullanılır. Etki büyüklüğünü ölçen parametrenin tüm çalışmalarda aynı olduğunu (homojen) varsayan model "sabit etkiler modeli" olarak adlandırılırken, parametre bir çalışmadan diğerine farklı değerler alan ve (heterojen) rastgele bir değişken şeklinde hareket etmesine izin veren model ise "rastgele etkiler modeli" olarak tanımlanır (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Etki büyüklüğü farklılaşmaları; örneklem sayısının ve kullanılan yöntemin farklılaşması, konuların çeşitlilik göstermesi gibi durumlarda ortaya çıkmaktadır (Cooper, 2017). Etki büyüklüğü, çalışmaların aritmetik ortalama, standart sapma, t , f ya da r değerlerinin belirli formüllerle standart bir ölçüm değerine dönüştürülmelerinden elde edilir (Rosenthal, 1991). Araştırmada elde edilen etki büyüklüklerine heterojenlik testi yapıldıktan sonra hangi modelin seçilmesi gerektiğine karar verilmelidir. Teste göre çalışmalar heterojen bir dağılım gösteriyorsa rastgele etkiler modeli, göstermiyorsa sabit etkiler modeli kullanılmalıdır (Ellis, 2010). Bu araştırmada heterojenlik testi I^2 değerine göre hesaplanmıştır. I^2 değeri %25, %50 ve %75 olması sırasıyla düşük, orta ve yüksek değerlerde olduğunu gösterir (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020).

Araştırmada çalışmaların etki büyüklükleri Comprehensive Meta Analysis (CMA) programıyla hesaplanmıştır. Hesaplamalar yapılmadan önce deney ve kontrol gurubunun örneklem büyüklüğü, standart sapma, aritmetik ortalama, t ve p puanları gibi değerler programa kodlanmıştır. Etki büyüklükleri Hedges's g katsayısı kullanılarak hesaplanmıştır. Etki büyüklüklerine yönelik hesaplamalarda güven düzeyi %95 olarak kabul edilmiştir. Aşağıdaki ölçütler doğrultusunda etki büyüklüğü yorumlanmıştır (Cohen, 1992):

- $.00 \leq \text{Etki büyüklüğü değeri} \leq .20$ (Zayıf Etki)
- $.21 \leq \text{Etki büyüklüğü değeri} \leq .50$ (Küçük Etki)
- $.51 \leq \text{Etki büyüklüğü değeri} \leq 1.00$ (Orta Etki)
- $1.00 > \text{Etki büyüklüğü değeri}$ (Güçlü Etki)

Araştırmanın Geçerliliği ve Yayın Yanlılığı Hesaplamaları

Meta analiz çalışmalarında geçerliliği tehdit eden en önemli faktörlerden biri yayın yanlılığıdır. “Yayın yanlılığı” terimi, anlamlı olmayan ve hatalı sonuçlara kıyasla anlamlı sonuçların sunulması ve yayınlanmasının daha olası olmasını ifade etmek amacıyla kullanılır (Petiti, 2000). Yayın yanlılığını ortadan kaldırmak amacıyla bağımsız araştırmaların verilerinde hatalar tespit edilmiş, çalışmanın güvenilirliğini zedelememesi amacıyla 5 bağımsız çalışma analiz sırasında uzman görüşü alınarak elenmiştir. Card (2011), yayın yanlılığını incelemeye kullanacak altı yöntemden bahseder. Bunlar: moderatör değişkenlerin analizi, huni grafiği, Rosenthal'ın N testi, Orwin'in N testi, regresyon analizi, Duval and Tweedie kırp ve doldur yöntemleridir.

Bu araştırmada yayın yanlılığını belirlemek için huni grafiği (funnel plot) tekniğinden, yayın yanlılığının etkisini göstermek amacıyla Rosenthal'ın N testi, Orwin'in N testi, Begg ve Mazumdar Sıra Korelasyonları Testinden yararlanılmıştır. Şekil 1'de araştırmanın huni grafiği olan Funnel Plot verileri verilmiştir.

Şekil 1. Araştırmanın Yanlılığını Gösteren Huni Grafiği (Funnel Plot)



Grafiğe bakıldığında random modele göre etki büyüklüklerinin fazla asimetrik dağılım göstermediği için Duval ve Tweedie'nin kırpma-doldurma işlemine gerek duyulmadığı görülmektedir. Dolayısıyla huni grafiğinde yayın yanlılığının önemli derecede olmadığı görülmektedir (Duval ve Tweedie, 2000).

Rosenthal'in Güvenli N Testi ile çalışmanın yayın yanlılığı değerlendirilmiştir. Bu yöntemle eksik çalışmaların, deneysel etkinin genel tahmini üzerindeki etkisini değerlendirmek amaçlanır (Rosenthal, 1979). Rosenthal'in Güvenli N Testi istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunan popülasyon etki büyüklüğü değerini istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmayan duruma getirebilmek için gereken çalışma sayısını verir (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Tablo 2'de Rosenthal'in Güvenli N testine dair bilgiler yer almaktadır.

Tablo 2. Rosenthal'in Güvenli N Testi Sonuçları

İncelenen Çalışmaların Z-değeri	19.87
İncelenen Çalışmaların P-değeri	.00
Alfa	.50
Yön	2.00
Alfa için Z- değeri	1.96
İncelenen çalışma sayısı	24
Güvenli N sayısı (Fail-safe number)	2443

Tablo 2'ye göre Rosenthal'in yöntemiyle elde edilen güvenli N değeri 2443 olarak belirlenmiştir. Buna göre öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının konuşma becerisinin

gelişimine etkisi istatistiksel olarak anlamsız düzeye getirmek için gerekli olan çalışma sayısı 2443'tür. Bu sayının küçük olması yayın yanlılığının çok yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir. Rosenthal'a göre (1979) $n > 5k + 10$ olması durumu çalışmanın yayın yanlılığının çok düşük olduğu anlamına gelir. Meta analize dahil edilen 24 çalışmanın güvenli N değeri $5 \times 24 + 10$ yani 130'dan büyük olduğundan yayın yanlılığının düşük olduğu sonucuna varılmaktadır.

Tablo 3'te Orwin'in güvenli N testinden alınan değerler verilmiştir. Orwin'in güvenli N yöntemi meta analizde bulunan popülasyon etki büyüklüğü değerini belirtilen bir değere düşürebilmek için gerekli olan ortalama yayınlanmamış çalışma sayısını vermektedir (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Orwin yöntemi, ortalama etki büyüklüğü sıfır olan çalışma sayısını hesaplamak için standartlaştırılmış etki büyüklükleri farkı ortalamasını kullanmaktadır (Hunter ve Schmidt, 2004).

Tablo 3. Orwin'in Güvenli N Testi Sonuçları

İncelenen çalışmalarda Hedge's g	1.17
"Önemsiz" bir Hedge g için ölçüt	.10
Kayıp çalışmalar için ortalama Hedge g	.00
Hedge g değerini .1'in altına çekmek için gereken kayıp çalışma sayısı (FSN)	260

Tablo 3'e göre random etkiler modeline göre verilen Hedge $g = 1.17$ etki büyüklük değerinin, önemsiz olarak belirlenen $g = .10$ değerine inmesi için gerekli çalışma sayısı 260 olarak belirlenmiştir. Araştırmanın yayın yanlılığını belirlemede etkili olan diğer bir yöntem Begg-Mazumdar Sıra Korelasyonu testidir. Begg-Mazumdar Sıra Korelasyonu testi, etki büyüklüğünün standartlaştırılmış değerleri ile varyansları arasındaki Kendall's tau değeri hesaplanarak bulunmaktadır. Elde edilen değer, etki büyüklüğü ile örneklem büyüklüğü arasındaki ilişkiyi yansıtmaktadır. Bu noktada istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunuyorsa ($p < .05$ ise) yayın yanlılığı olduğu söylenebilir. İstatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmayan bir korelasyon değerinin bulunması ise yayın yanlılığı olmadığını ortaya koymaktadır (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Tablo 4'te Begg- Mazumdar Sıra Korelasyon Testi verileri sunulmuştur.

Tablo 4. Begg- Mazumdar Sıra Korelasyon Testi Sonuçları

Kendall'in S istatistiği (P-Q)	146
Kendall'in tau katsayısı	.525
Tau için Z değeri	3.59
değeri (1-tailed)	.016

Tablo 4'e bakıldığında Kendall tau değeri .525'dir. Bu değere ait z istatistiği 3.59 bulunmuştur. Bu değere ait tek kuyruklu (1-tailed) P değeri .016'dır. Dolayısıyla anlamlılık değeri istatistiksel olarak sıfırdan farklı değildir. Bu durum yayın yanlılığı olasılığını düşürmektedir (Begg ve Mazumdar, 1994).

Bulgular

1. Heterojenlik Testi ve Model Belirleme

Meta analiz çalışmalarında heterojenlik testi analizin hangi modelde yapılacağına karar vermek için önemlidir. Araştırmacı modele karar vermeden önce çalışmanın özelliklerini belirlemelidir (Borenstein vd., 2009). Meta analiz çalışmalarında kullanılan iki ana model vardır: Bunlar sabit etkiler modeli ve rastgele etkiler modelleridir. Çalışmanın modeline karar verirken heterojenlik testi kullanılmaktadır. Heterojenlik testi, çalışmaların etki büyüklüklerinin çok yüksek veya düşük olması gibi durumlardaki belirli müdahaleleri veya popülasyonları görmeye yardımcıdır (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Çalışmalar arasında heterojenlik olup olmadığını kontrol etmek ve gereken modeli seçmek için orman grafiği, Q-istatistiği, I^2 istatistiği gibi değerlere bakmak gerekir. Bu araştırmada heterojenliği analiz etmek için Q-istatistiği ve I^2 değerine bakılmıştır. Buna yönelik olarak Tablo 5'te Sabit Etkiler Modeline göre heterojenlik analizi verilmiştir. Heterojenliği test etmenin ve heterojenliğin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olup olmadığını belirlemenin en yaygın yolu, X^2 testine dayalı Q (df) istatistiğidir.

Tablo 5. Sabit Etkiler Modeline Göre Çalışmaların Etki Büyüklüklerine İlişkin Bulgular

Ortalama Etki Büyüklüğü (g)	Serbestlik Derecesi (df)	Homojenlik Değeri (Q)	P-değeri	Standart Hata (SE)	I^2	Etki Büyüklüğü için %95 Güven Aralığı (ES, %95CI)	
						Alt Sınır (Min.)	Üst Sınır (Max)
1.180	23	134.720	.00	.064	82.928	1.055	1.304

I^2 = Gözlenen etkideki toplam değişimin gerçek heterojenlik oranı.

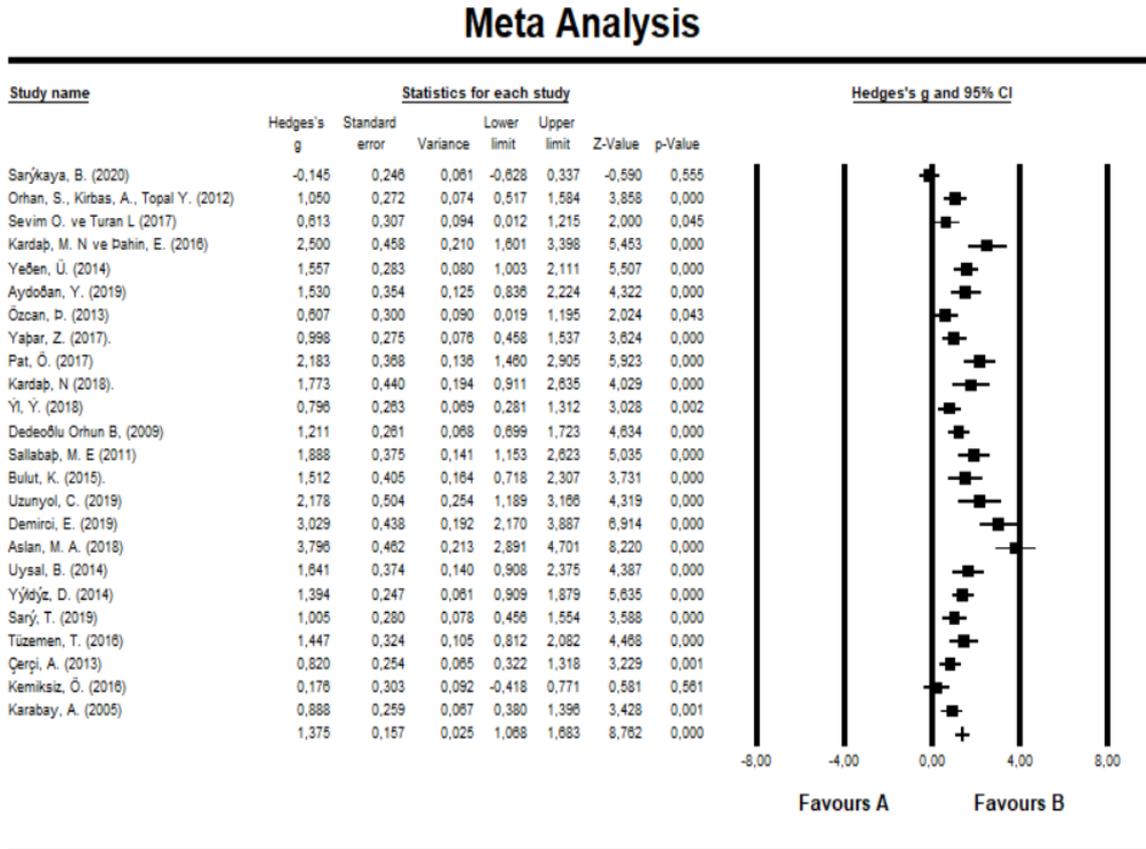
Tablo 5'te homojenlik değerini gösteren Q değeri 134.720 olarak bulunmuştur. P değerinin ise .00 düzeyinde anlamlı olması ve I^2 değerinin %82.928 gibi yüksek bir değerde olması istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir düzeyde heterojenlik olduğunu göstermektedir. Çünkü I^2 değeri, meta analiz çalışmalarında çalışmalar arası varyansın tesadüf olarak değil, heterojenlikten kaynaklandığını ortaya koymaktadır. Bu değer 0 ile 100 arasında değişir ve değer 100'e yaklaştıkça heterojenlik artmaktadır (Şen ve Yıldırım, 2020). Öte yandan Q değerine (134.720) bağlı olarak X^2 tablosu incelendiğinde %95 anlamlılık düzeyinde 23 serbestlik derecesinin (df) kritik değerinin 35.173 olduğu belirlenmiştir. Etki büyüklükleri heterojen olduğunda, istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir X^2 değeri, çalışmaların farklı dağılımlara sahip olduğunu ve dolayısıyla geniş bir etkiyi paylaşmadığını gösterir (Hedges ve Olkin, 1985). Bütün bu bulgular neticesinde çalışmaların ortalama etki büyüklüklerinin hesaplanmasında "Rastgele Etkiler Modeli" tercih edilmiştir (Yıldız, 2002). Bu modele göre gerçek etki büyüklüğü çalışmadan çalışmaya değişmektedir. Bunun iki temel sebebi vardır. Birinci sebep, etki büyüklüğünün gerçek heterojenliği, ikinci sebep ise çalışmalardaki hatalarla ilgilidir. (Borenstein vd., 2009).

Araştırmanın Rastgele Etkiler Modele göre etki büyüklüğü 1.375 olarak belirlenmiştir. Etki büyüklüğünün %95 güven aralığında en alt sınırı 1.068, en üst sınırı ise

1.683'tür. Bu bulgulara göre öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerinin gelişiminde güçlü düzeyde bir etkiye sahip olduğu görülmektedir (Cohen, 1992).

Şekil 2'de bireysel çalışmalara ait etki büyüklüklerinin dağılımı orman grafiği üzerinde gösterilmiştir.

Şekil 2. Çalışmanın Orman Grafiği (Forest Plot)



Meta Analysis

Şekil 2'ye göre en yüksek güven aralığı çizgisine sahip olan araştırma Aslan (2018)'in çalışması iken en düşük güven aralığına sahip çalışma ise Sarıkaya (2020)'ya aittir. Araştırmaların ağırlıklarına bakıldığında da Aslan (2018)'in çalışması en küçük ağırlığa, Sarıkaya (2020)'nin ise en büyük ağırlığa sahip olduğu görülmektedir. Tüm çalışmalar göz önüne alındığında çalışmalar arasında en küçük etki büyüklüğü -.145, en büyük etki büyüklüğü ise 3.796 olduğu görülmektedir.

2. Öğrenci Merkezli Öğretim Uygulamalarının Öğrencilerin Konuşma Becerisinin Gelişimine Etkisine Yönelik Bulgular

Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin gelişimine etkisi rastgele etkiler modeline göre Tablo 6'da gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 6. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Bağımsız Çalışmaların Etki Büyüklüklerine İlişkin Bulgular

Ortalama Etki Büyüklüğü (g)	N	Standart Hata (SE)	Varyans (v)	Z	p	Etki Büyüklüğü için %95 Güven Aralığı (ES, %95 CI)	
						Alt Sınır (Min)	Üst Sınır (Max)
1.375	24	.157	.025	8.762	.00*	1.068	1.683

* $p < .05$

Tablo 6'ya göre öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının konuşma becerisinin gelişimine yönelik genel etki değeri (Hedge's g) 1.375'dir. Standart hata değeri .157 iken P değeri .00 ile istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeydedir. Etki Büyüklüğü için %95 Güven Aralığının en alt sınırı 1.068, en üst sınırı 1.683 olarak belirlenmiştir. Buna yönelik olarak öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin konuşma becerisini geliştirmede yüksek düzeyde etkili olduğu sonucuna varılmaktadır. Etki büyüklüğü değerlerinin pozitif çıkması bu boyutlardaki performansların etki büyüklüğü derecesince deney grubu lehine olduğunu göstermektedir (Wolf, 1986).

3. Çalışmaların Yapıldığı Öğretim Düzeyi Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretim düzeyi moderatörü 3 grupta incelenmiştir. Tablo 7'de öğretim düzeyi moderatör değişkenine ilişkin bulgular verilmektedir.

Tablo 7. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Öğretim Düzeyi Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Model	Hedge g	%95 Güven Aralığı (%95CI)		Serbestlik Derecesi (df)	Heterojenlik Testi	
		Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır		Q değeri	p değeri
Rastgele Etkiler Modeli						
İlkokul	1.419	.787	2.052			
Ortaokul	1.451	1.090	1.813			
Üniversite	.900	-.223	2.024	2	.840	.657

Tablo 7'de en yüksek etki büyüklüğünün 1.451 ile ortaokul düzeyinde olduğu görülmektedir. İlkokul ise 1.419 etki büyüklüğüne sahipken üniversite .900 ile en küçük etki düzeyindedir. Deneysel çalışmaların en fazla yapıldığı öğretim kademesi ortaokul ($n=31$) kademesidir. İlkokul ve üniversite ise 3'er deneysel çalışma ile eşit miktardadır. Öğretim düzeyine ait olan Q değeri .840 ile X^2 tablosunda %95 güven aralığında 2 serbestlik derecesiyle belirlenen 5.991 kritik değerinin altında olması ve p değerinin .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklüklerinin öğretim düzeyi değişkenine göre anlamlı şekilde farklılaşmadığını göstermektedir.

4. Çalışmaların Yapıldığı Yayın Türü Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Çalışmaların yapıldığı yayın türüne göre etki büyüklükleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunup bulunmadığına yönelik bulgular Tablo 8'de gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 8. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Yayın Türü Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Güven Aralığı (%95CI)		Serbestlik Derecesi (<i>df</i>)	Heterojenlik Testi	
		Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır		<i>Q</i> değeri	<i>p</i> değeri
Rastgele Etkiler Modeli						
Makale	.950	.017	1.882			
Doktora tezi	1.207	.708	.705			
Yüksek Lisans Tezi	1.574	1.179	1.968		2.206	.332
Gruplar arası heterojenlik				2		

Yayın türüne yönelik olarak yapılan çalışmaların çoğunluğunu yüksek lisans tezi (n=14) oluşturmaktadır. Ardından sırasıyla doktora tezi (n=6) ve makale (n=4) türü yer almaktadır. En yüksek etki büyüklük değeri ise 1.574 ile yüksek lisans tezi türündedir. Doktora tezlerinin etki büyüklüğü 1.207, makalelerin ise .950'dir. Genel bir ifadeyle üç yayın türü de geniş düzeyde etki büyüklüğüne sahiptir. Ancak 2.206 olarak belirlenen *Q* değerinin %95 güven aralığında 2 serbestlik derecesiyle belirlenen 5.991 kritik değerinin altında ve $p > .05$ olması farklılığın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde olmadığını göstermektedir.

5. Çalışmaların Örneklem Büyüklüğü Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Çalışmaların örneklem büyüklüğüne göre etki büyüklükleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığına ilişkin bulgular Tablo 9'da gösterilmiştir. Çalışmaların örneklem büyüklüğü 10-20, 21-30 ve 31+ şeklinde gruplandırılmıştır. 21-30 arasında örneklem büyüklüğüne sahip çalışmalar (n=10) en yüksek miktara sahip deneysel çalışmalardır. 10-20 ve 31+ üstü örneklem büyüklüğüne sahip deneysel çalışmalar n= 7'şer tanedir.

Tablo 9. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Örneklem Büyüklüğü Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Güven Aralığı (%95CI)		Serbestlik Derecesi (<i>df</i>)	Heterojenlik Testi	
		Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır		<i>Q</i> değeri	<i>p</i> değeri
Rastgele Etkiler Modeli						
10-20	1.806	1.504	2.108			
21-30	1.439	.856	2.022			
31+	.926	.504	1.348		11.107	.004
Gruplar arası heterojenlik				2		

Tablo 9'a göre en yüksek etki büyüklüğüne sahip (1.806) örneklem grubu 10-20 kişiliktir. 21-30 örneklem grubu 1.439 etki büyüklüğü iki ikinci, 31+ örneklem büyüklüğü ise .926 ile en küçük etki büyüklüğüne sahiptir. 11.107 olan *Q* değerinin %95 güven aralığında 2 serbestlik derecesiyle belirlenen 5.991 kritik değerinin altında olduğu görülmektedir. *P* değerinin (.004) .05'ten küçük olması farklılığın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

6. Çalışmaların Yapıldığı Yıl Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Araştırmada cevap aranan çalışmaların yapıldığı yıla göre etki büyüklükleri yönelik bulgular Tablo 10'da gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 10. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Çalışma Yılı Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Güven Aralığı (%95CI)		Serbestlik Derecesi (<i>df</i>)	Heterojenlik Testi	
		Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır		<i>Q</i> değeri	<i>p</i> değeri
Rastgele Etkiler Modeli						
2005-2010	1.048	.688	1.409			
2011-2015	1.266	.968	1.564			
2016-2022	1.512	.976	2.048		2.093	.351
Gruplar arası heterojenlik				2		

Dâhil edilen deneysel çalışmalar arasında en fazla ($n=14$) miktara sahip çalışmalar 2016-2020 arasında yapılmıştır. 2011-2015 arasında $n=8$ çalışma yapılmış, 2005-2010 arasında ise en az $n=2$ çalışma yapılmıştır. Çalışmaların yapıldığı üç grubun etki büyüklükleri 1'in üzerinde ve birbirine yakın orandadır. En yüksek etki büyüklüğü 1.512 ile 2016-2022 yılları arasındaki çalışmalardır. İkinci en yüksek etki büyüklüğü 1.266 ile 2011-2015 yılları arasındaki çalışmalara aittir. En düşük etki büyüklüğü 1.048 ile 2005-2010 yılları arasında yapılan çalışmalar olmuştur. Moderatör değişkenine ait *Q* değeri 2.093 ile %95 güven aralığında 2 serbestlik derecesiyle belirlenen 5.991 kritik değerinin altındadır. Ayrıca *P* değerinin (.351) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir.

7. Konuşma Türü Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Araştırmada konuşma türü değişkeni hazırlıklı ve hazırlıksız olmak üzere iki kategoride gruplandırılmıştır. En fazla çalışma $n=14$ hazırlıksız konuşma türünde yapılmıştır. Hazırlıklı konuşma türü ise $n=10$ deneysel çalışmada bulunmaktadır.

Tablo 11. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Konuşma Türü Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Güven Aralığı (%95CI)		Serbestlik Derecesi (<i>df</i>)	Heterojenlik Testi	
		Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır		<i>Q</i> değeri	<i>p</i> değeri
Rastgele Etkiler Modeli						
Hazırlıklı	1.139	.653	1.626		1.601	.206
Hazırlıksız	1.537	1.159	1.916			
Gruplar arası heterojenlik				1		

Tablo 11'de iki konuşma türünün etki büyüklüklerinin 1'in üstünde olduğu ve birbirine yakın olduğu görülmektedir. Hazırlıksız konuşma türünün etki büyüklüğü 1.537 iken hazırlıklı konuşma türünün etki büyüklüğü 1.139'dur. *Q* değeri 1.601 ile %95 güven aralığında 1 serbestlik derecesiyle belirlenen 3.841 kritik değerinin altındadır. *P* değerinin (.351) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir.

8. Öğrenci Merkezli Öğretim Uygulamaları Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Çalışmalarda kullanılan öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları arasındaki etki büyüklüklerine yönelik bulgular Tablo 12'de gösterilmiştir. Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları farklı yöntem ve tekniklerden oluştuğu için "bireysel" ve "etkileşimsel"

olarak iki grupta analiz edilmiştir. Bireysel türde olan öğretim uygulamaları n=13, etkileşimsel türde olan öğretim uygulamaları n=11'dir.

Tablo 12. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Öğretim Uygulamaları Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Güven Aralığı (%95CI)		Serbestlik Derecesi (<i>df</i>)	Heterojenlik Testi	
		Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır		<i>Q</i> değeri	<i>p</i> değeri
Rastgele Etkiler Modeli						
Bireysel Uygulamalar	1.307	.838	1.776		.234	.629
Etkileşimli Uygulamalar	1.453	1.093	1.813			
Gruplar arası heterojenlik				1		

Tablo 12'ye göre en yüksek etki düzeyi (1.453) etkileşimli türdeki öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarıdır. Bireysel türdeki öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları 1.307 etki büyüklüğüne sahiptir. *Q* değeri .234 ile %95 güven aralığında 1 serbestlik derecesiyle belirlenen 3.841 kritik değerinin altındadır. Ayrıca *P* değerinin (.629) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir. Bu modele göre öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarından etkileşimli türdeki uygulamaların etki büyüklüğü, bireysel uygulamalara göre daha yüksektir.

9. Deney Süresi Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Çalışmaların deney süreleri 11-14 ve 5-10 hafta aralıklarında iki grupta incelenmiştir. 11-14 hafta arasında n=10 çalışma, 5-10 hafta arasında n=14 çalışma bulunmaktadır.

Tablo 13. Rastgele Etkiler Modele Göre Deney Süresi Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Model	Hedge <i>g</i>	%95 Güven Aralığı (%95CI)		Serbestlik Derecesi (<i>df</i>)	Heterojenlik Testi	
		Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır		<i>Q</i> değeri	<i>p</i> değeri
Rastgele Etkiler Modeli						
11-14	1.277	.778	1.776		.269	.604
5-10	1.447	1.043	1.852			
Gruplar arası heterojenlik				1		

Tablo 13'te deney süreleri arasındaki etki büyüklüklerinin birbirine yakın olduğu ve 1'in üstünde bir değere sahip olduğu görülmektedir. En yüksek etki değeri 1.447 ile 5-10 hafta arasındaki çalışmalardır. *Q* değeri .269 ile %95 güven aralığında 1 serbestlik derecesiyle belirlenen 3.841 kritik değerinin altındadır. Ayrıca *P* değerinin (.629) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir.

Tartışma ve Sonuç

Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının konuşma becerisinin gelişimine etkisini incelemek amacıyla gerçekleştirilen bu araştırmanın sonucunda öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin geliştirmede güçlü bir etkiye sahip olduğu (Hedge's $g=1.375$) görülmüştür. Bu değer Cohen'in (1992) sınıflandırmasına göre yüksek bir etki düzeyine sahiptir. Meta analize dâhil edilen 24 çalışmadan yalnızca 1'i negatif etki büyüklüğüne sahiptir. Çalışmalar arasındaki en yüksek etki büyüklüğü Hedge's $g= 3.796$ ile Aslan'ın (2018) çalışması olmuştur. En küçük etki büyüklüğü ise Hedge's $g= -.145$ ile Sarıkaya'nın (2020) çalışmasıdır. Rastgele etkiler modele göre meta analize dahil edilen çalışmaların P değerinin .00 çıkması öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin geliştirmede istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde bir etkiye sahip olduğunu göstermektedir (Cohen, 1992). Meta analiz türünde yapılan araştırmaların çoğu bu araştırmanın sonucunu destekler şekilde akran/öğrenci merkezli öğretimin, öğretmen merkezli öğretimden daha geniş ve olumlu etki düzeyine sahip olduğunu göstermektedir (Rohrbeck, Fantuzzo, Ginsberg-Block, Miller, 2003; Johnson, Maruyoma, Johnson, Nelson, 1981; Roseth, Johnson, Johnson, 2008). Öte yandan moderatör değişken olarak incelendiğinde akran merkezli eğitimin yazma, dinleme ve konuşma gibi dil becerilerinin gelişimini de olumlu yönde etkilediği görülmektedir (Keck vd., 2006; Mackey, Goo, 2007).

Bu çalışmada öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin geliştirmede güçlü bir etkiye sahip olduğu (Hedge's $g=1.375$) elde edilen bulgulardan biridir. Türkben (2019) tarafından yapılan çalışmada Türkçeyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerine etkisini belirlemeye yönelik oluşturduğu çalışmada etkileşimli öğretim stratejilerini kullanan deney grubundaki öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin olumlu ve anlamlı düzeyde değişiklik göstermesi bu bulguyu desteklemektedir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçlarına benzer olarak Biçer (2017) tarafından yapılan öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının Türkçe öğretimindeki akademik başarıya etkisinin incelendiği meta analiz türdeki çalışmaya göre, öğrenci merkezli işbirlikli öğrenmenin geleneksel öğretim yaklaşımına göre daha güçlü bir etki düzeyi ne sahip olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Çalışmaların öğretim düzeyi değişkenine göre en yüksek etki büyüklüğünün Hedge's $g=1.451$ değeriyle ortaokul düzeyinde olduğu görülmektedir. P değerinin .05'ten büyük olması ise etki büyüklüklerinin öğretim düzeyi değişkenine göre anlamlı şekilde farklılaşmadığını ortaya koymuştur. Cole (2018) tarafından yapılan akran eğitiminin sözlü anlatım becerilerine etkisinin incelendiği araştırmanın bulgularına bakıldığında öğretim düzeyi değişkenine göre bu çalışmadan farklı olarak ise en yüksek etki büyüklüğü (Hedge's $g= .628$) ilkökul düzeyinde olduğu görülmüştür. Öğrenci merkezli dil öğretim uygulamalarının dil öğrenme çıktıları üzerindeki etkisini inceleyen Alsowat (2020), dil öğrenme uygulamalarının dil çıktıları üzerinde orta düzeyde bir etkisinin olduğunu ($d=.90$), benzer şekilde teknolojiye dayalı dil öğretiminin, genel ve üretilen kelime bilgisi üzerinde de orta düzeyde bir etkiye sahip olduğunu ($d=.98$), öğretim düzeyinde ise en yüksek etki büyüklüğünün üniversite düzeyinde ($d=.85$) olduğunu belirlemiştir. Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının dil çıktıları üzerinde orta düzeyde bir etkiye sahip olması bu çalışmanın bulgularıyla örtüşmemektedir. Öte yandan öğretim düzeyinde en yüksek etki büyüklüğünün üniversite düzeyinde olması da bu çalışmanın farklılıklarından biridir.

Yayın türü değişkenine bakıldığında en yüksek etki büyüklüğüne sahip çalışma türü (Hedge's $g=1.574$) yüksek lisans tezleri olmuştur. Öte yandan $p>.05$ olması farklılığın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde olmadığını göstermektedir.

Çalışmanın örneklem büyüklüğü değişkenine göre en yüksek etki büyüklüğü (Hedge's $g= 1.806$) 10-20 kişilik gruplara aittir. P değerinin (.04) .05'ten küçük olması farklılığın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Çalışmaların yapıldığı yıl değişkenine göre 2016-2022 yıllarının en yüksek etki büyüklüğüne (Hedge's $g=1.512$) sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca P değerinin (.351) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir. Konuşma becerisinin gelişiminin incelendiği deneysel çalışmaların 2016 yılından sonra artması çalışmanın bu yıllar arasındaki etki büyüklüğünün diğer yıllara oranla yüksek çıkmasını açıklar niteliktedir (Arung, 2016). Ayrıca 2016 yılından itibaren öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının yapılandırıcı yaklaşımla birlikte öğretmen kılavuzluğunda daha fazla kullanılmaya başlanması etki büyüklüğünün diğer yıllara oranla artışını açıklamaktadır.

Çalışmanın konuşma türü değişkeninde en yüksek etki büyüklüğü (Hedge's $g=1.537$) hazırlıksız konuşma türünde yapılan çalışmalara aittir. P değerinin (.351) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir. Hazırlıksız konuşma türünün, hazırlıklı konuşmaya oranla öğrencilerde daha az değerlendirilme kaygısı yaşattığı (Kemiksiz, 2016) göz önüne alındığında etki büyüklüğünün yüksek çıkması beklenebilir.

Çalışmalarda kullanılan öğretim türü değişkenine göre en yüksek etki büyüklüğü (Hedge's $g=1.453$) etkileşimli türdeki öğrenci merkezli uygulamaların olduğu görülmüştür. P değerinin (.629) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir. Alan yazında araştırmanın bu bulgusunun farklı deneysel çalışmalarda (Kılıçarslan, 2014; Yıldız, 2014, Espino 1999) desteklendiği görülmektedir. Kılıçarslan'ın (2014) yaptığı bir çalışmada etkileşimli öğretim stratejilerinden biri olan dramanın öğrencilerin sözlü anlatım becerilerini olumlu yönde etkilediği sonucuna varılmıştır. Drama bu çalışmada etkileşimli öğretim stratejileri grubuna girmektedir. Dramanın kullanıldığı 5 çalışmanın etki büyüklüğünün pozitif yönde olması çalışmaların öğretim türü bulgularının birbirine benzer olduğunu göstermektedir. Etkileşimli öğretim stratejisinin konuşma becerisine etkisinin incelendiği başka bir çalışmada ise (Yıldız, 2014) etkileşimli bir biçimde yapılan öğrencilerin aktif olarak katıldıkları etkinliklerin konuşma becerilerini olumlu yönde etkilediği sonucuna varılmıştır. Benzer şekilde Cole (2018) tarafından yapılan bir meta analiz çalışmasında akran eğitiminin İngilizce öğrenen bireylerin sözlü anlatım becerilerinin gelişimini Hedge's g etki büyüklüğü .578 ($p <.001$) ile geniş ve olumlu düzeyde etkilediği sonucuna varılmıştır. Ayrıca dahil edilen çalışmaların yarısından fazlası, sıfır eşliğini geçen güven aralıklarına sahiptir, bu da bireysel olarak bunların istatistiksel bir şekilde sıfır etki büyüklüğünden ayırt edilemez oldukları anlamına gelir. Çalışmanın yayın yanlılığı sonucuna göre yayınlanmış çalışmaların etki büyüklüğü Hedge's $g=.377$ ile yayınlanmamış çalışmalara (Hedge's $g=1.159$) nazaran daha küçüktür. Çalışmada moderatör değişken olarak kullanılan akran eğitimi, iş birlikli öğretim ve rehberlikçi öğretim türünde üç grubun etki büyüklüğü incelenmiştir. En yüksek etki büyüklüğü Hedge's $g=.836$ ile akran eğitimi türündeki deneysel çalışmalar olmuştur. Batdı ve Batdı (2015) tarafından yapılan meta analiz türündeki çalışmada öğrenci merkezli öğretim

uygulamalarından biri olan yaratıcı dramının akademik başarı üzerindeki etkisinin yüksek düzeyde (Hedge's $g=1.68$) olduğu bulunmuştur.

Cole (2014) tarafından yapılan başka bir araştırmada öğrenci merkezli öğretimin öğrencilerin okuryazarlık ve dil becerilerine etkisi incelenmiş. Hedge's $g=.486$ ($p < .001$) ile öğrenci merkezli eğitimin okuryazarlık ve dil becerilerine etkisinin küçük düzeyde olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Çalışmalarda kullanılan öğretim yöntemleri akran eğitimi, işbirlikli öğretim ve kılavuz öğretim türünde üç gruba ayrılmış, en yüksek etki büyüklüğü ise Hedge's $g=.632$ ile işbirlikli öğretim türündeki çalışmaların diğer çalışmalara göre daha yüksek etki büyüklüğüne sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Bu çalışmada ise en yüksek etki büyüklüğünün (Hedge's $g=1.453$) etkileşimli türdeki öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları olması iki çalışmanın öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamaları açısından dil becerilerine etkisinin benzer olduğunu göstermektedir.

Pattanpichet (2011), öğrenci merkezli işbirliğine dayalı öğretim uygulamalarının öğrencilerin sözlü anlatım becerilerinin gelişimine etkisini incelediği araştırmasında öğrencilere yapılan üç tane sözlü testte sırasıyla Hedge's $g=2.36, 1.20, 2.76$ değerlerinde geniş ve olumlu etki düzeyine sahip olduğu belirlenmiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulgularından olan öğretim türü değişkeninin etkileşimli türden öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarında konuşma becerisinin gelişimi açısından en yüksek etki büyüklüğüne sahip olması her iki çalışmanın bu değişken yönünden konuşma becerisi üzerinde olumlu etki düzeyine sahip olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Çalışmaların deney süresi değişkenine göre en yüksek etki büyüklüğüne (Hedge's $g=1.447$) sahip olan çalışmalar 5-10 hafta arasında yapılanlardır. P değerinin (.629) .05'ten büyük olması etki büyüklük değerleri arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığını ortaya koymuştur.

Sonuç olarak öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının, öğrencilerin konuşma becerisinin gelişiminde olumlu ve yüksek düzeyde bir etkiye sahip olduğu saptanmıştır. Bununla birlikte çalışmanın heterojen yapıda olması moderatör değişkenlerin de istatistiksel olarak anlamlılık düzeyini önemli kılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Türkiye'de bu konuda yapılan ilk meta analiz çalışma olması, öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının farklı değişkenler üzerinden incelenmesi ve değişkenlerin konuşma becerisi üzerindeki etki büyüklüklerinin hangi durumlarda farklılaştığını göstermesi bu çalışmanın önemini ortaya koymaktadır. Yapılandırıcı yaklaşım gereği öğrenciyi eğitimde etkin kılmak, öğrencinin bilgiyi yorumlamasını ve analiz etmesini, bilgi üzerinde sorgulayıcı bir yaklaşımla düşünmesini, ön bilgilerini kullanarak yeni bilgileri inşa etmesini sağlamaktadır. Bundan sonraki çalışmalarda, öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarının diğer temel dil becerilerinin (okuma, yazma, dinleme) alt boyutları baz alınarak etki büyüklükleri arasındaki ilişkiler incelenebilir. Öğrenci merkezli öğretim uygulamalarından etki büyüklükleri fazla olan uygulamalar belirlenerek dil becerilerinin geliştirilmesinde kullanılabilir.

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The Last Decade of Writing Education Studies (2010-2020): A Systematic Review

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims at proposing an overview for Writing Education Studies in the last ten years (2010-2020). Following this objective, 136 studies published in the last ten years in Reading and Writing, Reading and Writing Quarterly, and Journal of Writing Research journals, which publish effective works on writing education, were analyzed within specified categories. Bibliometric analysis and content analysis were employed for data analysis. According to the findings, the country with the highest number of publications is the USA; the most studied topic is the effect of the intervention on writing, and the most frequently studied group is middle school. Accordingly, the methodology was not defined in the majority of the studies. Quantitative methods were the most frequent methods. To the studies, the data was mainly collected through student texts. And descriptive statistics was also the most frequent data analysis method. Pedagogical implications are suggested based on the results obtained.

Acknowledgments

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Statement on Publication Ethics

The present study was conducted in accordance with scientific publication ethics.

Authors Contribution Rate

The researcher personally conducted all stages of the present study.

Conflict of Interest

The present study does not contain any potential conflicts of interest.

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Introduction

Frequent studies have been conducted on writing skills. Scientific studies have played a vital role in defining, realizing, and developing writing skill. Thus, Writing Education Studies, which have progressed in parallel with the developments occurring in the science of psychology, have enabled writing skills to be evaluated from multiple perspectives over time.

Cognitive psychology emerged as an essential field of study in the 1950s as behaviorist psychology's theoretical and methodological limitations became more evident (MacArthur & Graham, 2016). During this period, Miller's (1956) article "The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on Our Capacity for Processing Information" and the book "A Study in Thinking" by Bruner et al. (1956) have a significant impact on the evolution of writing models. Therefore, Miller's (1956) article on memory processing and Bruner, Goodnow and Austin's (1956) study, which analyzed participants' problem-solving processes by using the think-aloud method, are considered two significant studies that shaped the writing model put forward by Hayes and Flower (1980) in the context of cognitive theory (MacArthur & Graham, 2016). Within the cognitive writing model proposed by Hayes and Flower (1980) to describe writing process, memory was stressed, and thinking-aloud protocol was applied. Hayes and Flower's model (1980) and many subsequent cognitive models of writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Sharples, 1999) described writing skills in terms of problem-solving process that takes place in the mind. Cognitive writing models reveal the mental processes that take place during the writing process; the order of these processes, and the writer's responses to these processes. However, over time, new models have been introduced for analyzing writing from a cognitive perspective, in line with the developments in psychology. Such models are mostly socio-cognitive and sociocultural models of writing.

Socio-cognitive models emphasize the social aspect of writing. Shaughnessy (1977) defined writing as a "social act". According to some revised models (Bridwell, 1980; Sommers, 1980), the difference between the author's text and the reader's expectation has an important impact on the revising process, and the social context of writing. Similarly, in Nystrand's (1989) socio-interactive model, the text is defined as a social construct formed not only by the writer but also by both the writer and the reader, unlike the cognitive models that describe writing from a cognitive perspective. In other words, the text has meaning to the extent that the reader realizes potential meanings beyond the author's presentation of the author's purpose. In such models, the interaction between the writer and the reader is discussed, and the writing process's social aspect are emphasized. Therefore, it can be concluded that socio-cognitive models discuss the writing process on a behavioral, environmental, and emotional axis by excluding it from the cognitive theory delimits it to the mind (Atasoy, 2021).

Sociocultural models, on the other hand, emphasize the cultural as well as the social aspect of writing. Although the practice of writing to participate in social situations and establish relationships with readers through writing emphasizes the social aspect of writing,

the educational philosophy followed in the country, and the school's creation of a writing environment (Bazerman, 2016) emphasizes the cultural context of writing. Graham's (2018) model, which incorporates cognitive and sociocultural perspectives, is built on two basic structures: the writing community, and writers with their collaborators. Hence, in this model, writing society and its constituent elements are defined. Writing community in this context refers to a group of people who share a basic set of goals and ideas and use writing to fulfill their goals. The elements that constitute the writing society are collective history, social, cultural, political, institutional, and historical forces. Writing skills of a society are shaped by the collective history of that particular society. In other words, every society has shared subconscious codes for writing. These subconscious codes shape how we perceive writing, the value we place on writing, our motivation to write, and in short, the relationship we have with writing.

Literature Review

It seems that the perspective on writing skills is in constant development and transformation with the writing studies, based on the available literature. Therefore, it is crucial to reveal such changes in order to comprehend the current status of Writing Education Studies, and to gain a perspective on design of the future studies. In fact, there have been many studies revealing the overview of Writing Education Studies (Coşkun, Balçı, & Özçakmak, 2013; Cremin & Oliver, 2017; Durst, 1990; Ekholm, Zumbrunn, & DeBusk-Lane, 2018; Haswell, 2005; Juzwik et al., 2006; Kucirkova, Wells Rowe, Oliver, & Piestrzynski, 2019; Sala Bubare & Castello, 2018). The present study, considers the Durst (1990) and Juzwik et al.'s (2006) systematic review of Writing Education Studies.

Durst (1990) analyzed subject, sample, and results of experimental writing studies in the five-year period, from 1984 to 1989. Juzwik et al. (2006), on the other hand, analyzed the Writing Education Studies published in the six-year period, from 1999 to 2004 with the focus on subject, sample, and method. The present study, in certain aspects, complements both Durst (1990) and Juzwik et al. Durst (1990) analyzed the Writing Education Studies prepared only with a certain method in the last five years of the 1980s regarding the context, subject, and sample; on the other hand, Juzwik et al. (2006) analyzed Writing Education Studies published in the first five years of the 2000s and analyzed them based on subject, sample, and method of research. However, in the present study, Writing Education Studies from 2010 to 2020 were analyzed with reference to the categories of purpose, sample/study group, language, method, data collection tool, and data analysis method preceded by the bibliometric data analysis. Therefore, not only does the study focus on an inclusive range of studies in terms of revealing the overview in the last decade compared to the studies by Durst (1990) and Juzwik et al. (2006), but also it aims at providing in-depth data by discussing more factors and presents the current state of Writing Education Studies. Furthermore, the present study also identifies the three journals with the highest impact factor publishing studies on writing and aims to provide a holistic and international context regarding Writing Education Studies. Hence, the study is expected to reveal the state of writing education studies in the recent past and to provide insights for future studies. However, the present study has some limitations. In the study, articles published in journals directly focusing on

writing education were preferred since they were considered to have more publications related to writing education. Although this enabled ease and depth in accessing publications on writing education, it led the writings on education studies published in other journals to be excluded from the present study. Consequently, the study is limited to articles published in *Reading and Writing*, *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, and *Journal of Writing Research*. The primary objective of the study is to reveal the overview of Writing Education Studies published in the last decade. The sub-objectives determined based on this main objective are as follows:

1. Determining the distribution of Writing Education Studies published in the last decade in terms of journals, years, countries, and number of citations.

2. Determining the distribution of Writing Education Studies published in the last decade in terms of purpose, sample/study group, language, method, data collection tools, and data analysis methods.

Method

A journal-oriented approach was adopted in the present study. Therefore, in the data collection phase, it was aimed to determine the journals that publish on writing education and have the highest impact factor. In order to achieve this, data on the impact factor of journals were obtained from different sources. In this regard, first of all, the five journals with the highest article impact factor on writing education in the TUBITAK (Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye) and UBYT (International Scientific Publications Incentive) Journal list were detected. These journals and impact factor scores are respectively as follows: *Journal of Second Language Writing* (1,213), *Reading and Writing* (0,868), *Assessing writing* (0,579), and *Reading and Writing Quarterly* (0,391). Since there was no fifth journal on writing education in the TUBITAK UBYT Journal list, the number of journals under this category was determined as four. Subsequently, the journals with the highest impact factor on writing education in SCOPUS were analyzed. These journals and their citation scores are as follows: *Journal of Second Language Writing* (5,0), *Assessing writing* (3,6), *Reading and Writing* (3,3), *Journal of Writing Research* (2,2) and *Reading and Writing Quarterly* (1,8). Finally, the journals with the highest impact factor in the Web of Science database were analyzed and it was determined that these journals were the *Journal of Second Language Writing* (4.200), *Reading and Writing* (1.942), *Assessing writing* (1.841) and *Reading and Writing Quarterly* (0.934), respectively.

Table 1. TUBITAK, SCOPUS, and Web of Science Scores of the Reviewed Journals

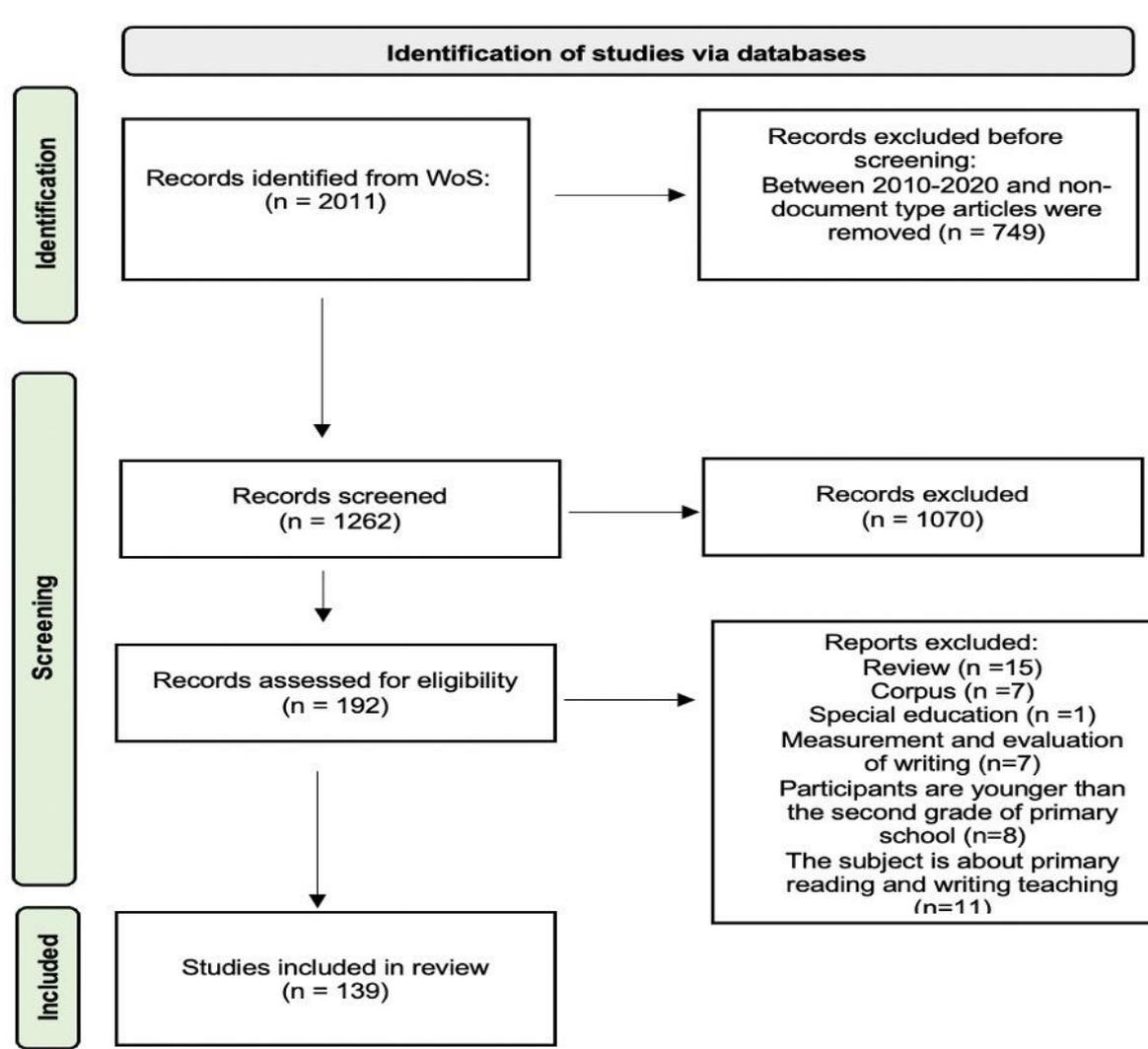
Journal Title	TUBITAK	SCOPUS	WoS
1. <i>Reading and Writing</i>	0,868	3.3	1,942
2. <i>Reading and Writing Quarterly</i>	0,391	1.8	0,934
3. <i>Journal of Writing Research</i>	-	2.2	-

The score of the *Journal of Writing Research* could not be found in the TUBITAK UBYT journal list and Web of Science database. Although the *Journal of Second Language*

Writing had the highest effectiveness of all the databases analyzed, it was excluded from the study as its focus was on second language writing studies, which would result in bias when creating the codes. Consequently, the journals to be analyzed were determined as shown in Table 1.

Following the determination of the journals to be analyzed, the necessary limitations were applied to the Web of Science database. The flow chart regarding the selection and elimination process of the analyzed studies is presented in the table below.

Figure 1. Flow Chart on the Selection and Elimination Process of the Studies Analyzed in the Study



The articles were limited to 2010-2020 in terms of publication year and articles limited to the document. As a result, 749 articles belonging to three journals indexed in Web of Science in the last decade were detected. Subsequently, the titles, keywords, abstracts, and full texts of the articles were studied, and the relevant ones were selected. The articles directly related to the fields of reading education, primary literacy education, pre-school education, and special education were excluded. As a result of the considerations carried out, 136 articles were included as the review material of the study.

Data Analysis

In the present study, which aims to reveal the overview of the studies published in the last decade (2010-2020) on writing education, two stages were followed while analyzing the data. The first of these stages is the bibliometric analysis and the second is content analysis. Descriptive statistics of the Web of Science database were utilized in the bibliometric analysis. Six categories were identified for content analysis: objective, sample/study group, language, method, data collection tool, and data analysis method. An example coding table is presented below.

Table 2. Categories and examples identified in the studies analyzed within the scope of the study

Category	Examples
Objective	The effect of the intervention on writing skills
Sample/Study group	Middle school
Language	Native Language
Method	Mixed
Data collection tool	Questionnaire, interview
Data Analysis Method	Descriptive analysis, thematic coding, ANOVA

During the content analysis, the researcher and a field expert analyzed 10 articles independently in line with the categories they determined with a consensus. The researcher and a field expert discussed the incompatible codes and continued coding until they reached a consensus. When the codes were compatible, the researcher continued the coding personally.

Among the studies analyzed within the scope of the study, those directly related to the fields of reading education, primary literacy education, pre-school education, and special education were excluded. However, the studies conducted with 1st and 2nd graders were excluded from the analysis, whereas the studies including 3rd and 4th graders were included. This is due to the fact that at the first and second grade levels, basic writing activities are generally carried out, whereas, at the 3rd and 4th-grade levels, text composing activities are performed. In the sample/study groups of the studies conducted with both students at a specific grade level and their teachers, students' grade levels and teachers were marked together. Similarly, for example, the sample/study group of the studies conducted on students in all grade levels from 4th to 10th grade are marked as primary, middle, and high school.

Research Ethics

Throughout the process, from planning to execution, and from data collection to data analysis, all the rules specified to be followed within the scope of the "Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directive of the Council of Higher Education" were strictly followed. None of the actions specified under the second section of the Directive, "Actions Contrary to Scientific Research and Publication Ethics", have been performed.

In the writing process of the present study, scientific, ethical, and citation rules were observed; no falsification was made on the collected data and the study was not sent to any other academic publication medium for evaluation.

Findings

The data obtained in the study are presented under two major headings. The first heading is findings related to bibliometric data and the second part is related to content analysis.

Bibliometric findings on the overview of Writing Education Studies in the last decade

Bibliometric findings on the overview of Writing Education Studies in the last decade are discussed under the headings of findings on the number of publications by journal, year, country, and the most cited publications.

Findings on the number of publications by journal

Findings on the number of publications by the journal are presented in Table 3. The number of publications between 2010 and 2020 on the three journals analyzed in this context is presented in the table below.

Table 3. The Distribution of Publications by Year

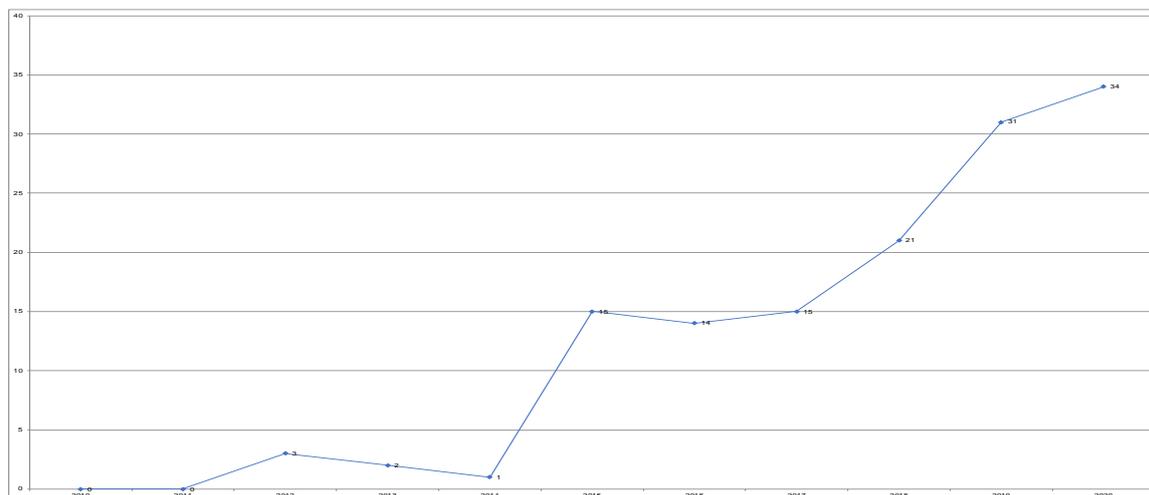
Journal Title	Number of Articles by Year												Total
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20		
1. Reading and Writing	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	2	3	7	22	41	
2. Reading and Writing Quarterly	0	0	3	1	0	4	1	6	8	13	3	39	
3. Journal of Writing Research	0	0	0	0	0	9	10	7	10	11	9	56	
Total	0	0	3	2	1	15	14	15	21	31	34	136	

According to Table 3, 136 articles were detected in Reading and Writing, Reading and Writing Quarterly, and Journal of Writing Research journals indexed in Web of Science in the field of writing education between 2010 and 2020. Among these articles, 41 were published in Reading and Writing, 39 in Reading and Writing Quarterly, and 56 in the Journal of Writing Research. Furthermore, there were no articles on writing education in Reading and Writing in 2010, 2011, and 2012. In 2013 and 2014, one article each, in 2015, two, in 2016, three, in 2017, two, in 2018, three, in 2019, seven, and, in 2020, twenty-two articles were published. There were no articles on writing education in Reading and Writing Quarterly in 2010, 2011, and 2014. In 2012, three, in 2013, one, in 2015, four, in 2016, one, in 2017, six, in 2018, eight, in 2019 thirteen, and in 2020, three articles were published. In the Journal of Writing Research, the number of articles by year is as follows: No articles were detected in 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014. In 2015, nine, in 2016, ten, in 2017, seven, in 2018, ten, in 2019, eleven, and in 2020, nine articles were published.

Findings on the number of publications by year

The number of publications by year is presented in Figure 2. In general, it is possible to state that there has been an upward trend from 2010 to 2020. The number of publications has increased considerably compared to previous years, especially in 2015 onwards.

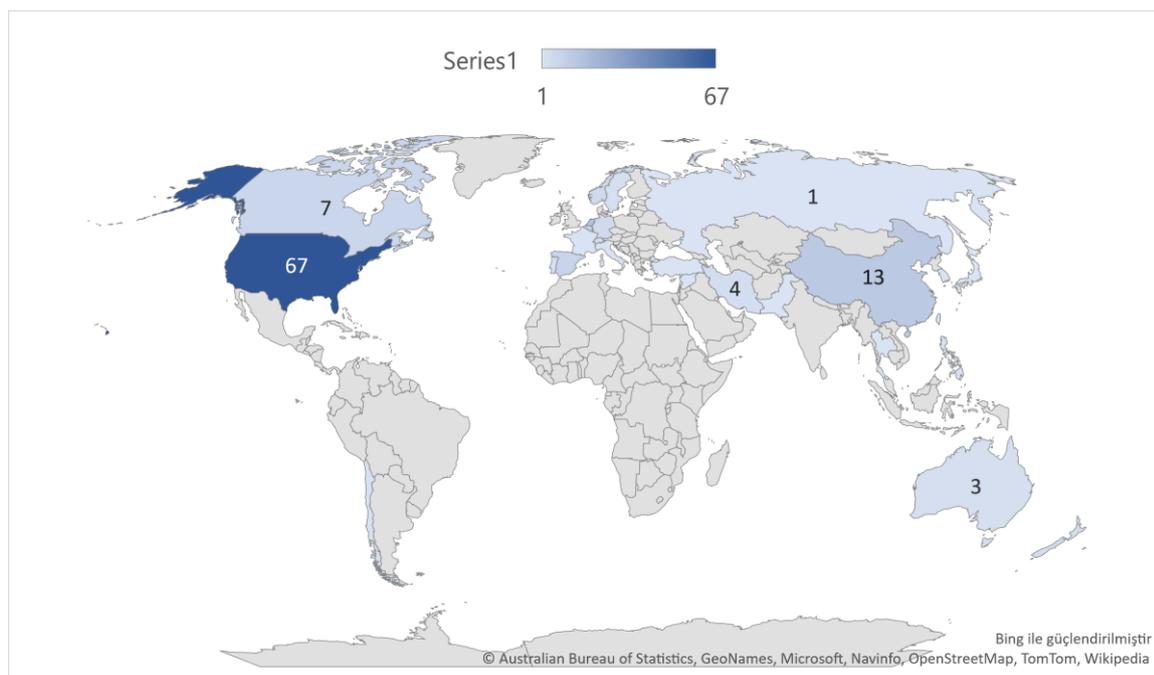
Figure 2. Number of publications by year



No publications were detected in 2010 and 2011. Three articles were published in 2012, two in 2013, one in 2014, fifteen in 2015, fourteen in 2016, fifteen in 2017, twenty-one in 2018, thirty-one in 2019, and thirty-four in 2020. It is noteworthy that there has been an increase in the number of publications from 2010 to 2020.

Findings on the number of publications by country

The number of publications by country is presented in the figure below. The distribution of publications analyzed in this manner is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Number of Publications by Country

According to Figure 3, researchers from 27 different countries have published in the analyzed journals in the last decade. These countries are the USA (67), Netherlands (16), China (13), Belgium (9), Spain (8), Canada (7), UK (6), Germany (5), Norway (5), Switzerland (5), Iran (4), New Zealand (4), Australia (3), Portugal (3), Sweden (3), Taiwan (3), Chile (2), Philippines (2), France (1), Italy (1), Japan (1), Pakistan (1), Russia (1), South Korea (1), Syria (1), Thailand (1) and Türkiye (1). The country with the highest number of publications is the USA (67). The countries with the fewest publications are Italy (1), Japan (1), Pakistan (1), Russia (1), South Korea (1), Syria (1), Thailand (1), and Türkiye (1).

Findings on the most cited publications

In Table 4, the fifteen most cited articles among the 136 studies are presented with year, journal, author, title and citation information.

Table 4. Most Cited Articles

Year	Journal	Author	Title	Citation
2016	RW	Dockrell, J., E.; Marshall, C. R. & W., Dominic	Teachers' reported practices for teaching writing in England	35
2015	JoWR	Martinez, I., Mateos, M., Martin, E. & Rijlaarsdam, G.	Learning history by composing synthesis texts: Effects of an instructional program on learning, reading and writing processes, and text quality	31

2017	JoWR	Limpo, T. & Alves, R. A.	Relating Beliefs in Writing Skill Malleability to Writing Performance: The Mediating Role of Achievement Goals and Self-Efficacy	26
2015	JoWR	Mangen, A., Anda, L. G., Oxborough, G. H. & Bronnack, K.	Handwriting versus Keyboard Writing: Effect on Word Recall	22
2017	JoWR	Garcia, A. & Gaddes, A.	Improving Writing in Primary Schools through a Comprehensive Writing Program	20
2012	RWQ	Medimorec, S. & Risko, E. F.	Weaving Language and Culture: Latina Adolescent Writers in an After-School Writing Project	19
2017	RW	Bai, B. & Guo, W.	Pauses in written composition: on the importance of where writers pause	18
2018	RWQ	Kim, Y. G., Petscher, Y., Wanzek, J. & Al Otaiba, S.	Influences of Self-Regulated Learning Strategy Use on Self-Efficacy in Primary School Students' English Writing in Hong Kong	17
2018	RW	Crossley, S. H., & McNamara, D. S.	Relations between reading and writing: a longitudinal examination from grades 3 to 6	17
2016	JoWR	Van Drie, J., Braaksma, M. & Van Boxtel, C.	Say more and be more coherent: How text elaboration and cohesion can increase writing quality	17
2015	JoWR	Drijbooms, E., Groen, M. A. & Verhoeven, L.	Writing in History: Effects of writing instruction on historical reasoning and text quality	17
2017	RW	Huang, Y. & Zhang, L. J.	How executive functions predict development in syntactic complexity of narrative writing in the upper elementary grades	16
2020	RWQ	Vandermeulen, N., Leijten, M. & Van Waes, L.	Does a Process-Genre Approach Help Improve Students' Argumentative Writing in English as a Foreign Language? Findings From an Intervention Study	15
2020	JoWR	Schoonen, R.	Reporting Writing Process Feedback in the Classroom Using Keystroke Logging Data to Reflect on Writing Processes	14
2019	RW	Drijbooms, E. Groen, M. A. & Verhoeven, L.	Are reading and writing building on the same skills? The relationship between reading and writing in L1 and EFL	14

According to Table 4, one of the most cited studies belongs to 2012, three to 2015, two to 2016, four to 2017, two to 2018, one to 2019, and two to 2020. In addition, seven of

the top fifteen most cited studies were published in the Journal of Writing Research, five in Reading and Writing, and three in Reading and Writing Quarterly.

Content analysis findings on the overview of Writing Education Studies in the last decade

The content analysis findings on the overview of Writing Education Studies in the last decade are discussed under the headings of findings on the aims of the publications, findings on the sample/study groups of the publications, findings on the language variable of the publications, findings on the methods of the publications, findings on the data collection tools of the publications, and findings on the data analysis methods of the publications.

Findings on the objectives of publications

Under this heading, the findings on the objectives of the publications analyzed are presented. In Table 5, the codes created for the objectives for which Writing Education Studies are conducted are presented.

Table 5. The Distribution of publications by objective

Objective	f
The effect of the intervention on writing	45
The role of different variables in writing	20
The evaluation of writing skills	18
The relationship between writing and other variables	12
Teachers' writing practices	11
The evaluation of the writing process	8
The analysis of affective characteristics oriented to writing	8
The analysis of a case of writing	6
The determination of perceptions on writing	5
The analysis of writing development	3
Total	136

In this context, 10 codes were specified. Among the analyzed studies, forty-five studies were conducted to identify the effect of the intervention on writing, twenty studies on the role of different variables in writing, eighteen studies on the evaluation of writing skills, twelve studies on the relationship between writing and other variables, eleven studies on teachers' writing practices, eight studies on the evaluation of the writing process, eight studies on the analysis of sensory characteristics oriented to writing, six studies on the analysis of an example of writing, five studies on the determination of views on writing, and three studies on the analysis of writing progress.

Findings on the sample/study groups of the publications

Under this heading, the findings on the sample/study groups of the publications analyzed are presented. In Table 6, the types and frequencies of the sample/study group are presented.

Table 6. The Distribution of Publications by Sample/Study Group

Study Group	f
Middle school	44
Undergraduate	40
Primary school	28
High School	27
Teacher	23
Postgraduate	8
Academician	4
Mixed	3
Author	1
Not specified	5
Total	183

Ten codes regarding the sample/study group were specified. Among the studies analyzed, forty-four were conducted with secondary school students, forty with undergraduate students, and twenty-eight with primary school students. In addition, twenty-three of the studies were conducted with teachers, eight with graduate students, four with academics, three with mixed groups, and one with authors. The sample/study group of five evaluated studies was not clearly determined.

Findings on the language variable of the publications

Under this heading, the findings on the language variable of the analyzed publications are presented. In Table 7, the types and frequencies of language elements in the studies are presented.

Table 7. The Distribution of Publications by Language Variable

Language	f
Not Specified	45
L1	43
L2	24
Mixed	24
Total	136

Four codes were identified for the language element. These are native language (L1), second language (L2), mixed, and not specified. According to Table 7, forty-three of the analyzed studies used the native language, twenty-four used the second language, and the

remaining twenty-four used mixed language. In 45 of the 136 studies evaluated, there was no specification for the language variable.

Findings on the methods of the publications

Under this heading, the findings on the designs of the analyzed publications are presented. In Table 8, information about the designs is presented.

Table 8. The Distribution of Publications by Method

Method	f
Not specified	67
Quantitative	44
Experimental	40
Relational	2
Survey	2
Qualitative	15
Case	10
Exploratory	2
Not specified	3
Mixed	10
Embedded design	2
Not specified	8
Total	136

Regarding the designs specified in the publications, 4 codes were identified as quantitative, qualitative, mixed, and not specified. Studies conducted with experimental, relational, and survey designs were categorized as quantitative; studies with case and exploratory designs were categorized as qualitative, and studies conducted with embedded designs were categorized as mixed methods studies. Not specified code was used for studies that did not include any information about the study design. The quantitative method was used in 44, the qualitative method in 15, and the mixed method in 10 of the studies analyzed in this manner. In 67 of the studies, no information about the research design was provided.

Findings on the data collection tools of the publications

Under this heading, the findings on the data collection tools of the publications are presented. In Table 9, the types and frequencies of data collection tools are presented.

Table 9. The Distribution of Publications by Data Collection Tools

Data Collection Tool	f
Student texts	98
Questionnaire	31
Test	27
Interview	24
Scale	23
Task	19

Observation	9
Open-ended questions	9
Document	9
Video recordings	8
Diary	4
Rubric	3
Voice recordings	3
Portfolio	2
Evaluation form	2
Field notes	2
Personal Information Form	2
Other	3
Total	278

Regarding the specified data collection tools, 18 different codes were identified in 136 articles analyzed. Student texts were used in ninety-eight of the analyzed studies, questionnaires in thirty-one, tests in twenty-seven, scales in twenty-three, interviews in twenty-four, tasks in nineteen, observations in nine, open-ended questions in nine, and documents in nine. The other data collection tools used in the studies were eight video recordings, four diaries, three rubrics, three audio recordings, two portfolios, two evaluation forms, two field notes, two personal information forms, and six others.

In the analyzed studies, three data collection tools that were not classified in these categories were coded as “other”. These data collection tools include screenshots, word lists, dictation texts, etc., which cannot be included in the specified categories.

Findings on the data analysis methods of the publications.

Under this heading, the findings on the data analysis methods of the analyzed publications are presented. In Table 10, the methods used in the process of analyzing the data in the studies are presented.

Table 10. The Distribution of Publications by Data Analysis Method

Type	Data Analysis Techniques	f
Comparison	ANOVA	37
	T-Test	10
	ANCOVA	7
	MANOVA	6
	Mann-Whitney U Test	3
	Kruskal Wallis Test	2
	Wilcon Signed-Rank Test	2
Description	Descriptive Statistics	70
	Content analysis	34
	Descriptive Analysis	9
	Chi-Squared Test	9
Relation	Regression	41
	Correlation	38
	Structural Equation Modeling	7
	Factor Analysis	4

Other	6
Total	285

According to Table 10, 16 different codes regarding data analysis methods were identified in 136 studies. These codes were analyzed under the categories of comparison, description, and relation. T-test, ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, Mann Whitney U Test, Kruskal Wallis Test, and Wilcon Signed-Rank test were analyzed under the category of comparison. Descriptive statistics, descriptive analysis, Chi-Squared Test and content analysis were analyzed under the category of description. The codes in the relation category are regression, correlation, factor analysis, and structural equation modeling.

The most frequently used data analysis methods were ANOVA in the comparison category, descriptive statistics and content analysis in the description category, and regression and correlation in the relation category.

In the studies analyzed, 6 data analysis methods were coded as “other”. These are some data analysis methods such as multidimensional scaling analysis and semantic analysis, which have only been used in one study each.

Conclusion and Discussion

The present study aimed at revealing the overview of Writing Education Studies in the last decade (2010-2020). The data were analyzed through bibliometric analysis and content analysis. The findings obtained as a result of bibliometric analyses showed that the journal with the highest number of publications is JoWR (56), the year with the highest number of publications is 2020 (34), the country with the highest number of publications is the USA (67), and the most cited publication is ‘*Teachers’ reported practices for teaching writing in England*’ (35).

One of the findings of the study is that the USA is the country with the highest number of publications. Similar studies (Karagöz & Şeref, 2020; Sala Bubare & Castello, 2018) aiming to reveal the overview of writing education studies have also obtained the same finding. The fact that the USA has the highest number of publications can be explained through several factors. Firstly, there are many US-based researchers on the editorial boards of the journals in the sample, especially Reading and Writing Quarterly and Reading and Writing, which may have led to the development of a common scientific perspective among the researchers. However, it would not be sufficient to explain the current situation in terms of the number of publications only based on this specific factor. Writing studies in the USA started at an early stage. Although Emig’s (1971) systematic study of students’ writing processes is regarded as a significant benchmark in terms of writing studies (Nystrand, 2008), scientific research on writing actually dates back to 1912. So much so that by the 1980s, writing was acknowledged as a separate field of study thanks to the accumulated knowledge of writing skills (Nystrand, 2008). Considering the objectives of graduate education such as deepening, specializing, and gaining research experience in a field, the high number of publications in the USA can also be associated with the fact that the country has the highest number of doctoral graduates and is the most preferred country for international students (Tollefson, 2018).

Another finding of the study is that studies on writing education have increased almost continuously from 2010 to 2020. In some other studies (Kemiksiz, 2021; Sala Bubare & Castello, 2018; Sertoğlu, 2020), it has been revealed that the number of Writing Education Studies has increased in recent times. Although writing skills are used in learning environments to analyze, synthesize and interpret information, it has been regarded as a necessary skill not only for the classroom environment but also for social life, particularly with the ways in which socio-cognitive and sociocultural theories define writing. We use writing for different purposes such as persuasion, creating an imaginary world, having fun, healing our mental problems, and performing many tasks at work (Graham, 2018). In the Common Core State Standards (2010), writing skills are defined in terms of four core practices. These are 1) creating different types of texts for different purposes, 2) producing and sharing well-organized texts through writing processes (planning, editing, revising), 3) constructing knowledge, and 4) facilitating learning in different disciplines (Graham & Harris, 2013). Especially the purposes expressed in the third and fourth practices have moved the boundaries of writing beyond language skills and made it a necessary skill for all disciplines. Writing has been defined as a core competency by UNESCO with its increasing importance (UNESCO, 2017), and in the text of the Turkish Qualifications Framework (2015), which is in line with the European Qualifications Framework, it is specified as written communication under the title of communication in the native language, one of the eight key competencies. Furthermore, it can be argued that the Writing Across Curriculum and Writing Enriched Curriculum movements, which emerged in the USA in the early 1970s (Russell, 2002), have increased the significance and number of writing skills and writing education, and thus the number and significance of writing studies.

In the content analysis, six categories were identified: purpose, sample/study group, language, method, data collection tool, and data analysis method. According to the results obtained, the most frequently identified writing purposes in the studies analyzed within the scope of the present study were the effect of the intervention on writing (45), the role of different variables in writing (20), and the evaluation of writing skills (18). Sala Bubare and Castello (2018), in their study analyzing writing education studies conducted with the experimental method in the last 20 years, explained the objectives of the analyzed studies with three codes: “writing process, intervention, beliefs, and perceptions”. According to the results of this study, the most frequently studied topics in writing education are social context and writing practices, bilingualism or multilingualism, and writing instruction, while the least frequently studied topics are writing technologies, measurement, assessment of writing, and the relations between literacy methods. In Durst’s (1990) study, the five most studied topics were writing education, writing process, text structure, writing environment, and the evaluation of writing skills. It is evident that there are some common features between the objectives of the Writing Education Studies analyzed in the present study and the objectives of the aforementioned studies.

The finding obtained from the objective variable of the present study could also be analyzed with the data of the method category. One of the significant findings of the study is that the method was not defined in most of the studies (67). Among the methods described, quantitative methods were the most common. Similar results have been found in some

studies that reveal the overview of Writing Studies (Göksu, 2016; Karaoğlu, 2021; Temizkan & Erdevir, 2020). In this respect, it is observed that there is a relation between the selection of objective and method in the studies examined. According to the study results of Juzwik et al. (2006), the most frequently used methods in writing education studies were discourse analysis, interpretive methods, experimental/semi-experimental, correlational, historical, and single-subject research methods. Interpretative methods were interviews, focus or discussion groups, observation, case study, ethnography, error analysis, content analysis, thematic analysis, and meaning analysis. According to the results of the present study, Writing Education Studies are still under the influence of quantitative methods. The reason for this phenomenon might be the accumulation of quantitative methods in the field, which have dominated educational studies for many years.

One of the noteworthy results regarding the method in the Writing Education Studies analyzed is that while the design was specified in all of the studies conducted with quantitative methods (44) and in 12 of the 15 studies conducted with qualitative methods, the design was not specified in 8 of the 10 studies conducted with mixed methods. In some of the studies analyzed (Guo & Barrot, 2019; Mason, Meadan, Hedin, & Cramer, 2012), the mixed method is referred to as a combination of quantitative and qualitative study designs rather than the method's own designs. Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that the mixed study method has its own designs such as convergent, exploratory, exploratory, nested, transformative, and multi-stage (Creswell and Plano Clark; 2011). This phenomenon can be explained by the change in the concept of mixed study methods over time. In fact, in the past, the definition of mixed methods studies, which refers to the use of more than one qualitative or more than one quantitative method together and is indicated by the concept of multiple methods, does not comply with the current definition of mixed methods studies (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018 as cited in Toraman, 2021).

The most frequently studied groups in the analyzed Writing Education Studies were middle school students (44), undergraduate students (40), and primary school students (28), respectively. Similar studies have obtained data similar to this result (Coşkun et al., 2013; Durst, 1990; Juzwik et al., 2006; Kemiksiz, 2021; Tok & Potur, 2015). In Durst's (1990) study, for example, the most frequently studied sample groups were undergraduate, primary school, and middle/high school students, respectively. In Coşkun et al.'s (2013) study, the most frequently studied group was primary and middle school students; in Juzwik et al.'s (2006) study, the most frequently studied groups were undergraduate, adult and post-middle school students and the least frequently studied group was pre-school students. The common conclusion to be obtained from the aforementioned studies is that the most studied groups are middle school, primary school, and undergraduate students. Writing is a skill acquired with the schooling process. In the first two years of primary school, the focus is on the acquisition of basic writing skills, while in the following years the emphasis is on basic text composition. At the middle school level, writing activities are organized around different genres and purposes. Therefore, it can be stated that writing is one of the most highly emphasized skills along with reading at primary and middle school levels. The fact that primary and middle school students were predominantly selected in the studies analyzed can be attributed to this ground. Along with primary and middle school students, another group

studied was undergraduate students. One reason might be that it is simpler to collect data from undergraduate students; another reason might be that writing has become a core skill in US colleges and universities through Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) and Writing Enriched Programs (WEC). Combined with these two movements, the skill of writing was regarded as an essential tool in the learning of other disciplines.

In the studies, student texts (98), questionnaires (31), tests (27), interview forms (24), scales (23), and tasks (19) were mostly used as data collection tools. The result obtained in the present study is in line with the objective and method selection identified in the analyzed studies. The most frequently used data collection tools are quantitative data collection tools such as questionnaires, tests, and scales. Additionally, interview forms, observations, open-ended questions, and documents were used as data collection tools. It is possible to speculate that these data collection tools are chosen particularly in qualitative and mixed studies. There are three approaches to writing education: text-, writer-, and reader-oriented. In the text-oriented approach, texts are treated independently of their contexts, authors, and readers, whereas in the author-oriented approach, writing is handled in the context of the author's mental process. In the reader-centered approach, the writer creates his/her text to interact with others and writing is an interactive process between the writer and the reader (Hyland, 2009). In this context, it can be argued that the writer-oriented approach is based on cognitive theory in that it focuses on the writer's mind in the writing process, whereas the reader-oriented approach is based on sociocultural theory in that it draws attention to the communication between the author and the reader. The fact that the most commonly used data collection tool in the analyzed studies was texts can be interpreted in the context of the product-oriented evaluation of writing skills. However, although not as much as student texts, questionnaires, and scales, the fact that interview forms are also utilized as data collection tools is an indication that writing skills are attempted to be explained with cognitive and sociocultural perspectives but remain limited.

When data analysis methods are reviewed, it is evident that the collected data were analyzed with methods such as descriptive statistics (70), regression (41), correlation (38), ANOVA (37), and content analysis (34). This result can be interpreted along with the dominant view of quantitative methods discussed under the headings of purpose, method, and data collection tools. In studies where quantitative methods are frequently used in terms of purpose, method, and data collection tools, data analysis methods are also quantitative.

Recommendations

Based on the results obtained from the present study and discussed above, the following suggestions were provided to the researchers.

1. In the present study, a journal-oriented approach was adopted. In future studies, the overview of Writing Education Studies can be revealed by performing scans around certain key concepts.
2. In the present study, Writing Education Studies conducted chiefly in the field of language education have been analyzed, but there are also some writing education studies conducted in other disciplines. Studies in which writing skills are used only as a learning tool in other disciplines can also be analyzed.

3. It is clear that quantitative methods are dominant in Writing Education Studies, whereas qualitative and mixed methods studies are more limited than quantitative methods. Although writing skills are explained by socio-cognitive and sociocultural models, it is recognized that there are many psychological and cultural factors that influence writing skills. Such factors can be identified through qualitative and mixed study methods. Therefore, ethnographic, phenomenological and narrative studies can be conducted to provide methodological diversity in writing education studies.
4. In the studies analyzed, it was observed that the most studied groups were middle school, undergraduate, and primary school students. More limited studies have been conducted with graduate students, academics, and authors. Studies can be conducted with people in this group, who are expected to make valuable contributions to the understanding of writing skills and who may be more experienced in terms of writing skills.
5. In the writing studies examined, it was noted that instruments such as texts, questionnaires, tests, interview forms, and scales were used as data collection tools. It is assumed that more frequent use of alternative tools such as diaries, student product files, etc. in future studies will contribute to the multidimensional explanation of writing skills. Hence, alternative process-oriented data collection tools can be employed in the writing studies to be conducted.

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Dil Eğitimi ve Araştırmaları Dergisi

Araştırma Makalesi

Yazma Öğretimi Araştırmalarının Son On Yılı (2010-2020): Sistematik Bir İnceleme

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MAKALE BİLGİSİ

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ÖZET

Bu araştırmanın amacı, yazma öğretimi çalışmalarının son on yıldaki (2010-2020) görünümünü ortaya koymaktır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda yazma öğretimi üzerine yayın yapan ve etki değerleri en yüksek olan Reading and Writing, Reading and Writing Quarterly ve Journal of Writing Research dergilerinde son on yılda yayımlanmış olan 136 çalışma belirlenen kategoriler etrafında incelenmiştir. Analizler bibliyometrik analiz ve içerik analizi yoluyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgulardan bazıları en fazla yayına sahip olan ülkenin ABD; en çok çalışılan konunun müdahalenin yazmaya etkisi; en sık çalışılan grubun ortaokul olduğu şeklindedir. Araştırmaların büyük bir kısmında yöntem tanımlanmamıştır. Tanımlanan yöntemler içinde en sık olanı nicel yöntemlerdir. Veriler en çok öğrenci metinleri ile toplanmış ve en sık kullanılan veri analiz yöntemi betimsel istatistik olmuştur. Ulaşılan sonuçlar neticesinde bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Bilgilendirme

Yayın Etiği Bilgilendirme
Yazarların Katkı Oranı

Bu çalışma bilimsel yayın etiğine uygun olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir.
Bu araştırmanın tüm aşamalarını araştırmacının kendisi yürütmüştür.

Çıkar çatışması

Bu araştırmada herhangi bir çıkar çatışması bulunmamaktadır.

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Giriş

Günümüze değin yazma becerisine yönelik pek çok araştırma yapılmıştır. Yapılan bilimsel araştırmalar yazma becerisinin tanımlanması, anlaşılması ve geliştirilmesinde kritik bir görev üstlenmiştir. Öyle ki psikoloji bilimindeki gelişmelere paralel olarak ilerleyen yazma öğretimi araştırmaları, zaman içinde yazma becerisinin farklı bakış açıları ile değerlendirilmesini sağlamıştır.

Davranışçı psikolojinin teorik ve yöntemsel sınırlılıklarının daha belirgin hâle gelmesiyle birlikte 1950’li yıllarda bilişsel psikoloji, önemli bir araştırma alanı olarak ortaya çıkmıştır (MacArthur ve Graham, 2016). Bu dönemde Miller’in (1956) “Sihirli Sayı Yedi: Artı veya Eksi İki (Bilgi İşleme Kapasitemizin Bazı Sınırları)” isimli makalesi ile Bruner Goodnow ve Austin’in (1956) “Düşünme Üzerine Bir Çalışma” adlı kitapları yazma modellerinin gelişimi açısından önemli bir yer teşkil etmektedir. Öyle ki Miller’in (1956) belleğin işleme süreçlerini ele aldığı makalesi ile Bruner vd.’nin (1956) katılımcıların problem çözme süreçlerini sesli düşünme yöntemiyle analiz ettikleri araştırma, Hayes ve Flower’ın (1980) bilişsel teori bağlamında ortaya koydukları yazma modelini şekillendiren iki önemli çalışma olarak düşünülmektedir (MacArthur ve Graham, 2016). Hayes ve Flower’ın (1980) yazma sürecini açıklamaya yönelik olarak ortaya koydukları bilişsel yazma modelinde belleğe vurgu yapılmış ve sesli düşünme yöntemi (thinking aloud protocol) uygulanmıştır. Hayes ve Flower’ın modeli (1980) ve sonrasında ortaya konan pek çok bilişsel yazma modeli (Bereiter ve Scardamalia, 1987; Sharples, 1999), yazma becerisini zihinde gerçekleşen problem çözme süreci çerçevesinde açıklamıştır. Bilişsel yazma modelleri, yazma süreci boyunca zihinde gerçekleşen işlemleri, bu işlemlerin sırasını, yazarın bu işlemlere verdiği yanıtları ortaya koymuştur. Fakat zaman içinde yazmayı bilişsel perspektiften inceleyen modellere psikoloji bilimindeki gelişmelere de bağlı olarak yeni modeller eklenmiştir. Bunlar genel olarak sosyo bilişsel ve sosyokültürel yazma modelleridir.

Sosyo bilişsel modeller, yazmanın sosyal yönünü vurgulamışlardır. Öyle ki Shaughnessy (1977) yazmayı doğrudan “sosyal bir eylem” olarak tanımlamıştır. Ortaya konan bazı düzenleme (revision) modellerinde (Bridwell, 1980; Sommers, 1980) yazarın metni ile okurun beklentisi arasındaki farkın, düzenleme sürecindeki etkisine değinilerek yazmanın sosyal bağlamına dikkat çekilmiştir. Yine Nystrand’ın (1989) sosyo-interaktif modelinde metin, yazmayı bilişsel perspektiften açıklayan bilişsel modellerdekinin aksine sadece yazar tarafından değil, yazar ve okur tarafından oluşturulan sosyal bir yapı olarak tanımlanmıştır. Diğer bir deyişle metin, yazarın amacını sunmasının ötesinde okuyucunun potansiyel anlamları fark etmesi ölçüsünde bir anlama sahiptir. Bu modellerde yazar ile okur arasındaki etkileşimden bahsedilerek yazma sürecinin sosyal boyutuna değinilmiştir. Dolayısıyla sosyo bilişsel modellerin yazma sürecini, onu zihnin içine hapseden bilişsel teoriden çıkararak davranışsal, çevresel ve duygusal bir eksende tartıştığı (Atasoy, 2021) söylenebilir.

Sosyokültürel modeller ise yazmanın sosyal yönünü olduğu kadar kültürel boyutunu da vurgulamışlardır. Yazmanın sosyal durumlara katılmak için gerçekleştirilmesi, yazma aracılığıyla okuyucularla ilişki kurulması yazmanın sosyal yönüne vurgu yaparken, ülkede uygulanan eğitim felsefesi, okulun yazma çevresi oluşturması (Bazerman, 2016) gibi durumlar onun kültürel bağlamını öne çıkarır. Graham'ın (2018) bilişsel ve sosyokültürel bakış açılarını birleştirerek ortaya koyduğu model, yazma toplumu (writing community) ile yazarlar ve ortakları (writers and their collaborators) olmak üzere iki temel yapı üzerine inşa edilmiştir. Yani bu modelde yazma toplumu ve bu toplumu oluşturan ögeler tanımlanmıştır. Buradaki yazma toplumu, temel birtakım amaç ve düşünceleri paylaşan ve yazmayı amaçlarını gerçekleştirmek için kullanan bir grup insanı ifade eder. Yazma toplumunu oluşturan ögeler ise kolektif tarih (collective history), sosyal, kültürel, politik, kurumsal ve tarihsel güçler (social, cultural, political, institutional and historical forces) şeklindedir. Bir toplumda yazma becerisi, o toplumun ortak geçmişi aracılığı ile şekillenir. Yani bir bakıma her toplumun yazmaya yönelik ortak bilinçaltı kodları vardır. İşte bu bilinçaltı kodlar yazmayı nasıl algıladığımızı, yazmaya verdiğimiz değeri, yazma motivasyonumuzu kısaca yazma ile kurduğumuz ilişkiyi belirler.

Literatür İncelemesi

Yukarıda bahsedilenlerden yola çıkarak yazma becerisine ilişkin bakış açısının yapılan yazma araştırmaları ile sürekli bir gelişim ve dönüşüm içerisinde olduğu söylenebilir. Dolayısıyla bu değişimleri ortaya koymak hem yazma öğretimi araştırmalarının geldiği noktayı anlayabilmek hem de gelecekteki araştırmaların tasarlanmasına yönelik bir bakış açısı kazanmak bakımından önemlidir. Öyle ki yazma öğretimi araştırmalarının görünümünü ortaya koyan pek çok çalışma yapılmıştır (Coşkun, Balcı ve Özçakmak, 2013; Cremin ve Oliver, 2017; Durst, 1990; Ekholm, Zumbunn ve DeBusk-Lane, 2018; Haswell, 2005; Juzwik vd., 2006; Kucirkova, Wells Rowe, Oliver ve Piestrzynski, 2019; Sala Bubare ve Castello, 2018). Bu araştırma kapsamında Durst (1990) ve Juzwik vd.'nin (2006) yazma öğretimi araştırmalarını sistematik derleme yoluyla inceleyen çalışmaları özellikle önemli görülmektedir.

Durst (1990), 1984-1989 yılları arasındaki beş yıllık dönemde deneysel desenle hazırlanmış yazma çalışmalarını konu, örneklem ve sonuçlarına göre değerlendirmiştir. Juzwik vd. (2006) ise 1999-2004 yılları arasındaki altı yıllık dönemde yayımlanmış olan yazma öğretimi araştırmalarını konu, örneklem ve yöntem başlıkları altında değerlendirmişlerdir. Bu araştırmanın, hem Durst (1990) hem de Juzwik vd.'nin (2006) çalışmalarını tamamlayıcı bazı yönleri bulunmaktadır. Örneğin Durst (1990) 80'lerin son beş yılına denk gelen dönemde sadece belli bir yöntemle hazırlanmış yazma öğretimi çalışmalarını konu ve örneklem bağlamında; Juzwik vd. (2006) 2000'lerin ilk beş yılında yayımlanmış yazma öğretimi araştırmalarını konu, örneklem ve yöntem başlıkları altında incelemiştir. Bu çalışmada ise 2010-2020 aralığındaki yazma öğretimi araştırmaları bibliyometrik verilerin ötesinde amaç, örneklem/çalışma grubu, dil, yöntem, veri toplama aracı ve veri analiz yöntemi kategorileri referans alınarak analiz edilmiştir. Dolayısıyla bu araştırma Durst (1990) ve Juzwik vd.'nin (2006) çalışmalarına göre son on yıllık dönemdeki

görünümü ortaya koyması açısından hem daha geniş bir aralıktaki çalışmalara odaklanmakta hem daha fazla değişkeni referans alarak derinlemesine bir veri sunmayı amaçlamakta hem de yazma öğretimi araştırmalarının güncel durumunu sunmaktadır. Bunlarla birlikte bu araştırmada yazma öğretimi üzerine yayın yapan etki değeri en yüksek üç dergi belirlenerek yazma öğretimi çalışmaları bütüncül ve uluslararası bir bağlamda ele alınmaya çalışılmıştır. Dolayısıyla bu araştırmanın yazma öğretimi araştırmalarının yakın geçmişteki durumunu ortaya koyması, gelecekte yapılacak çalışmalar için öngörü oluşturması beklenmektedir. Bununla birlikte bu araştırmanın bazı sınırlılıkları bulunmaktadır. Araştırmada, yazma öğretimi ile ilgili daha fazla yayına sahip olacağı düşüncesiyle doğrudan yazma öğretimine odaklanan dergilerde yayımlanmış makalelere yönelinmiştir. Bu durum yazma öğretimi üzerine yapılmış yayınlara ulaşmada kolaylık ve derinlik sağlarken diğer yandan başka dergilerde yayımlanmış olan yazma öğretimi çalışmalarının araştırmaya dâhil edilememesine neden olmuştur. Dolayısıyla bu araştırma Reading and Writing, Reading and Writing Quarterly ve Journal of Writing Research dergilerinde yayımlanmış olan makalelerle sınırlıdır. Bu araştırmanın temel amacı son on yılda yayımlanmış olan yazma öğretimi araştırmalarının görünümünü tespit etmektedir. Bu temel amaca bağlı olarak belirlenen alt amaçlar aşağıdaki gibidir:

1. Son on yılda yayımlanmış olan yazma öğretimi çalışmalarının dergilere, yıllara, ülkelere ve atıf sayılarına göre dağılımlarını tespit etmek,
2. Son on yılda yayımlanmış olan yazma öğretimi çalışmalarının amaç, örneklem/çalışma grubu, dil, yöntem, veri toplama araçları ve veri analiz yöntemlerine göre dağılımlarını tespit etmek.

Yöntem

Bu araştırmada dergi odaklı bir yaklaşım benimsenmiştir. Dolayısıyla verilerin toplanması aşamasında yazma öğretimi üzerine yayın yapan ve etki değeri en yüksek olan dergiler belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Bunun için farklı kaynaklardan, dergilerin etkililiklerine ilişkin verilere ulaşılmıştır. Bu bağlamda öncelikle TÜBİTAK UBYT Programı dergi listesinden yazma öğretimi ile ilgili makale etki puanı (MEP) en yüksek beş dergi saptanmıştır. Bu dergiler ve MEP değerleri sırasıyla Journal of Second Language Writing (1.213), Reading and Writing (0.868), Assessing Writing (0.579), Reading and Writing Quarterly (0.391) şeklindedir. TÜBİTAK UBYT Dergi listesinde yazma öğretimi ile ilgili beşinci bir dergiye rastlanmadığı için bu kategorideki dergi sayısı dört olarak belirlenmiştir. Ardından SCOPUS'ta yazma öğretimi ile ilgili en yüksek etkililiğe sahip olan dergiler incelenmiştir. Bu dergiler ve atıf puanları sırasıyla Journal of Second Language Writing (5.0), Assessing Writing (3.6), Reading and Writing (3.3), Journal of Writing Research (2.2) ve Reading and Writing Quarterly (1.8) şeklindedir. Son olarak Web of Science veri tabanında etki faktörü en yüksek olan dergiler değerlendirilmiş ve bu dergilerin sırasıyla Journal of Second Language Writing (4.200), Reading and Writing (1.942), Assessing Writing (1.841) ve Reading and Writing Quarterly (0.934) şeklinde olduğu görülmüştür.

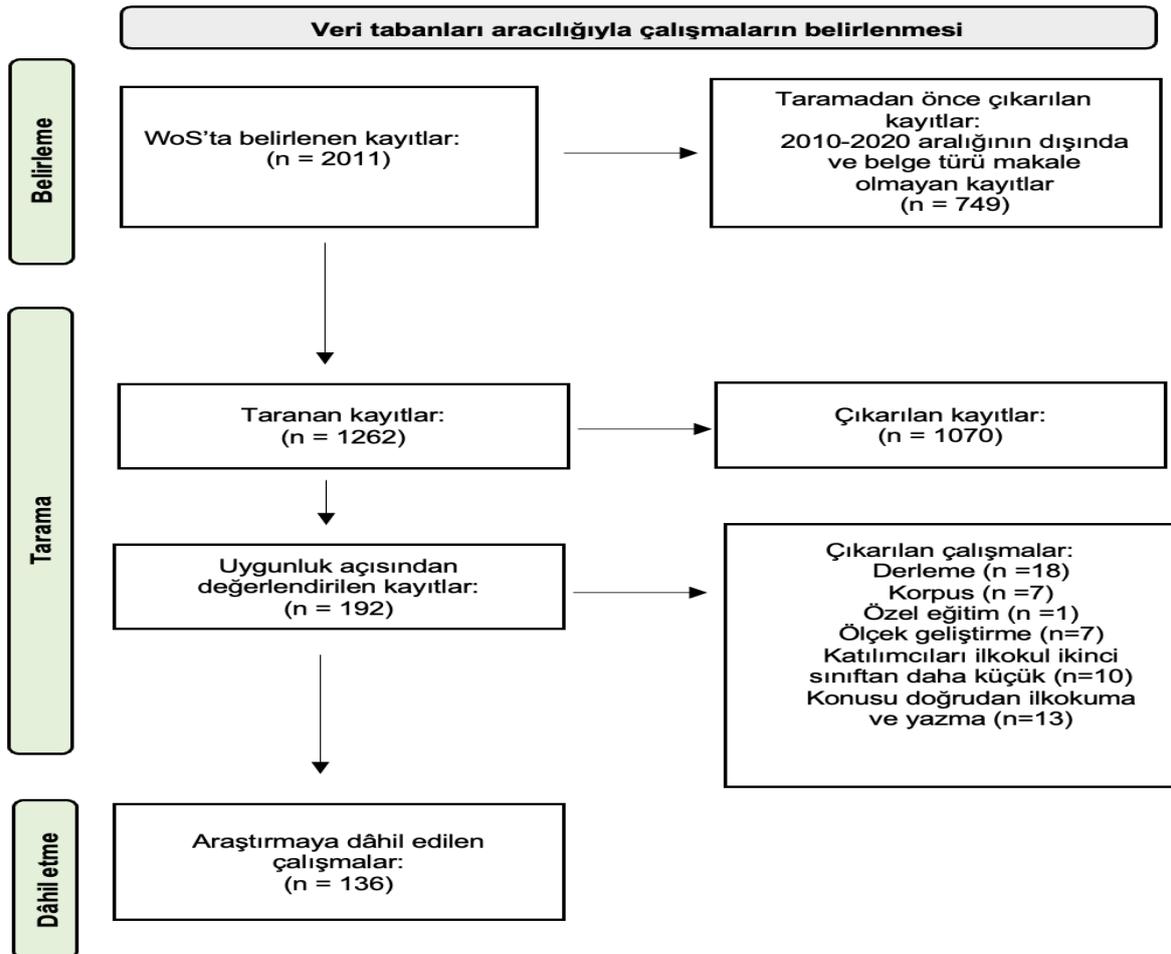
Tablo 1. İncelemeye Alınan Dergilerin TÜBİTAK, SCOPUS ve Web of Science Puanları

Dergi İsmi	TÜBİTAK	SCOPUS	WoS
1. Reading and Writing	0.868	3.3	1.942
2. Reading and Writing Quarterly	0.391	1.8	0.934
3. Journal of Writing Research	-	2.2	-

TÜBİTAK UBYT dergi listesinde ve Web of Science veri tabanında Journal of Writing Research dergisinin puanına ulaşılammıştır. Journal of Second Language Writing dergisi taranan tüm veri tabanlarında en yüksek etkililiğe sahip olmasına rağmen, odağı ikinci dildeki yazma çalışmaları olduğu için kodlar oluşturulurken yanlılığa neden olacağı düşüncesiyle çalışmaya dâhil edilmemiştir. Sonuç olarak taranacak dergilere Tablo 1'deki gibi karar verilmiştir.

İncelemeye alınacak dergilerin belirlenmesinin ardından Web of Science veri tabanında gerekli sınırlandırmalar yapılarak taramalar gerçekleştirilmiştir. Yapılan taramalara, incelenen çalışmaların seçim ve eleme sürecine ilişkin akış aşağıdaki tabloda sunulmuştur.

Şekil 1. Araştırma Kapsamında İncelenen Çalışmaların Seçim ve Eleme Sürecine İlişkin Akış Şeması



Taramalar yayın yılı olarak 2010-2020 yıl aralığıyla, doküman tipi olarak makale ile sınırlandırılmıştır. Yapılan taramalar neticesinde son on yılda Web of Science’de indekslenen üç dergiye ait 749 makale tespit edilmiştir. Ardından makalelerin başlıkları, anahtar kelimeleri, özet bölümleri ve tam metinleri okunarak eleme yoluna gidilmiştir. Yapılan elemelerde doğrudan okuma öğretimi, ilk okuma yazma öğretimi, okul öncesi eğitimi, özel eğitim alanları ile ilgili olan makaleler çıkarılmıştır. Bu şekilde yapılan değerlendirmeler sonucunda 136 makale araştırmanın inceleme materyali olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Verilerin Analizi

Yazma öğretimi ile ilgili son on yılda (2010-2020) yayımlanmış olan çalışmaların görünümünü ortaya koymak amacıyla yapılan bu çalışmada veriler analiz edilirken iki aşama takip edilmiştir. Bu aşamalardan ilki incelenen çalışmaların bibliyometrik analizi, ikincisi ise içerik analizidir. Bibliyometrik analizlerin yapılmasında Web of Science veri tabanının betimsel istatistiklerinden faydalanılmıştır. İçerik analizi için amaç, örneklem/çalışma grubu, dil, yöntem, veri toplama aracı ve veri analiz yöntemi olmak üzere altı kategori belirlenmiştir. Aşağıda örnek kodlama tablosu sunulmuştur.

Tablo 2. Araştırma Kapsamında İncelenen Çalışmalarda Belirlenen Kategoriler ve Örnekleri

Kategori	Örnek
Amaç	Müdahalenin yazma becerisine etkisi
Örneklem/çalışma grubu	Ortaokul
Dil	Ana dili
Yöntem	Karma
Veri toplama aracı	Anket, görüşme
Veri analiz aracı	Betimsel analiz, tematik kodlama, ANOVA

İçerik analizi gerçekleştirilirken araştırmacı ve bir alan uzmanı ortak görüşle belirledikleri kategoriler doğrultusunda 10’ar adet makaleyi birbirlerinden bağımsız olarak değerlendirmişlerdir. Uyumsuz olan kodlar hakkında tartışmışlar ve fikir birliğine varana dek kodlamalara devam etmişlerdir. Uyum sağlanınca araştırmacı kodlamalara kendisi devam etmiştir.

Araştırma kapsamında incelenen çalışmalardan doğrudan okuma öğretimi, ilk okuma yazma öğretimi, okul öncesi eğitimi, özel eğitim alanları ile ilgili olanlar çıkarılmıştır. Bununla birlikte sadece 1 ve 2. sınıflar ile yapılan çalışmalar değerlendirme dışı bırakılırken 3 ve 4. sınıfların dâhil edildiği çalışmalar değerlendirmeye dâhil edilmiştir. Bunun nedeni, 1 ve 2. sınıf düzeyinde genellikle temel yazma çalışmalarının yapılması, 3 ve 4. sınıf seviyelerinde ise artık metin oluşturma çalışmalarına başlanmasıdır. Hem belli bir sınıf seviyesinde yer alan öğrenciler hem de öğretmenleri ile yapılan çalışmaların örneklemine/çalışma gruplarına öğrencilerin sınıf seviyeleri ve öğretmenleri birlikte işaretlenmiştir. Yine örneğin 4. sınıftan 10. sınıfa kadar tüm sınıf kademelerinde yer alan öğrenciler üzerinde yapılan çalışmaların örnekleme/çalışma grubu, ilkokul, ortaokul ve lise olarak işaretlenmiştir.

Araştırma Etiği

Bu araştırmanın planlanmasından, uygulanmasına, verilerin toplanmasından verilerin analizine kadar olan tüm süreçte “Yükseköğretim Kurumları Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Yönergesi” kapsamında uyulması belirtilen tüm kurallara uyulmuştur. Yönergenin ikinci bölümü olan “Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiğine Aykırı Eylemler” başlığı altında belirtilen eylemlerden hiçbiri gerçekleştirilmemiştir.

Bu çalışmanın yazım sürecinde bilimsel, etik ve alıntı kurallarına uyulmuş; toplanan veriler üzerinde herhangi bir tahrifat yapılmamış ve bu çalışma herhangi başka bir akademik yayının ortamına değerlendirme için gönderilmemiştir.

Bulgular

Çalışmada elde edilen veriler iki ana başlık altında sunulmuştur. Bunlar sırasıyla bibliyometrik verilere ilişkin bulgular ve içerik analizine ilişkin bulgular şeklindedir.

Yazma Öğretimi Araştırmalarının Son On Yıldaki Görünümüne İlişkin Bibliyometrik Bulgular

Yazma öğretimi araştırmalarının son on yıldaki görünümüne ilişkin bibliyometrik bulgular dergilere göre yayın sayılarına ilişkin bulgular, yıllara göre yayın sayılarına ilişkin bulgular, ülkelere göre yayın sayılarına ilişkin bulgular, en çok atıf alan yayınlara ilişkin bulgular başlıkları altında ele alınmıştır.

Dergilere göre yayın sayılarına ilişkin bulgular

Tablo 3’te dergilere göre yayın sayıları sunulmuştur. Buna göre incelenen üç derginin 2010- 2020 yılları arasındaki yayın sayıları aşağıdaki tabloda sunulduğu gibidir.

Tablo 3. Yayınların Yıllara Göre Dağılımları

Dergi İsmi	Yıllara Göre Makale Sayıları												Toplam
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20		
1. Reading and Writing	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	2	3	7	22	41	
2. Reading and Writing Quarterly	0	0	3	1	0	4	1	6	8	13	3	39	
3. Journal of Writing Research	0	0	0	0	0	9	10	7	10	11	9	56	
Toplam	0	0	3	2	1	15	14	15	21	31	34	136	

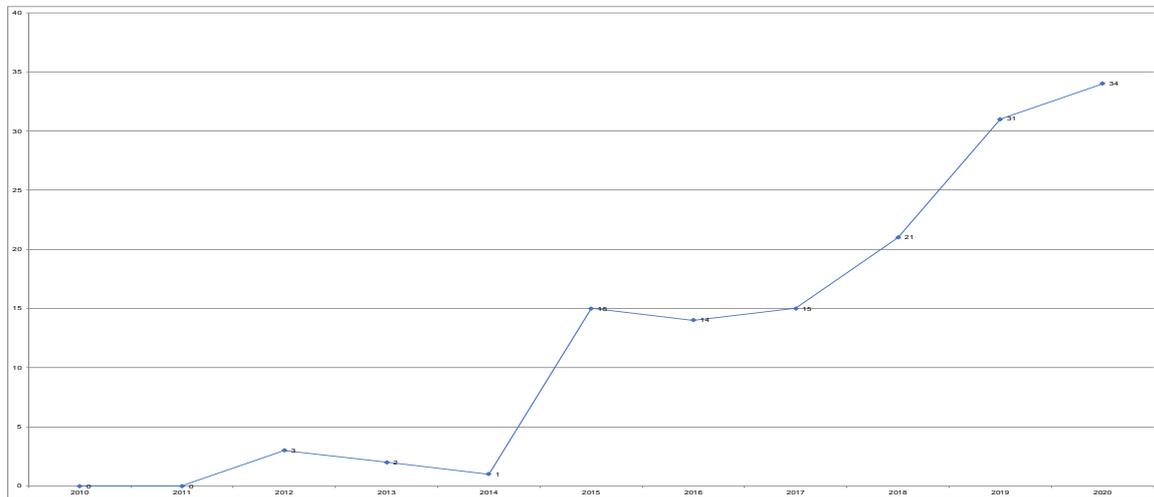
Tablo 3’e göre 2010 ile 2020 yılları arasında yazma öğretimi alanında Web of Science’de indekslenen Reading and Writing, Reading and Writing Quarterly ve Journal of Writing Research dergilerinde 136 makale tespit edilmiştir. Bu makalelerden 41’i Reading and Writing dergisinde, 39’u Reading and Writing Quarterly dergisinde ve 56’sı Journal of Writing Research dergisinde yayımlanmıştır. Bunlarla birlikte yazma öğretimi ile ilgili Reading and Writing dergisinde 2010, 2011 ve 2012 yıllarında makale tespit edilememiştir. 2013 ve 2014 yıllarında 1’er, 2015 yılında 2, 2016 yılında 3, 2017 yılında 2, 2018 yılında 3,

2019 yılında 7 ve 2020 yılında 22 makale yayımlanmıştır. Reading and Writing Quarterly dergisinde 2010, 2011 ve 2014 yıllarında makaleye rastlanmamıştır. 2012 yılında 3, 2013 yılında 1, 2015 yılında 4, 2016 yılında 1, 2017 yılında 6, 2018 yılında 8, 2019 yılında 13 ve 2020 yılında 3 makale yayımlanmıştır. Journal of Writing Research dergisinde ise yıllara göre makale sayısı şu şekildedir. 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013 ve 2014 yıllarında makale tespit edilememiştir. 2015 yılında 9, 2016 yılında 10, 2017 yılında 7, 2018 yılında 10, 2019 yılında 11, 2020 yılında ise 9 makale yayımlanmıştır.

Yıllara göre yayın sayılarına ilişkin bulgular

Şekil 2’de yıllara göre yayın sayıları sunulmuştur. Genel olarak 2010’dan 2020’ye doğru bir artışın olduğu ifade edilebilir. Özellikle 2015 ve sonrasındaki yıllarda, önceki yıllara göre yayın sayısı önemli derecede artmıştır.

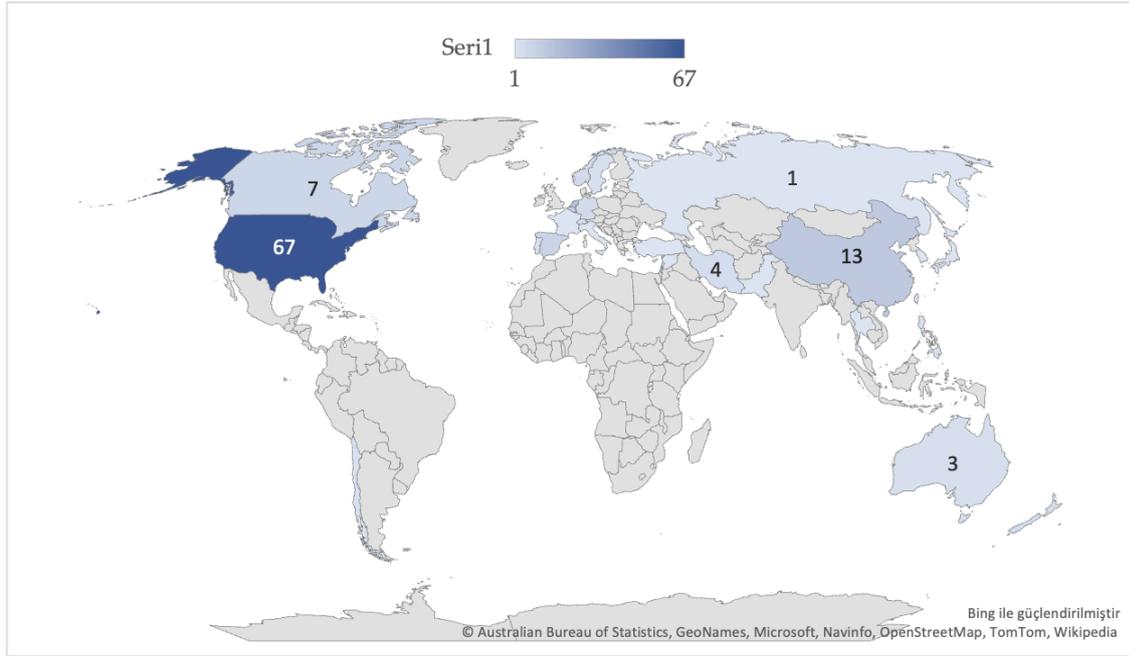
Şekil 2. Yıllara göre yayın sayıları



2010 ve 2011 yıllarında yayın tespit edilememiştir. 2012 yılında 3, 2013 yılında 2, 2014 yılında 1, 2015 yılında 15, 2016 yılında 14, 2017 yılında 15, 2018 yılında 21, 2019 yılında 31 ve 2020 yılında 34 makale yayımlanmıştır. 2010’dan 2020’ye doğru yayın sayısında bir artışın olduğu göze çarpmaktadır.

Ülkelere göre yayın sayılarına ilişkin bulgular

Aşağıdaki şekilde ülkelere göre yayın sayıları sunulmuştur. Buna göre incelenen yayınların ülkelere göre dağılımları Şekil 3’teki gibidir.

Şekil 3. Ükelere Göre Yayın Sayıları

Şekil 3'e göre son on yılda belirlenen dergilerde 27 farklı ülkeden araştırmacı yayın yapmıştır. Bu ülkeler ABD (67), Hollanda (16), Çin (13), Belçika (9), İspanya (8), Kanada (7), İngiltere (6), Almanya (5), Norveç (5), İsviçre (5), İran (4), Yeni Zelanda (4), Avustralya (3), Portekiz (3), İsveç (3), Tayvan (3), Şili (2), Filipinler (2), Fransa (1), İtalya (1), Japonya (1), Pakistan (1), Rusya (1), Güney Kore (1), Suriye (1), Tayland (1) ve Türkiye (1) şeklindedir. En çok yayın sayısına sahip olan ülke ABD (67)'dir. En az yayına sahip olan ülkeler ise İtalya (1), Japonya (1), Pakistan (1), Rusya (1), Güney Kore (1), Suriye (1), Tayland (1) ve Türkiye (1) şeklindedir.

En çok atf alan yayınlara ilişkin bulgular

Tablo 4'te, incelenen 136 araştırma içerisinde en çok atf alan on beş makale yıl, yazar, isim ve atf bilgileriyle birlikte sunulmuştur.

Tablo 4. En Çok Atf Alan Makaleler

Yıl	Dergi	Yazar	İsim	Sayı
2016	RW	Dockrell, J., E.; Marshall, C. R.; W., Dominic	Teachers' reported practices for teaching writing in England	35

2015	JoWR	Martinez, I., Mateos, M., Martin, E. ve Rijlaarsdam, G.	Learning history by composing synthesis texts: Effects of an instructional programme on learning, reading and writing processes, and text quality	31
2017	JoWR	Limpo, T. ve Alves, R. A.	Relating Beliefs in Writing Skill Malleability to Writing Performance: The Mediating Role of Achievement Goals and Self-Efficacy	26
2015	JoWR	Mangen, A., Anda, L. G., Oxborough, G. H. ve Bronnick, K.	Handwriting versus Keyboard Writing: Effect on Word Recall	22
2017	JoWR	Garcia, A. ve Gaddes, A.	Improving Writing in Primary Schools through a Comprehensive Writing Program	20
2012	RWQ	Medimorec, S. ve Risko, E. F.	Weaving Language and Culture: Latina Adolescent Writers in an After-School Writing Project	19
2017	RW	Bai, B. ve Guo, W.	Pauses in written composition: on the importance of where writers pause	18
2018	RWQ	Kim, Y. G., Petscher, Y., Wanzek, J. ve Al Otaiba, S.	Influences of Self-Regulated Learning Strategy Use on Self-Efficacy in Primary School Students' English Writing in Hong Kong	17
2018	RW	Crossley, S. A. ve McNamara, D. S.	Relations between reading and writing: a longitudinal examination from grades 3 to 6	17
2016	JoWR	Van Drie, J., Braaksma, M. ve Van Boxtel, C.	Say more and be more coherent: How text elaboration and cohesion can increase writing quality	17
2015	JoWR	Drijbooms, E., Groen, M. A. ve Verhoeven, L.	Writing in History: Effects of writing instruction on historical reasoning and text quality	17
2017	RW	Huang, Y. ve Zhang, L. J.	How executive functions predict development in syntactic complexity of narrative writing in the upper elementary grades	16
2020	RWQ	Vandermeulen, N., Leijten, M. ve Van Waes, L.	Does a Process-Genre Approach Help Improve Students' Argumentative Writing in English as a Foreign Language? Findings From an Intervention Study	15
2020	JoWR	Schoonen, R.	Reporting Writing Process Feedback in the Classroom Using Keystroke Logging Data to Reflect on Writing Processes	14
2019	RW	Drijbooms, E. Groen, M. A. ve Verhoeven, L.	Are reading and writing building on the same skills? The relationship between reading and writing in L1 and EFL	14

Tablo 4'e göre en çok atıf alan arařtırmaların 1'i 2012, 3'ü 2015, 2'si 2016, 4'ü 2017, 2'si 2018, 1'i 2019 ve 2'si 2020 yıllarına aittir. Yine en çok atıf alan ilk on beř arařtırmadan 7'si Journal of Writing Research, 5'i Reading and Writing ve 3'ü ise Reading and Writing Quarterly dergilerinde yayımlanmıřtır.

Yazma Öğretimi Arařtırmalarının Son On Yıldaki Görünümüne İliřkin İçerik Analizi Bulguları

Yazma öğretimi arařtırmalarının son on yıldaki görünümüne iliřkin içerik analizi bulguları yayınların amaçlarına iliřkin bulgular, yayınların örneklemlerine/çalıřma gruplarına iliřkin bulgular, yayınların dil deęiřkenine iliřkin bulgular, yayınların yöntemlerine iliřkin bulgular, yayınların veri toplama araçlarına iliřkin bulgular ve yayınların veri analiz yöntemlerine iliřkin bulgular başlıkları altında ele alınmıřtır.

Yayınların Amaçlarına İliřkin Bulgular

Bu başlık altında incelenen yayınların amaçlarına iliřkin bulgular yer almaktadır. Tablo 5'te yazma öğretimi arařtırmalarının hangi amaçlar doęrultusunda gerçekleştirildiđine iliřkin oluřturulan kodlar sunulmuřtur.

Tablo 5. Yayınların Amaçlarına Göre Daęılımları

Amaç	f
Müdahalenin yazmaya etkisi	45
Farklı deęiřkenlerin yazmadaki rolü	20
Yazma becerisinin deęerlendirilmesi	18
Yazmanın diđer deęiřkenlerle iliřkisi	12
Öğretmenlerin yazma uygulamaları	11
Yazma sürecinin deęerlendirilmesi	8
Yazmaya yönelik duyuřsal özelliklerin incelenmesi	8
Yazmaya yönelik bir durumun incelenmesi	6
Yazmaya iliřkin görüşlerin tespit edilmesi	5
Yazma gelişiminin incelenmesi	3
Toplam	136

Bu bağlamda 10 kod belirlenmiřtir. İncelenen arařtırmaların 45'i müdahalenin yazmaya etkisini, 20'si farklı deęiřkenlerin yazmadaki rolünü, 18'i yazma becerisinin deęerlendirilmesini, 12'si yazmanın diđer deęiřkenlerle iliřkisini, 11'i öğretmenlerin yazma uygulamalarını, 8'i yazma sürecinin deęerlendirilmesini, 8'i yazmaya yönelik duyuřsal özelliklerin incelenmesini, 6'sı yazmaya yönelik bir durumun incelenmesini, 5'i yazmaya iliřkin görüşlerin tespit edilmesini ve 3'ü yazma gelişiminin incelenmesini belirlemek amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiřtir.

Yayınların Örneklemlerine/Çalıřma Gruplarına İliřkin Bulgular

Bu başlık altında incelenen yayınların örneklem/çalışma gruplarına ilişkin bulgular yer almaktadır. Tablo 6'da örneklem/çalışma grubunun tür ve sıklıkları sunulmuştur.

Tablo 6. Yayınların Örneklem/Çalışma Grubuna Göre Dağılımları

Örneklem/Çalışma Grubu	f
Ortaokul	44
Lisans	40
İlkokul	28
Lise	27
Öğretmen	23
Lisansüstü	8
Akademisyen	4
Karma	3
Yazar	1
Belirtilmemiş	5
Toplam	183

Örneklem/çalışma grubuna ilişkin 10 kod belirlenmiştir. İncelenen araştırmaların 44'ünü ortaokul, 40'ını lisans, 28'ini ilkökul öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Bunlarla birlikte araştırmaların 23'ü öğretmenlerle, 8'i lisansüstü öğrencilerle, 4'ü akademisyenlerle, 3'ü karma özellikteki gruplarla, 1'i ise yazarlarla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Değerlendirilen 5 araştırmanın örneklem/çalışma grubu açık bir biçimde belirtilmemiştir.

Yayınlarnın Dil Değişkenine İlişkin Bulgular

Bu başlık altında incelenen yayınların dil değişkenine ilişkin bulgular yer almaktadır. Tablo 7'de araştırmalardaki dil unsurunun tür ve sıklıkları sunulmuştur.

Tablo 7. Yayınların Dil Değişkenine Göre Dağılımları

Dil	f
Belirtilmemiş	45
D1	43
D2	24
Karma	24
Toplam	136

Dil unsuruna yönelik 4 kod belirlenmiştir. Bunlar ana dili (D1), ikinci dil (D2), karma ve belirtilmemiş şeklindedir. Tablo 7'ye göre incelenen araştırmaların 43'ünde ana dili, 24'ünde ikinci dil, diğer 24'ünde ise karma özellikteki diller kullanılmıştır. Değerlendirilen 136 çalışmanın 45'inde dil değişkenine yönelik bir özellik belirtilmemiştir.

Yayınlarnın Yöntemlerine İlişkin Bulgular

Bu başlık altında incelenen yayınların yürütüldüğü desenlere ilişkin bulgular yer almaktadır. Tablo 8’de desenlere ilişkin bilgiler yer almaktadır.

Tablo 8. Yayınların Yöntemlerine Göre Dağılımları

Yöntem	f
Belirtilmemiş	67
Nicel	44
Deneysel	40
İlişkisel	2
Tarama	2
Nitel	15
Durum	10
Keşfedici	2
Belirtilmemiş	3
Karma	10
Gömülü desen	2
Belirtilmemiş	8
Toplam	136

Yayınlarda belirtilen desenlere ilişkin nicel, nitel, karma ve belirtilmemiş olmak üzere 4 kod belirlenmiştir. Deneysel, ilişkisel ve tarama desenlerinde gerçekleştirilen araştırmalar nicel; durum, keşfedici desenlere sahip olan araştırmalar nitel ve gömülü desenlerle yürütülen araştırmalar karma yöntem araştırmaları olarak kategorize edilmiştir. Araştırma deseni ile ilgili bir bilginin yer almadığı çalışmalar için belirtilmemiş kodu kullanılmıştır. Buna göre incelenen araştırmaların 44’ünde nicel, 15’inde nitel, 10’unda karma yönteme ait desenler kullanılmıştır. 67 çalışmada ise araştırmancının desenine ait herhangi bir bilgi sunulmamıştır.

Yayınlarda Veri Toplama Araçlarına İlişkin Bulgular

Bu başlık altında incelenen yayınlarda kullanılan veri toplama araçlarına ilişkin bulgular yer almaktadır. Tablo 9’da veri toplama araçlarının türü ve sıklıkları sunulmuştur.

Tablo 9. Yayınların Veri Toplama Araçlarına Göre Dağılımları

Veri Toplama Aracı	f
Öğrenci metinleri	98
Anket	31
Test	27
Görüşme	24
Ölçek	23
Task	19
Gözlem	9
Açık uçlu sorular	9

Doküman	9
Video kaydı	8
Günlük	4
Rubrik	3
Ses kaydı	3
Portfolyo	2
Değerlendirme formu	2
Alan notları	2
Kişisel bilgi formu	2
Diğer	3
Toplam	278

Buna göre incelenen 136 makalede veri toplama araçlarına yönelik 18 farklı kod tespit edilmiştir. Değerlendirilen araştırmaların 98'inde öğrenci metinleri, 31'inde anket, 27'sinde test, 23'ünde ölçek, 24'ünde görüşme, 19'unda task, 9'unda gözlem, 9'unda açık uçlu sorular, 9'unda doküman kullanılmıştır. Araştırmalarda kullanılan diğer veri toplama araçları ise 8 video kaydı, 4 günlük, 3 rubrik, 3 ses kaydı, 2 portfolyo, 2 değerlendirme formu, 2 alan notları, 2 kişisel bilgi formu ve 6 diğer şeklindedir.

İncelenen araştırmalarda bu kategorilere dâhil olmayan 3 veri toplama aracı "diğer" şeklinde kodlanmıştır. Bu veri toplama araçları belirlenen kategorilere dâhil edilemeyen ekran görüntüleri, kelime listeleri, dikte metinleri gibi araçlardır.

Yayınlarda Veri Analiz Yöntemlerine İlişkin Bulgular

Bu başlık altında incelenen yayınlarda kullanılan veri analiz yöntemlerine ilişkin bulgular sunulmuştur. Tablo 10'da araştırmalardaki verilerin analizi sürecinde hangi yöntemlerin kullanıldığına yer verilmiştir.

Tablo 10. Yayınlarda Veri Analiz Yöntemine Göre Dağılımları

Tür	Veri Analiz Yöntemi	f
Karşılaştırma	ANOVA	37
	T testi	10
	ANCOVA	7
	MANOVA	6
	Mann Whitney U Testi	3
	Kruskal Wallis Testi	2
	Wilcon İşaretili Sıra Testi	2
Betimleme	Betimsel İstatistik	70
	İçerik Analizi	34
	Betimsel Analiz	9
	Chi-Squared Testi	9
İlişki	Regresyon	41
	Korelasyon	38
	Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi	7
	Faktör Analizi	4
	Diğer	6
	Toplam	285

Tablo 10'a göre, incelenen 136 arařtırmada veri analiz yöntemlerine iliřkin 16 farklı kod ortaya çıkmıřtır. Bu kodlar karřılařtırma, betimleme ve iliřki kategorileri altında deęerlendirilmiřtir. T testi, ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, Mann Whitney U Testi, Kruskal Wallis Testi, Wilcon İřaretli Sırası testi karřılařtırma; betimsel istatistik, betimsel analiz, Chi-Squared Testi ve ierik analizi ise betimleme kategorisi altında deęerlendirilmiřtir. İliřki kategorisinde yer alan kodlar ise regresyon, korelasyon, faktör analizi ve yapısal eřitlik modellemesidir.

En sık kullanılan veri analiz yöntemleri karřılařtırma kategorisinde, ANOVA; betimleme kategorisinde betimsel istatistik ve ierik analizi, iliřki kategorisinde ise regresyon ve korelasyon řeklinde-dir.

İncelenen arařtırmalarda 6 veri analiz yöntemi "dięer" olarak kodlanmıřtır. Bunlar ok boyutlu ölekleme analizi, semantik analiz gibi birer alıřmada kullanılmıř olan bazı veri analiz yöntemleridir.

Sonuç ve Tartıřma

Yazma öğretim arařtırmalarının son on yıldaki (2010-2020) görünümünü ortaya koymayı amalayan bu alıřmada veriler bibliyometrik analiz ve ierik analizi yoluyla özümle-nmiřtir. Bibliyometrik analizler neticesinde elde edilen bulgular genel olarak en ok yayına sahip olan derginin JoWR (56), en fazla yayının olduęu yılın 2020 (34), en fazla yayına sahip olan ülkenin ABD (67) ve en ok atfı olan yayının "*Teachers' reported practices for teaching writing in England*" (35) olduęu řeklinde-dir.

Arařtırmada elde edilen bulgulardan biri, ABD'nin en fazla yayına sahip ülke olmasıdır. Yazma öğretim arařtırmalarının görünümünü ortaya koymayı amalayan benzer alıřmalarda da (Karagöz ve řeref, 2020; Sala Bubare ve Castello, 2018) aynı bulguya ulařılmıřtır. En fazla yayına sahip olan ülkenin ABD olması, birkaç düşünce etrafında açıklanabilir. Bunlardan ilki, örnekleme-deki dergilerden özellikle Reading and Writing Quarterly ve Reading and Writing dergilerinin editör kurullarında ABD menşei-li ok sayıda arařtırmacının yer alması, bu durumun arařtırmacılar arasında ortak bir bilimsel bakıř açısı geliřtirmiş olduęu düşüncesi olabilir. Bununla birlikte yayın sayısındaki durumu sadece bu düşünce etrafında açıklamak yeterli olmayacaktır. ABD'deki yazma arařtırmaları erken bir dönemde başlamıřtır. Emig'in (1971) öğrencilerin yazma süreçlerini sistematik olarak inceleyen alıřması yazma arařtırmaları açısından önemli bir eřik olarak kabul edilse de (Nystrand, 2008) yazma ile ilgili bilimsel arařtırmalar 1912 yılına kadar dayandırılır. Öyle ki yazma becerisine dair oluşturulmuş birikim sayesinde 1980'lere gelindiğinde yazma ayrı bir arařtırma alanı olarak kabul edilmiřtir (Nystrand, 2008). Lisansüstü eğitimin bir alanda derinleşmek, uzmanlaşmak ve arařtırma deneyimi kazanmak gibi amaları düşünöldüğünde ABD'nin fazla yayın sayısına sahip olması, bu ülkenin en ok doktora mezunu veren ve uluslararası öğrencilerin en ok tercih ettięi ülke olması (Tollefson, 2018) ile de iliřkilendirilebilir.

Arařtırmada elde edilen bir dięer bulgu, yazma öğretim arařtırmalarının 2010'dan 2020'ye neredeyse sürekli bir biçimde artış gösterdięidir. Yapılan bazı arařtırmalarda da (Kemiksiz, 2021; Sala Bubare ve Castello, 2018; Sertoęlu, 2020) yazma öğretim arařtırmalarının günümüze doęru gelindike sayıca arttıęı ortaya konmuřtur. Yazma

becerisi her ne kadar öğrenme ortamlarında bilgileri analiz etmek, sentezlemek, yorumlamak amacıyla kullanılsa da zaman içinde özellikle sosyo bilişsel ve sosyokültürel teorilerin de yazmayı tanımlama biçimleri ile birlikte sadece sınıf ortamı için değil sosyal hayat için de gerekli bir beceri olarak değerlendirilmiştir. Yazmayı ikna etmek, hayali bir dünya yaratmak, eğlenmek, ruhsal yaralarımızı iyileştirmek, iş yerinde pek çok görevi yerine getirmek (Graham, 2018) gibi farklı amaçlarla kullanırız. Ortak çekirdek devlet standartlarında (2010) da (Common Core State Standards), yazma becerisi dört temel uygulama etrafında açıklanır. Bunlar 1) farklı amaçlar için farklı türlerde metinler oluşturmak, 2) yazma süreçlerinden geçerek (planlama, düzenleme, düzeltme) iyi organize edilmiş metinler üretmek ve bunları paylaşmak, 3) bilgiyi inşa etmek ve 4) farklı disiplinlerdeki öğrenmeleri kolaylaştırmak (Graham ve Harris, 2013) şeklindedir. Özellikle üçüncü ve dördüncü maddelerde ifade edilen amaçlar, yazmanın sınırlarını dil becerilerinin ötesine taşıyarak tüm disiplinler için gerekli bir beceri hâline getirmiştir. Yazma, artan önemi ile birlikte UNESCO tarafından temel yeterlik olarak tanımlanmış (UNESCO, 2017), Avrupa Yeterlikler Çerçevesi ile uyumlu olan Türkiye Yeterlikler Çerçevesi metninde de (2015) sekiz anahtar yetkinlikten biri olan ana dilde iletişim başlığı altında yazılı iletişim olarak vurgulanmıştır. Bunlarla birlikte ABD’de 1970’lerin başında ortaya konan (Russell, 2002) Müfredat Boyunca Yazma (Writing Across Curriculum) ve Yazmayla Zenginleştirilmiş Müfredat (Writing Enriched Curriculum) hareketlerinin yazma becerisinin ve yazma öğretiminin dolayısıyla yazma araştırmalarının önemini ve sayısını artırdığı söylenebilir.

İçerik analizinde amaç, örneklem/çalışma grubu, dil, yöntem, veri toplama aracı ve veri analiz yöntemi olmak üzere altı kategori belirlenmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre araştırma kapsamında incelenen çalışmalarda en sık belirlenen yazma amaçları müdahalenin yazmaya etkisi (45), farklı değişkenlerin yazmadaki rolü (20) ve yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi (18)’dir. Sala Bubare ve Castello (2018) son 20 yılda deneysel yöntemle yapılmış yazma öğretimi araştırmalarını inceledikleri çalışmalarında incelenen araştırmaların amaçlarını “yazma süreci, müdahale, inanç ve algılar” olmak üzere üç kod ile açıklamışlardır. Yine bu araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre yazma öğretiminde en sık çalışılan konular sosyal bağlam ve yazma uygulamaları, iki ya da çok dillilik ve yazma öğretimi iken en az çalışılan konular yazma teknolojileri, yazmanın ölçülmesi ve değerlendirilmesi, okuryazarlık yöntemleri arasındaki ilişkilerdir. Durst’un (1990) araştırmasında, en çok çalışılan beş konu sırasıyla yazma öğretimi, yazma süreci, metin yapısı, yazma ortamı, yazma becerisinin değerlendirilmesidir. Bu çalışmada incelenen yazma öğretimi çalışmalarının amaçları ile yukarıda bahsedilen araştırmaların amaçları arası bazı ortak noktalar bulunduğu görülmektedir.

Bu araştırmanın amaç değişkeninden elde edilen bulgu, yöntem kategorisinin verileri ile birlikte de değerlendirilebilir. Araştırmanın dikkat çekici bulgularından biri incelenen çalışmaların büyük bir kısmında (67) yöntemin tanımlanmamış olmasıdır. Tanımlanan yöntemler içinde ise en sık olanı nicel yöntemlerdir. Bu sonuç, yazma araştırmalarının görünümünü ortaya koyan bazı çalışmalarda da tespit edilmiştir (Göksu, 2016; Karaoğlu, 2021; Temizkan ve Erdevir, 2020). Bu noktada, incelenen çalışmalarda amaç ve yöntem seçimi arasında bir bağlantının olduğu görülmektedir. Juzwik vd.’nin (2006) araştırma

sonuçlarına göre yazma öğretimi arařtırmalarında en sık kullanılan yöntemler sırasıyla söylem analizi, yorumlayıcı yöntemler, deneysel/yarı deneysel, korelasyonel, tarihi ve tek denekli arařtırma yöntemleri şeklindedir. Yorumlayıcı yöntemler görüşme, odak veya tartışma grupları, gözlem, durum çalışması, etnografya, hata analizi, içerik analizi, tematik analiz, anlam analizi olarak belirlenmiştir. Bu arařtırmadan elde edilen sonuca göre yazma öğretimi arařtırmaları hâlâ nicel yöntemlerin etkisi altındadır. Bunun nedeni, eğitim arařtırmalarına uzun yıllardır hâkim olan nicel yöntemlerin alanda var olan birikimi olabilir.

İncelenen yazma öğretimi çalışmalarında yönteme ilişkin dikkat çeken sonuçlardan biri de nicel yöntemlerle gerçekleştirilen çalışmaların tamamında (44), nitel yöntemlerle gerçekleştirilen 15 çalışmadan da 12'sinde desen belirtilirken karma yöntem ile gerçekleştirilen 10 çalışmanın 8'inde desenin belirtilmemiş olmasıdır. İncelenen bazı çalışmalarda ise (Guo ve Barrot,2019; Mason, Meadan, Hedin ve Cramer, 2012) desen olarak karma yöntemin kendi desenleri değil, nicel ve nitel arařtırma desenlerinin birleştirilerek ifade edilmesi söz konusudur. Oysa karma arařtırma yönteminin yakınsayan, açıcı, keşfedici, iç içe, dönüştürücü ve çok aşamalı (Creswell ve Plano Clark; 2011) gibi kendine ait desenleri olduğu bilinmektedir. Bu durum, karma arařtırma yöntemleri kavramının zaman içinde geçirdiği değişim ile açıklanabilir. Öyle ki ilk zamanlarda karma yöntemler arařtırmasının, birden fazla nitel veya birden fazla nicel yöntemin bir arada kullanıldığını ifade eden ve çoklu yöntem kavramı ile belirtilen tanımı günümüzdeki karma yöntem arařtırması tanımı ile örtüşmemektedir (Creswell ve Plano Clark, 2018'den akt. Toraman, 2021).

İncelenen yazma öğretimi çalışmalarında en sık çalışılan gruplar sırasıyla ortaokul öğrencileri (44), lisans öğrencileri (40) ve ilkokul öğrencileri (28) şeklinde olmuştur. Benzer arařtırmalarda bu sonuca yakın veriler elde edilmiştir (Coşkun vd., 2013; Durst, 1990; Juzwik vd., 2006; Kemiksiz, 2021; Tok ve Potur, 2015). Örneğin Durst'un (1990) arařtırmasında en çok çalışılan örneklem grubu sırasıyla üniversite, ilkokul ve ortaokul/lise öğrencileridir. Coşkun vd.'nin (2013) arařtırmalarında en sık çalışılan grup ilk ve ortaokul öğrencileri; Juzwik vd.'nin (2006) arařtırmalarında ise en çok çalışılan grupları lisans, yetişkin ve orta öğretim sonrası grup; en az çalışılan grubu ise okul öncesi öğrencileri oluşturmuşlardır. Bahsedilen arařtırmalardan çıkarılacak ortak sonuç en çok çalışılan grupların ortaokul, ilkokul ve lisans şeklinde olduğudur. Yazma, okullaşma süreci ile birlikte kazanılan bir beceridir. İlkokulun ilk iki yılında temel yazma becerilerinin kazandırılması amaçlanırken sonraki yıllarda temel metin oluşturma çalışmaları üzerinde durulur. Ortaokul kademesi ile birlikte farklı tür ve amaçlar etrafında yazı oluşturma çalışmaları planlanır. Dolayısıyla yazmanın ilk ve orta okul kademelerinde okuma ile birlikte üzerinde en çok durulan becerilerden biri olduğu söylenebilir. İncelenen arařtırmalarda ağırlıklı olarak ilkokul ve ortaokul öğrencilerinin seçilmiş olması bu gerekçe ile açıklanabilir. İlkokul ve ortaokul öğrencileri ile birlikte üzerinde çalışılan bir diğer grup da lisans öğrencileridir. Bunun bir nedeni, lisans öğrencilerinden veri toplamanın daha kolay olması; bir diğer nedeni ise ABD'deki kolej ve üniversitelerde Müfredat Boyunca Yazma (WAC) ve Yazma ile Zenginleştirilmiş Programlar (WEC) aracılığıyla yazma becerisinin merkezi bir beceri hâline gelmiş olması olabilir. Bu iki hareketle birlikte yazma becerisi, diğer disiplinlerin öğrenilmesinde önemli bir araç olarak düşünülmüştür.

Yapılan çalışmalarda veri toplama aracı olarak en çok öğrenci metinleri (98), anket (31), test (27), görüşme formları (24), ölçek (23) ve görevler (19) (task) kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın bu sonucu, incelenen çalışmalarda belirlenen amaç ve yöntem seçimi ile uyumludur. En sık kullanılan veri toplama araçlarının anket, test ve ölçek gibi nicel veri toplama araçları oldukları görülmektedir. Bunlarla birlikte görüşme formları, gözlemler, açık uçlu sorular ve dokümanlar da veri toplama araçları olarak kullanılmıştır. Özellikle nitel ve karma araştırmalarda bu veri toplama araçlarının seçildiği düşünülebilir. Yazma öğretiminde metin, yazar ve okur odaklı olmak üzere üç yaklaşımdan söz edilebilir. Metin odaklı yaklaşımda metinler bağlamlarından, yazarlarından ve okurlarından bağımsız olarak düşünülürken yazar odaklı yaklaşımda yazma, yazarın zihinsel süreci bağlamında ele alınır. Okur odaklı yaklaşımda ise yazar metnini başkaları ile etkileşime geçmek için oluşturur ve yazma yazar ile okur arasında gerçekleşen interaktif bir süreçtir (Hyland, 2009). Bu bağlamda yazar odaklı yaklaşımın, yazma sürecinde yazarın zihnine odaklanması yönüyle bilişsel teoriye dayandığı, okur odaklı yaklaşımın ise yazar-okur arasındaki iletişime dikkat çekmesi bakımından sosyokültürel teoriye dayandığı ifade edilebilir. İncelenen araştırmalarda en çok kullanılan veri toplama aracının metinler olması, yazma becerisinin sıklıkla ürün odaklı değerlendirildiği bağlamında düşünülebilir. Bununla birlikte her ne kadar öğrenci metinleri, anket ve ölçekler kadar olmasa da veri toplama aracı olarak görüşme formlarının da tercih edilmesi, yazma becerisinin bilişsel ve sosyokültürel perspektiflerle açıklanmaya çalışıldığının fakat yine de sınırlı kaldığının göstergesidir denebilir.

Veri analiz yöntemlerine bakıldığında, toplanan verilerin betimsel istatistik (70), regresyon (41), korelasyon (38), ANOVA (37) ve içerik analizi (34) gibi yöntemlerle çözümlendiği görülmektedir. Bu sonuç amaç, yöntem ve veri toplama araçları başlıklarında tartışılan nicel yöntemlerin hâkim görünümü ile birlikte yorumlanabilir. Amaç, yöntem ve veri toplama araçları bakımından sıklıkla nicel yöntemlerin kullanıldığı çalışmalarda veri analiz yöntemleri de nicel ağırlıklıdır.

Öneriler

Araştırmadan elde edilen ve yukarıda tartışılan sonuçlara bağlı olarak araştırmacılara şu önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

1. Bu çalışmada dergi odaklı bir yaklaşım belirlenmiştir. Bundan sonra yapılacak araştırmalarda belli anahtar kavramlar etrafında taramalar yapılarak yazma öğretimi araştırmalarının görünümü ortaya konulabilir.
2. Bu çalışmada, ağırlıklı olarak dil öğretimi alanında gerçekleştirilen yazma öğretimi çalışmaları incelenmiş olmakla birlikte, diğer disiplinlerde gerçekleştirilen bazı yazma öğretimi çalışmaları da bulunmaktadır. Yazma becerisinin sadece diğer disiplinlerde öğrenme aracı olarak kullanıldığı çalışmalar da incelenebilir.
3. Yazma öğretimi araştırmalarında nicel yöntemlerin baskın olduğu, nitel ve karma yöntemlerle gerçekleştirilen çalışmaların nicel yöntemlere göre daha sınırlı kaldığı görülmektedir. Yazma becerisinin sosyo bilişsel ve sosyokültürel modellerle açıklanmasıyla birlikte yazma becerisini etkileyen pek çok psikolojik ve kültürel faktörün olduğu bilinmektedir. Bu faktörler nitel ve karma araştırma yöntemleriyle

- ortaya konabilir. Dolayısıyla yazma öğretimi arařtırmalarında yöntemsel çeřitlilik sađlayacak etnografik, fenomenolojik ve öyküsel arařtırmalar gerçekleştirilebilir.
4. İncelenen arařtırmalarda en çok alıřılan grupların ortaokul, lisans, ilkokul öđrencileri olduđu görülmüřtür. Lisansüstü öđrenci, akademisyen ve yazarlarla daha sınırlı sayıda alıřmalar gerçekleştirilmiřtir. Yazma becerisinin anlaşılması noktasında önemli katkılar sunacađı düşünölen ve yazma becerisi aısından daha deneyimli olabilecek bu gruptaki kiřilerle arařtırmalar gerçekleştirilebilir.
 5. İncelenen yazma arařtırmalarında veri toplama aracı olarak metin, anket, test, görüřme formu ve ölek gibi araların kullanıldıđı görülmüřtür. Yapılacak alıřmalarda günlük, öđrenci ürün dosyası, gibi alternatif araların daha sık kullanılmasının, yazma becerisinin çok yönlü açıklanmasına katkı sunacađı düşünölmektedir. Dolayısıyla gerçekleştirilecek yazma arařtırmalarında sürece yönelik alternatif veri toplama araları kullanılabilir.

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Hedges and Boosters in Research Article Abstracts of Turkish and Chinese Scholars

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ABSTRACT

In the reviewed literature, many studies have compared the research articles written by L1 and L2 speakers of English. In this regard, comparing L2 speakers of English from two different linguistic backgrounds distinguishes this study from similar studies. While writing a research article abstract, writers need to calculate what weight to give to their arguments while showing credibility and authority at the same time. Given these reasons, the use of hedges and boosters in the research article abstract is a worthwhile topic to be searched. The goal of this study is to investigate the hedging and boosting strategies in research article abstracts of Turkish and Chinese scholars. They were identified and analyzed by Hyland's (2000a) hedging and boosting list. The results of this study showed that Turkish and Chinese academics didn't show much statistical difference in their frequency of hedges, but they preferred to choose different hedging strategies in some instances.

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Statement of Publication Ethics

The study has been conducted by following the publication ethics. As the study does not include the use of human and animal subjects, it does not require ethical committee permission.

Authors' Contribution Rate

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Conflict of Interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author.

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Introduction

No matter what the method is, in Hyland's (2005a) terms, researchers interested in writing are looking for answers that "will best inform our views of what writing is" (p.177). Conceiving writing as interaction, metadiscourse analysts dig up texts to understand how writing is mediated by different linguistic, cultural, and disciplinary communities. As Hyland (2005a) elucidated, "Every act of writing is embedded in wider social and discursive practices that carry assumptions about participant relationships and how these should be structured and negotiated" (p.177). Metadiscourse "focuses our attention on the ways writers project themselves into their discourse to signal their attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text" (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p.156). Writers employ a variety of metadiscourse markers to organize their texts and interact with readers. Without metadiscourse markers which can be classified into two main categories (interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers), it would be very difficult to follow and understand texts. Interactive metadiscourse markers (transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and code glosses) assist writers in organizing the information and making it flow while interactional metadiscourse markers (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, and engagement markers) allow writers to establish credibility and authorial stance in their interaction with readers. Writers use a variety of interactional metadiscourse markers to project their stance to readers. To achieve this aim, writers change the level of assertions in academic discourse and convey "appropriately collegial attitudes to readers" (Hyland, 2000a, p.179). As Hyland (2010) stated clearly, "removing these metadiscourse features would make the passage less personal, less interesting, and less easy to follow" (p.127). These devices help writers mitigate the certainty of statements, show detachment (Akbas & Hardman, 2018, p.835), and withhold their full commitment to having modest claims "as a product of social forces" (Crompton, 1997, p.275) are called hedges, and those expressing certainty, emphasizing shared information and group membership are called boosters (Hyland, 2000a, p. 97), both of which will be the focus of this study.

The use of metadiscourse markers have been investigated in different genres and contexts. As Hyland (1999) noted,

the meaning of metadiscourse only becomes operative within a particular context, both invoking and reinforcing that context with regard to audience, purpose and situation. Its use therefore reflects differences in the various forms of organized cultural communication recognized and employed by distinct academic disciplines for particular purposes (p.6).

Cross-cultural studies have been conducted in thesis abstracts (Nugroho, 2019; Onder-Ozdemir & Longo, 2014) and postgraduate writings (Akbas & Hardman, 2018). In addition to cross-cultural studies, there are studies in which writings from various disciplinary communities including social sciences, and hard sciences have been examined (Akbas, 2012; Afshar et al., 2014; Ebrahimi & Chan, 2015; Ekoç, 2010; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Mkhitarian & Tumanyan, 2015; Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin, 2014). In metadiscourse studies, it is also a question of whether the speakers' first language contributes to what extent metadiscourse markers are being used. The scholars interested in metadiscourse mostly compared L2 speakers' writings with L1 speakers of English from Anglophone countries (Çapar & Turan, 2020; Demir, 2018; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016; Gholamit & Ilghamit, 2016; Li and Wharton, 2012; Samaie et al., 2014; Yagız & Demir, 2014). Among those studies, for instance, Li and

Wharton (2012) discovered that context has a stronger influence on students' use of metadiscourse. They claimed that UK students use metadiscourse more frequently than Chinese authors. Self-mentions are nearly nonexistent in the corpus of Chinese works while they are common in the essays of UK students. According to their study's findings, Chinese authors frequently utilize imperative phrases like "we must" and "you should" in their writing to compel readers to pay attention. More hedges are used by UK students, showing a willingness to show less commitment to ideas. Yet in this stream of research on interactional metadiscourse devices, there is relatively less research on the cross-cultural analysis of L2 speakers from different countries. Among the few studies, Lotfi et al. (2019) focused on two different EFL contexts in Asia to see whether there are significant differences between Iranian and Chinese university students' argumentative writings. Apart from the mentioned study, there is relatively very little research that investigates hedges and boosters in research articles (RAs) in two different L2 contexts. To fill this gap in the reviewed literature, this study focuses on hedges and boosters in the abstracts of RAs from two different linguistic backgrounds, the scholars of which are not from the countries in the Anglosphere (countries such as the USA, the UK, Australia) but are L2 speakers of English.

Literature review

In the metadiscourse studies, research on abstract has taken increasing attention as abstract is a genre in itself with its very own characteristics. An abstract can be defined as succinct research in a very limited space, such as 150-250 words that accompany RAs, a thesis, or conference proceedings. As Supatrahont (2012) underlined, "abstract is the first part of the paper for facilitating readers to quickly consider objectives and significance of the study before deciding whether to further read the full paper" (p.145). Supporting the reviewed literature (Piqué-Noguera, 2012), RA abstract writing should not be underscored in the literature. RA abstract has become under more scrutiny because writing articles and getting them published to act as a gatekeeper for academics to be part of the academic community. RA abstract has a convincing role in persuading editors that the study is worth sending for peer review, and therefore, RA abstract constitutes the first step to publishing a RA (Ebrahimi & Chan, 2015, p.382).

The interest in RA abstracts also lies in the fact that abstracts are accessible for free in national and international journals' databases after publication. To be able to access the entire article, journals can request individual or institutional subscriptions from readers, but the RA abstract is open to any reader interested in the study. Saving time for readers with its condensed information plays a significant role in its given importance in the scientific community (Ebrahimi & Chan, 2015, p.382). Their schematic structures and variations in different disciplines have been discussed extensively in genre and discourse studies (Pho, 2008; Samraj, 2005; Suntara & Usaha, 2013; Kaya & Yağız, 2020). As Gillaerts and Van de Velde (2010) put it, "abstracts are not just pale reflections of the full-length article, but rather have a specific make-up, which can plausibly be linked to their function" (p.128). While writing an RA abstract, writers are trying to establish an appropriate, well-balanced relationship with the presented data, propositions, and readers (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p.159). These attempts can be defined "as a case of interaction between individuals acting in a social, institutional context"

(Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010, p.129). To fulfill this interactional and interpersonal dimension, writers are benefiting from various metadiscourse markers to help readers encode the message in the expected way and find the content appropriate and convincing. As Hyland (2000a, p.87) pointed out, writers need to convince their readers to a certain extent but at the same time refrain from overstating their propositions, which may cause them to be rejected. RA abstracts may seem to be addressing academics, researchers, and teachers at first but students and interested people of the specific discipline also read RA abstracts. As it is the first part of RA which readers will find in the search list, scholars need to guard themselves against possible opposition from those readers and balance the level of certainty in their arguments. At this point, as a sub-category of interactional metadiscourse markers, the vitality of hedges and boosters come to the fore as “underuse of hedging may lead to overstatement, overuse of it may bring about suspicions on the credibility of the statement” (Demir, 2018, p.75). Thanks to hedges and boosters, writers “calculate what weight to give to an assertion” (Hyland, 2005b, p.179). In this competitive academic community, hedges and boosters help scholars “gain acceptance for their work by balancing conviction with caution” (Hyland, 2000b, p.179). Given these reasons, the use of hedges and boosters in the RA abstract is a worthwhile topic to be searched as “the discourse community expands, the need for acknowledging stances other than the author’s becomes more urgent” (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010, p.137). Authors feel the need to make readers feel that their stances are also welcome in the discourse community. As Gong, Liu and Cao (2021, p.2) emphasize, the frequency of interactional metadiscourse markers are affected by many factors such as “discipline”, “linguistic/cultural background” or “writing expertise”.

In the reviewed literature, the frequency and distribution of hedging and boosting strategies have been examined in different sections of RAs within different disciplines (Alia et al., 2020; Hyland, 2005b; Kurt-Taşpınar, 2017). They have started with the presumption that “all acts of communication carry the imprint of their contexts” (Hyland, 2000a, p.91). In addition to different disciplinary contexts, the use of hedges and boosters has started to be investigated in RAs written by scholars from different linguistic backgrounds. Most of the cross-cultural metadiscourse studies have set out with the goal of showing us the ways how Anglophone discourse conventions are accomplished through writers' choices in L2 contexts (Afshar et al., 2014; Çapar & Turan, 2020; Demir, 2018; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016; Gholamit & Ilghamit, 2016; Samaie et al., 2014; Yagız & Demir, 2014). As Flowerdew (2015, p. 13) noted, there is a “pressure on academic staff and their postgraduate students to publish research in prestigious high impact journals for which, by necessity, English is the language for dissemination of research findings to a global readership”. Although some journals still stipulate authors to proofread their manuscripts by a “native” speaker of English and put non-native speakers at a disadvantaged position, we should realize that in today’s world, the number of L2 speakers of English are more than L1 speakers of English. Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015) call this period “post-EFL” as “EFL is native-speaker oriented in its norms (Standard English), curricula, testing orientations, and attitudes resulting from the desire to emulate native speakers of English” (p.118). Thus, investigation of English as a *lingua franca* (ELF) settings can be fruitful. If academic writing addresses all those in ELF settings and L1 settings, it is questionable why one should take the choices of native speakers as the ideal target. In this

changing realm, one cannot talk about strict adherence to L1 speakers' norms. As Ceyhan-Bingöl and Özkan (2019) underpin, “ELF embraces non-native speakers and their various use of English instead of native-norm based English” (p.87). The number of writers publishing in English is dramatically increasing, so there is a need for new pedagogies in teaching academic writing. In this respect, Turkish and Chinese writers are no exception. In their study, Mu et al. (2015) highlighted that

Chinese writers, especially applied linguists, have recently shown a strong tendency to publish RAs in international refereed journals in English in order to secure recruitment, reappointment, promotion or other employment-related benefits in China (p. 136).

Similarly, to gain more recognition from the international community, Turkish writers are also trying to get their articles published in high-ranking journals. Gong et al. (2021) underlined that “to ensure a successful publication, a good knowledge of the rhetorical and stylistic features of the English academic discourse is of greater importance than ever” (p.1). Thus, “acquiring the skills of writing an abstract is therefore important to novice writers to enter the discourse community of their discipline” (Pho, 2008, p.231). As Hatipoğlu and Alrı (2018, p.958) suggest, each L2 learner group should be examined meticulously and the prevalent issues should be determined and solved while teaching academic writing. Starting from this point of view, as far as the author is aware, in the Turkish context, no study has compared two different groups of L2 speakers of English in terms of hedges and boosters, and there is very little overseas research, so there need to be more studies comparing writers’ choices from different ELF settings. To contribute to the existing literature, this study aims to tackle the following research questions:

1. What hedges and boosters do Turkish and Chinese speakers of English use in their RA abstracts?
2. Is there any statistical difference in the frequency and distribution of hedges and boosters employed by Turkish and Chinese speakers of English?

Methodology

To ensure that RA abstracts represented two L2 contexts, they were compiled from the journals published by Elsevier, Taylor and Francis, Sage, and Wiley. They are all peer-reviewed journals. 20 Turkish scholars’ abstracts and 20 Chinese scholars' abstracts between 2016-2021 were chosen randomly. Verification of the status of the author as Chinese and Turkish was realized through their name and nationality. If there were more than one author, the first and corresponding author's name and nationality were considered. The corpus of the abstracts was restricted to the field of English language teaching (ELT), so the discipline variant has been kept constant. Chinese scholars' abstracts had 3153 words and Turkish scholars’ abstracts had 3137 words, making a total corpus of 6290 words. Hyland’s (2000a, pp.188-189) list of hedges and boosters was used and some items that serve similar hedging functions from Demir's (2018) list were added. The abstracts were transferred to a Word document, and with the help of the “find feature”, the abstracts were searched automatically

for each hedging and boosting item in the list. While classifying them, their meanings and functions were also considered for some items such as *can*, and *most*.

Results

Table 1. Frequency of Hedges in the Abstracts of Turkish and Chinese Scholars

<i>Hedges</i>	<i>Abstracts of Turkish speakers of English</i>		<i>Abstracts of Chinese speakers of English</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Epistemic adjectives	2	0.06	2	0.06
Epistemic adverbs	6	0.19	7	0.22
Epistemic nouns	8	0.25	9	0.28
Epistemic lexical verbs	27	0.86	26	0.82
Modal verbs	14	0.44	7	0.22
Passives	50	1.59	31	0.98
Inanimate subjects	48	1.53	57	1.807
Total	155	4.97	139	4.40

As illustrated in Table 1, Turkish ($f=155$) and Chinese speakers of English ($f=139$) used a roughly equivalent number of hedges with no significant difference. Similarly, in Lotfi et al.'s (2019) study, it was seen that Iranian and Chinese EFL students performed similarly in the use of hedges. Supporting the previous studies on RA abstracts, the results have showed that scholars employed hedges “even in highly condensed genres like RA abstracts” (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010, p.138). In Liu and Huang's (2017) terms, both Turkish and Chinese scholars took advantage of hedges to “display the cautiousness and circumspection towards their arguments on the one hand, and to express humility and respect for the readers on the other hand” (p.38). Yet in some instances, they tended to differ in their hedging choices.

The analysis also revealed that Chinese scholars used the inanimate subject as a common practice for detachment and objectivity. Their high-frequency use of inanimate subjects may show that they wanted the data or evidence to be the focus of their studies and make the research “speak for itself” (Hyland, 2000a, p.95). They might have thought that opting for inanimate subjects would be likely to reduce the risk of opposition, and they did not want to hold personal accountability for their claims. While stating the aim of their studies, they employed inanimate subjects. The following examples show how Chinese writers showed detachment from the propositions:

- (1) “The study reiterates the link...”(C-3).
- (2) “This paper also offers discussions ...”(C-2)
- (3) “This article investigates how...” (C-13).

On the other hand, Turkish speakers of English benefitted from passives for claim-making and detachment. They also employed inanimate subjects.

(4) “In the light of relevant literature, the findings are discussed” (T-5).

(5) “Moreover, it was also found that ...” (T-8).

For both sides, employing hedges for claim-making is of no surprise as Hyland (2005b) emphasizes that “claim-making is risky because it can contradict existing literature or challenge the research of one's readers, which means that arguments must accommodate readers' expectations” (p.179). It helps writers to avoid face-threatening acts by mitigating the strength of the proposition. In this study, it was seen that L2 writers from different linguistic backgrounds opted to use different hedging strategies to reduce their personal involvement. This finding is in line with Liu and Huang's (2017, p.31) study in which it was observed that Chinese writers preceded the hedging verbs with a research noun such as "the model", "this paper" and “concealed the authorial presence in constructing the claim”. This may prompt a new understanding whether scholars in certain linguistic communities tend to show inclination towards some sort of hedges and make it as a common practice, which can be discussed in further research.

Table 2. The Hedges Used by Turkish and Chinese Scholars

	<i>Epistemic adjectives</i>	<i>Epistemic adverbs</i>	<i>Epistemic lexical verbs</i>	<i>Epistemic nouns</i>	<i>Modal verbs</i>
Turkish scholars	a certain X (1) possible (1)	almost (1) largely (1) mainly (2) most(ly) (1) partially (1)	appear (1) believe (1) indicate (8) propose (1) perceive (6) offer (2) recommend (1) report (3) suggest (4)	assumption (1) implication (6) tendency (1)	could (2) might (1) should (5) would (1) can (5)
Chinese scholars	possible (2)	to certain extent (2) most (1) often (1) rather (1) relatively (2)	appear (2) argue (1) indicate (1) infer (1) interpret (1) offer (3) perceive (6) predict (1) propose (1) report (3) suggest (4) tend (1) support (1)	implication (8) recommendation (1)	could (2) may (1) might (1) should (1) can (2)

In Table 2, it was also evident that most hedging markers such as epistemic adjectives and epistemic adverbs had a limited use in the abstracts. Still, with the help of some adverbs, scholars preferred to avoid preciseness and show academic modesty.

(6) “This issue is relatively under-explored...” (C-14).

(7) “The analyses indicate that lecturers are largely supportive of...” (T-1).

Both Turkish and Chinese speakers of English used a roughly equivalent number of discourse-oriented verbs like *indicate*, *suggest*, and *offer*, and they are often combined with inanimate subjects in Turkish and Chinese scholars' abstracts. While presenting the results of their studies, they did not prefer displaying confidence. While examining Chinese scholars' writing practices, Mu et al. (2015, p.142) highlight, “modesty and respect are considered to be virtues” in the discourse community. From the reviewed literature, Abdi (2002) found that hedges were more often used than boosters to represent the findings. In the following excerpts, this preference can also be noticed:

(8) “This study suggests that ...” (T-14).

(9) “The analysis suggests that ...” (C-20).

Perceive (f=6) was the highest frequency lexical hedging verb in both Turkish and Chinese writers' RA abstracts.

(10) “The study aimed to assess (...) as perceived by preservice teachers” (T-8).

(11) “Moreover, they perceived that...” (C-15).

In terms of modal verbs, *should* is the most frequent modal verb used by Turkish scholars.

(12) “University administrations should also have realistic expectations of lecturers” (T-7).

Via the modals *can*, *could*, writers mitigated the certainty of their arguments.

(13) “In light of the growing agreement on the critical impact that materials can have on teaching and learning, ...” (C-8).

(14) “Exclusionary practices of ELT departments can be ascribed to Turkey's political regimes that...” (C-19).

(15) “...they believed the use of project-based learning could promote young learners' English language learning...” (T-12).

As for epistemic nouns, *implication* has been detected in the last move of the abstracts as the most frequent hedging in both Turkish and Chinese scholars' abstracts.

(16) “The results offer practical implications for...” (T-1).

(17) “This article discusses the pedagogical implications of...” (C-3).

More scrutiny of the findings revealed that there is a far greater use of hedges in both Chinese and Turkish scholars' abstracts. As can be seen in Table 3, both Chinese and Turkish writers deployed boosters less than hedges. This is in line with Gillaerts and Van de Velde's (2010) study as in their study, similarly, they found out that interactional metadiscourse markers were more sparsely used in the recent abstracts in their corpus, and if they were used, there was a notable increase in the use of hedges.

Although Hyland (2000a) underlined the importance of boosters within the competitive nature of scientific communities and the persuasive function of RA abstract, in this study, it was seen that hedges were more frequent than boosters. This may be explained by different

dynamics. One possible explanation can be Gillaerts and Van de Velde's (2010) argument: “scholarly credibility is currently established by a deliberate, cautious expression of scientific claims” (pp.136-137). In Hu and Cao's (2011) study, the use of hedges was considered “a negative politeness strategy, a strategy intended to avoid or minimize impositions on the audience” (p.2084). This can be conceived as one of the possible reasons for Chinese and Turkish writers’ tendency in terms of hedging strategies. Another possible reason is that one can see adherence to Anglo-based conventions in the reviewed literature as L1 writers of English show the inclination to use more hedges than boosters. Similarly, in her cross-cultural study between Anglophone and Czech linguists, Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016) found out that “Anglophone linguists tend to present their reasoning as plausible rather than certain, thus opening a dialogic space for readers to dispute their opinions or procedural decisions” (p.176). This finding is understandable as Chinese and Turkish writers show efforts to publish in high-ranking journals, and “the use of metadiscourse not only helps writers to advance their arguments but also serves to showcase their competence within the discourse community” (Mu et al., 2015, p.137).

Table 3. Frequency of Boosters in the Abstracts of Turkish and Chinese Scholars

<i>Boosters</i>	<i>Abstracts of Turkish speakers of English</i>		<i>Abstracts of Chinese speakers of English</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Epistemic adjectives	2	0.06	3	0.09
Epistemic adverbs	8	0.25	5	0.15
Epistemic nouns	1	0.03	1	0.03
Epistemic lexical verbs	12	0.38	18	0.57
Modal verbs	1	0.03	-	-
Total	24	0.76	27	0.85

Table 4. The Boosters Used by Turkish and Chinese Scholars

	<i>Epistemic adjectives</i>	<i>Epistemic adverbs</i>	<i>Epistemic lexical verbs</i>	<i>Epistemic nouns</i>	<i>Modal verbs</i>
Turkish scholars	clear(1), essential (1)	more than (6), particularly (1), in particular (1)	establish (1), demonstrate (1), manifest (1) perceive (6), show (3)	evidence (1)	couldn't (1)

Chinese scholars	clear (1), essential (1), reliable (1)	more than (5)	conclude (3), known (1), perceive (6), prove (1), show (6), establish (1)	evidence (1) -
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With verbs such as *show*, Chinese and Turkish writers suggested the strength of the relationship between data and claims. They preferred to use boosters to highlight the findings which support their initial hypotheses. This finding is in accordance with Mu et al.'s (2015) study. Here are some excerpts from the RA abstracts:

(18) “The results showed that EFL students’ language mindsets, four aspects of engagement, perceived instrumentality...” (T-13).

(19) “Findings show that they have constructed a range of hybrid identities...” (C-2).

As for the adjectives, *more than* is the most frequently used adjective by Turkish and Chinese scholars in the corpus.

Overall, the contrastive analysis of RA abstracts by Turkish and Chinese researchers has shown that there are similarities in the way they use hedging and boosting strategies. The reasons for this seem to result from the intended readers, the nature of the discourse community, and the use of English as a lingua franca. As for a comparison of findings of similar studies, it was also noticed in Lotfi et al.’s (2019) study that as L2 speakers of English, Iranian and Chinese students performed in the use of hedges similarly.

Conclusion

This article intended to shed light on cross-cultural variations of hedges and boosters in RA abstracts written by Turkish and Chinese researchers. Making overt conclusions about writers from different linguistic backgrounds is not within the scope of this study. Yet it was seen that both Turkish and Chinese scholars used hedges in their abstracts. This can show their reservation rather than commitment. On the other hand, boosters ranked behind the frequency of hedges. Both groups of writers seem to be exercising similar frequency of hedges and boosters as they are in the same disciplinary community, and writing a good succinct abstract is the goal of researchers. The finding that boosters were not as common as hedges requires further investigation. Different linguistic backgrounds may exert some influence on writers’ lexical choices, but the corpus from a single discipline may not provide sufficient findings to allow generalizations about the metadiscourse choices in Turkish and Chinese RA abstracts. This study has been restricted to a single discipline and a restricted choice of metadiscourse markers. Differences between two linguistic backgrounds can be traced in different disciplines. As the abstracts are from the field of ELT, writers’ consciousness and proficiency in English can also be effective in their choices. Further research from different disciplines and linguistic backgrounds can give us a new perspective on the role of hedges and boosters in different cultures and genres. In further research, more studies should be conducted about the cross-cultural variation of hedges and boosters exploring different disciplines in ELF settings as there are still very few studies comparing two non-native groups of writers. It is also advised that

additional research should be done on metadiscourse in other academic writing genres that bridge disciplinary and linguistic boundaries. This can comprise different sections of research articles, encyclopedias, theses, dissertations, and book reviews from several academic fields.

As for the implications of this study, the results of metadiscourse studies necessitate that undergraduate and graduate students should be given special attention to foster their conscious noticing of metadiscourse markers so that they can make informed choices in terms of metadiscourse markers. Additionally, textbook authors can design coursebooks so that students learn enough about the various kinds of metadiscourse components and how they are used in texts. Students can be given a tentative list of hedges and boosters with examples from the literature. In this way, students can be prepared better for their future writings to balance the strength of their arguments and consider possible reader expectations and opposition. Supporting Kaya and Yagız's (2020) argument, “with no or little awareness of writing conventions and norms, the construction of a research article becomes difficult” (p.391). In addition, as a separate genre, RA abstract writing can be part of academic writing courses.

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The Effect of Authorship and Writing Skills Course on Secondary School Students' Writing Attitudes and Writing Self-Efficacy

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the effect of the Authorship and Writing Skills course (elective) on middle school students' attitudes towards writing and writing self-efficacy. Case study, a quantitative research method, was employed. The sample of the study consisted of 75 (45 female, 30 male) sixth and eighth graders studying in a state school. "Writing Attitude Scale For Middle School Students" (WASMSS) developed by Can and Topçuoğlu Ünal (2017) and "Writing Self-Efficacy Scale" (WSS) adapted by Demir (2014) were used to collect data. The scales were administered to the students twice, at the beginning of the semester (i.e. pre-test) and at the end (i.e. post-test). Simple binary correlation test and independent samples t-test were employed in data analysis. There was a positive, moderate-level and significant relationship between the students' attitudes towards writing and their writing self-efficacy perceptions both before and after taking the course. The students' pre-test and post-test scores in both scales did not show a significant difference based on gender and grade levels.

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Statement of Publication Ethics

The study has been conducted by following the publication ethics as approved Yozgat Bozok University Ethics Committee 26/04 – 20.10.2021

Conflict of Interest

The author declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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Introduction

As a way for people to express themselves, writing is an action that takes place both on paper or similar surfaces and in electronic platforms through devices such as computers, tablets and smart phones. Writing can be considered as a coding process in which we express our thoughts and wishes, and requires the operation and coordination of physical and mental processes. This action that entails monitoring certain rules and processes in order to be carried out successfully is one of the areas of linguistic realization along with other language skills. In the literature, there is a consensus that in addition to being one of the basic language skills and being addressed in a holistic way, writing is more difficult to learn than other skills and requires more effort.

Writing skills are developed with a holistic approach together with other skills in first language education. Writing that is addressed with a process-based approach is a skill that is aimed to be developed together with reading, listening and speaking skills. It is taught with an integrated-skills approach within the Turkish language course in middle schools, and is developed and supported in the scope of an elective course "Authorship and Writing Skills". This course focuses on students' development of writing and managing writing processes. It aims to enable students to be able to clearly put their feelings and thoughts into a text, create types of texts that are necessary to learn in daily life by considering form and content, and overcome writing anxiety (Kartop, 2019, p.125). For students to achieve these outcomes, the Authorship and Writing Skills course curriculum was prepared by the Ministry of National Education in 2012, and updated in 2018.

The curriculum that started to be implemented as of the 2012-2013 school year was developed based on a process-based instructional approach. It included an approach, skills and outcomes, and an instructor's manual with writing levels, writing process, text structure and evaluation. Skills include competencies related to writing at the sentence, paragraph and text level, and outcomes contain knowledge, skills, attitudes and practices (Çarkıt & Karadüz, 2015, p. 366).

The curriculum updated in 2018 was also process-based. It consists of the competencies related to the writing process, and sections on preparation, planning, development, editing and presentation. For the writing process to achieve the desired goals, the processes such as preparation for writing, planning, reviewing and developing writing, editing and presentation are aimed to be designed and carried out by students in teacher-guided activities (MEB, 2018). The outcomes in the Authorship and Writing Skills course curriculum (MEB, 2018) were prepared in accordance with students' developmental characteristics. The principle of applicability should be considered in preparing writing activities. Any activity that is prepared based on the curriculum should equip students with skills such as thinking, comparing and combining. The development and review steps of written communication activities should include self-, peer- and group-evaluation activities. Students' achievement of outcomes in the Authorship and Writing Skills course that highlight student success in the whole writing process can potentially influence psychological elements such as their attitudes and self-efficacy perceptions regarding writing. In this regard, research studies in the literature have investigated the relationship between attitudes towards writing and writing self-efficacy perceptions and their positive

effects on the writing success (e.g. Bandura, 1993; Pajares, Johnson & Usher, 2007; Graham, Berninger & Fan, 2007; Martinez, Ned & Jeffrey, 2011; Susar Kırmızı & Beydemir, 2012; Ulu, 2018; Polatcan & Şahin, 2019).

Literature Review

Attitude

Psychology can be associated with many fields, but particularly with education. It is possible to analyse various psychological characteristics for the development of language skills in first language education. In this respect, psychological factors cannot be ignored in the development of writing skills. Attitudes come first among these psychological factors. An attitude is an individual's emotional readiness or tendency to accept or reject a particular person, group, institution or thought (Özgüven, 1994 as cited in Polatcan & Şahin, 2019).

According to De Houwer, Thomas & Baeyens (2001), attitudes have three components that are affective, behavioural and cognitive. Attitudes are thus shaped based on the feelings and behaviours towards objects and facts, and acquired/learned knowledge and beliefs about them. Writing can be affected positively or negatively by one's feelings, behaviours, beliefs and knowledge. The act of writing can make one feel happy or unhappy (Graham, Berninger & Fan, 2007, p.518). As a result, students' experiences in writing, either positive or negative, lead students to develop positive or negative attitudes towards writing. These attitudes that develop as a factor directly affect students' writing performance (Polatcan & Şahin, 2019, p. 741).

In the literature, writing skills and attitudes towards writing have been examined from various perspectives. Ulu (2018) investigated the relationship between elementary school fourth graders' writing dispositions and attitudes and their writing achievement, and concluded that writing disposition and attitudes positively affected writing achievement. Temel & Katrancı (2019) focused on the relationship between written communication skills, attitude towards writing and writing anxiety, and found that attitudes towards writing differed significantly based on gender, the educational level of parents, keeping a diary and the number of books in the school. Moreover, the need to determine the effect of attitudes towards writing has led to the development of the Writing Attitude Scale by Tavşanlı, Bilgin & Yıldırım (2019), and the Attitude Scale for Digital Writing by Susar Kırmızı, Kapıkıran & Akkaya (2021).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy perceptions are another important psychological factor that has an effect on writing skills. Writing self-efficacy is a variable that positively affects the attitudes towards writing (Polatcan & Şahin, 2019). Bandura (1986, p.94) defines self-efficacy perceptions as individuals' judgments about their skills to organize and perform the actions necessary to achieve specified types of performance. Self-efficacy perceptions influence thought patterns, actions, and emotional arousal. The higher the evoked self-efficacy level of individuals, the higher their level of achievement and the lower their emotional arousal (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). Self-efficacy perceptions that reveal their effect

on cognitive, motivational, affective and choice processes contribute to academic development at three different levels. They thus determine students' beliefs, desires and motivation in regulating their own learning and managing academic activities, and their academic achievement (Bandura, 1993, p. 117).

Writing self-efficacy has been demonstrated to be consistently related to academic performance, including writing achievement. Self-efficacy conceptually refers to special abilities, and writing requires many skills and strategies and knowledge as well as self-regulation (MacArthur, Zoi & Graham, 2016, p.32). Writing self-efficacy is defined as one's belief in his/her writing ability. Independent of students' actual writing ability, Bandura's findings show that higher writing self-efficacy contributes to better writing performance (Martinez, Ned & Jeffrey, 2011, p.352). Research findings (e.g. Shell, Murphy & Bruning, 1989; Schunk & Swartz, 1993; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Pajares & Johnson, 1994, 1996; Rankin, Bruning & Timme, 1994; Shell, Colvin & Bruning, 1995; Wachholz & Etheridge, 1996; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Pajares & Valiante 1997, 1999, 2001) indicate that self-efficacy and writing performance are consistently related to each other (Pajares, Johnson & Usher, 2007, p. 105).

In the Turkish context, studies on writing self-efficacy perceptions include those who learn Turkish as a foreign language (Büyükkiz, Uyar & Balcı, 2013; Altunkaya & Ateş, 2017; Erdil, 2017), elementary school students (Bulut, 2017), middle school students (Arslan, 2018) and teacher candidates (Batar & Aydın, 2014; Altunkaya & Topuzkanamış, 2018). The aim of the present study is to investigate whether the Authorship and Writing Skills course has an effect on students' attitudes towards writing and their self-efficacy perceptions, and if there was an effect, in what direction. With this purpose, the study focuses on the primary research question, "What is the effect of the Authorship and Writing Skills course on students' attitudes towards writing and writing self-efficacy perceptions?" In accordance with this primary question, the following secondary research questions are addressed:

1. What is the relationship between middle school students' attitudes towards writing and their writing self-efficacy perceptions before and after taking the course?
2. What is the level of middle school students' attitudes towards writing and their writing self-efficacy perceptions before and after taking the course?
3. Is there a difference between middle school students' attitudes towards writing in the pre-test and post-test scores?
4. Do middle school students' pre-test and post-test writing attitude scores differ based on gender and grade level?
5. Is there a difference in middle school students' levels of writing self-efficacy perceptions in the pre-test and post-test scores?
6. Do middle school students' pre-test and post-test writing self-efficacy perception scores differ based on gender and grade level?

Methodology

Research design and publication ethics

This study was conducted in accordance with the case study design, a quantitative research method. Necessary permission and approval was taken from the Ethics Committee of Yozgat Bozok University (Date: 20.10.2021, no.: 26/04)

Participants

The population of the study consisted of middle school sixth (n=41) and eighth graders (n=34) studying in the Yozgat province and who chose the Authorship and Writing Skills course as an elective. The participants were selected through convenience sampling, and the sample contained 75 sixth and eighth graders, 45 girls and 30 boys, studying at Sefaatli Yavuz Sultan Selim Middle School.

Data collection and analysis

In the present study, the "Writing Attitude Scale For Middle School Students" (WASMSS) developed by Can & Topçuoğlu Ünal (2017) and the "Writing Self-Efficacy Scale" (WSS) adapted by Demir (2014) were used to collect data.

Writing Attitude Scale for Middle School Students (WASMSS) consists of 23 items on interests, perceptions and contribution. The sub-dimension "interests" (10 items) explained 43.4% of the total variance, "perceptions" (six items) 26% and "contribution" (seven items) 30.6%. In addition, there is a reverse scored item included in the scale. The high score obtained from each sub-dimension of the scale indicates that individuals possess the characteristic that the relevant sub-dimension evaluates. The average of the total score in the sub-dimensions is taken to calculate the score obtained in the scale.

Writing Self-Efficacy Scale (WSS) consists of two sub-dimension with a total of 10 items including five items each sub-dimension. The two factors together explained 60% of the variance related to the scale and the factor loading values of the items belonging to the first sub-dimension ranged between 0.776 and 0.658. The item-test correlations varied between 0.45 and 0.68, and the factor loading values of the items in the second sub-dimension were between 0.714 and 0.767. The internal consistency coefficient was 0.88 for the whole scale, and 0.80 and 0.84 for the sub-dimensions, respectively.

Procedure

The data were collected in the spring semester of the 2021-2022 academic year. At the beginning of the semester, WASMSS and WSS were administered to the sixth and eighth graders who chose the Authorship and Writing Skills course. The classes were then taught by the course teacher for two hours a week throughout the semester in accordance with the course curriculum. At the end of the semester, WASMSS and WSS were re-administered to the students as a post-test. The students' responses to the scale items were analysed by the researcher as pre-test and post-test data.

Prior to the analysis, missing values, outliers and suitable sample size assumption were checked. Missing values were given the average values, and there were no outliers in the dataset. Whether the scores distributed normally was checked to determine which statistical test to use to determine the difference between the students' scores in pre-test

and post-test administrations of WASMSS and WSS. Since the pre-test and post-test scores showed normal distribution ($p > .05$), the difference between the scores was calculated using parametric tests.

Results

The level of the relationship between the middle school students' attitudes towards writing and their self-efficacy perceptions before and after taking the course is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Spearman Correlation Values for the Relationship Between Middle School Students' Attitudes Towards Writing and Their Writing Self-Efficacy Perceptions

Spearman Correlation Coefficient	r	p
Writing Attitudes*Writing Self-Efficacy Before the Course	0.361	0.001
Writing Attitudes*Writing Self-Efficacy After the Course	0.468	0.000

The findings revealed a positive, moderate-level and statistically significant relationship between the students' attitudes towards writing and their self-efficacy perceptions ($r=0.361$, $p<0.01$; $r=0.468$, $p<0.01$). The students' mean scores regarding their attitudes towards writing and writing self-efficacy perceptions before and after taking the course are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Mean Scores for Attitudes Towards Writing and Writing Self-Efficacy

	X	SD	df	p
WASMSS Pre-Test Total Score	83,3300	17,35211	75	,464
WASMSS Post-Test Total Score	84,8056			
WSS Pre-Test Total Score	36,4964	6,70289	75	,824
WSS Post-Test Total Score	36,6694			

$N = 75$, $p > .05$

The middle school students' attitudes towards writing were found to be at a good level based on the pre-test and post-test scores they had in WASMSS (WASMSS 115 - 93 very good; 92 - 70 good). In a similar vein, their writing self-efficacy perceptions were also at a good level as was revealed in the pre-test and post-test scores they had in WSS (WSS 50 – 41 is very good; 40 – 31 is good). A linear relationship can thus be argued to exist between middle school students' attitudes towards writing and their writing self-efficacy perceptions. The results of the t-test conducted to determine whether there was a

statistically significant difference between the middle school students' attitudes towards writing in the pre-test and post-test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Difference Between Pre-Test and Post-Test in WASMSS

	Group	X	SD	df	t	p
WAS MSS	Pre- Test	-1.47564	17.35221	74	-.736	.464
	Post- test					

$N = 75, p > .05$

Table 3 showed that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the middle school students in WASMSS ($p > .05$). Table 3 presents the results of the t-test conducted to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the middle school students' attitudes towards writing in the pre-test and post-test based on gender.

Table 4. Difference in WASMSS Scores Based on Gender

	Gender	N	X	SD	t	df	p
WAS MSS Pre- test	Female	45	89.3929	15.25844	3.882	73	.000
	Male	30	74.2356	18.36830	3.741	54.252	.000
WAS MSS Post- test	Female	45	88.7950	16.13819	2.477	73	.016
	Male	30	78.8215	18.41905	2.412	56.522	.019

$N = 75, p < .05$

The middle school students' pre- and post-test scores in WASMSS significantly differed based on gender ($p < .05$). The girls were found to have more positive attitudes towards boys when the pre- and post-test mean scores were examined.

Table 5 presents the results of the t-test conducted to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the middle school students' attitudes towards writing in the pre-test and post-test based on grade level.

Table 5. Difference in WASMSS Scores Based on Grade Level

	Grade	N	X	SD	t	df	p
WASMSS Pre-test	Sixth grade	41	80.5167	18.26184	-1.493	73	.140
	Eighth grade	34	86.7225	17.50178	-1.499	71.443	.138
WASMSS Post-test	Sixth grade	41	83.4995	19.07673	-.701	73	.486
	Eighth grade	34	86.3806	15.93292	-.713	72.993	.478

$N = 75, p < .05$

The middle school students' pre- and post-test scores in WASMSS showed no significant difference based on grade level ($p > .05$). Nevertheless, the students' attitudes towards writing were at a good level.

The results of the t-test conducted to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the middle school students' writing self-efficacy perceptions in the pre-test and post-test are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Difference in Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores in WSS

	Group	X	SD	df	t	p
WSS	Pre-Test	-,17297	6,70289	74	-.223	.824
	Post-test					

$N = 75, p > .05$

No significant difference was observed between the students' pre-test and post-test scores in WSS ($p > .05$). Table 7 presents the results of the t-test conducted to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the middle school students' writing self-efficacy perceptions in the pre-test and post-test based on gender.

Table 7. Difference in WSS Scores Based on Gender

	Gender	N	X	SD	t	df	p
WSS	Female	45	36,8444	6,91164	,527	73	.600
	Male	30	35,9743	7,15696	,523	60,785	.603
WSS	Female	45	37,0267	8,10026	,475	73	.636
	Male	30	36,1333	7,80245	,478	63,902	.634

$N = 75, p > .05$

The findings revealed no significant difference between the students' pre-test and post-test scores based on gender ($p > .05$). Table 8 presents the results of the t-test conducted to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the middle school students' writing self-efficacy perceptions in the pre-test and post-test based on grade level.

Table 8. Difference in WSS Scores Based on Grade Level

	Grade	N	X	SD	t	df	p
WSS	Sixth grade	41	36,2535	7,02345	-,329	73	.743
	Eighth grade	34	36,7893	7,01187	-,329	70,496	.743
WSS	Sixth grade	41	37,1328	8,19641	,552	73	.582
	Eighth grade	34	36,1105	7,70711	,556	71,814	.580

$N = 75, p > .05$

The findings revealed no significant difference between the students' pre-test and post-test scores in WSS based on grade level ($p > .05$).

Discussion

The present study was conducted with the data obtained from middle school sixth and eighth grade students taking the Authorship and Writing Skills course. The findings revealed a positive moderate relationship between the students' attitudes and self-efficacy perceptions both before and after taking the course. Similar findings are reported in the literature. Bulut (2017) investigated the effect of writing self-efficacy and attitudes towards writing on writing achievement by means of structural equation modelling, and found a positive and significant effect. Sarkhoush (2003) reported a positive relationship ($r=.606$, $p<.05$) between writing self-efficacy and attitudes towards writing English as a foreign language student. Likewise, Williams (2012) found a positive relationship between writing self-efficacy and attitudes towards writing. The present study examined the effect of an elective course on writing self-efficacy perceptions and attitudes towards writing, rather than focusing on the predictive power of these variables. The results are also of significance in terms of showing the relationship between these two psychological factors. The students who chose the course had a good level of attitudes towards writing (92-70) and writing self-efficacy perceptions (40-31) before and after taking the course. Students selecting the Authorship and Writing Skills course can be expected to have positive attitudes and self-efficacy perceptions related to writing. Based on this result, it can be said that their positive attitudes could have been the reason they chose this course. This is because attitudes affect behaviours towards objects and phenomena (De Hower et al., 2001). However, no significant increase was observed in the students' attitudes towards writing and self-efficacy perceptions as a result of the course based on the pre-test and post-test results. In a study on teachers' views on writing skills in the context of the Authorship and Writing Skills course, Çarkıt & Karadüz (2015) concluded that it would be beneficial for teachers to receive in-service training to be able to fully internalise the curriculum and course outcomes. In another study examining the effect of the Authorship and Writing Skills Course on students' written communication skills, Karatop (2019) reported that the students in the experimental group had a higher rate of achieving the course outcomes compared to those in the control group, but the majority of the students were not able to do achieve the outcomes. He also stated that this was due to some of the outcomes not being up to the students' level.

Although there was no significant difference in the students' attitudes towards writing in the pre-test and post-test results based on grade levels, it was concluded that girls had higher attitudes than boys based on gender. This is consistent with the results reported relevant studies in the literature (Knudson, 1995; Graham, Berninger & Fan 2007; Graham, Berninger & Abbot 2012; Korkmaz, 2015; Çocuk, Yelken & Özer, 2016; Temel & Katrancı, 2019). The pre-test and post-test result also showed that there was no difference in the students' writing self-efficacy perceptions based on gender and grade level. This is supported by various studies in the literature. For example, Ekici (2008), Ülper & Bağcı (2012) and Eggleston (2017) reported that self-efficacy perceptions did not significantly differ based on gender. Similarly, Korkut & Akkoyunlu (2008), İşeri & Ünal (2012), Baş & Şahin (2012) and Seçkin & Başbay (2013) revealed no significant difference based on grade level. This can be interpreted as that the Writing and Authorship

Skills course does not have a significant effect on students' attitudes towards writing and writing self-efficacy perceptions.

Conclusion

The findings obtained in the present study show that the Authorship and Writing Skills course do not have a significant effect on students' attitudes towards writing and their writing self-efficacy perceptions. As Çarkıt & Karadüz (2015) and Karatop (2019) state, this can be said to be due to the teacher who teaches the course or the outcomes included the curriculum. In addition, the fact that the sample of this study was selected from a school that has students coming from neighbouring villages and districts by shuttle may also be the reason for obtaining these results. In this regard, the following suggestions can be offered for further studies and the course:

- Studies on the effectiveness of this course can be conducted by focusing on larger samples and in different school types.
- The awareness of teachers teaching this course can be enhanced with respect to the course content and outcomes.
- Turkish language teachers can be encouraged to specialise in basic language skills, and in this way, expert teachers can deliver elective courses.

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Dil Eğitimi ve Araştırmaları Dergisi

Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri Dersinin Ortaokul Öğrencilerinin Yazma Tutumlarına ve Yazma Öz-Yeterliklerine Etkisi

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ÖZET

Bu çalışmada Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri dersinin (seçmeli) ortaokul öğrencilerinin yazma tutumları ve yazma özyeterlikleri üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir. Çalışma, nicel araştırma yöntemlerine bağlı olarak durum belirleme desenine göre gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmanın örneklemini bir devlet okulunda öğrenim gören 75 (45 kadın, 30 erkek) 6. ve 8. sınıf öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada veri toplamak için Can ve Topçuoğlu Ünal (2017) tarafından geliştirilen “Ortaokul Öğrencilerine Yönelik Yazma Tutum Ölçeği” (OÖYYTÖ) ve Demir (2014) tarafından uyarlanan “Yazma Öz Yeterlik Ölçeği” (YÖÖ) kullanılmıştır. Ölçekler öğrencilere dönem başında (ön test) ve dönem sonunda (son test) olmak üzere iki kez uygulanmıştır. Elde edilen verilerin analizinde basit ikili korelasyon testi ve bağımsız örneklem t testi kullanılmıştır. Öğrencilerin yazmaya yönelik tutumları ile öz-yeterlik algı düzeyleri arasında hem ders öncesi hem de sonrasında orta düzeyde pozitif ve anlamlı bir ilişki vardır. Öğrencilerin yazmaya yönelik tutumları ile yazma öz-yeterlik algılarının ön test ve son test sonuçları cinsiyet ve sınıf düzeyi açısından anlamlı bir farklılık göstermemektedir.

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Giriş

İnsanların kendilerini ifade yollarından biri olan yazma, günümüzde gerek kâğıt ve benzeri bir zeminde gerekse bilgisayar, tablet, telefon gibi aygıtlar aracılığıyla elektronik ortamlarda gerçekleşen bir eylemdir. Düşüncelerimizi, isteklerimizi ifade etmede bir kodlama işlemi olarak da düşünebileceğimiz yazma aynı zamanda fiziksel ve zihinsel süreçlerin işletilmesini, koordinasyonunu da gerektirir. Başarılı bir şekilde gerçekleştirilmesi için bir takım kuralların ve süreçlerin takibinin zorunlu olduğu bu eylem diğer dil becerileriyle birlikte dilsel gerçekleşme alanlarından birisidir. Alanyazında temel dil becerilerinin birbirini tamamlayan, bütüncül ele alınış biçiminin yanında yazma becerisinin diğerlerinden daha zor öğrenildiği ve daha fazla çaba gerektirdiği yönünde ortak kanaat bulunmaktadır.

Anadili eğitiminde, yazma becerisinin gelişimi diğer becerilerle birlikte bütüncül bir yaklaşımla gerçekleştirilmektedir. Süreç temelli ele alınan yazma, okuma, dinleme, konuşma becerileriyle birlikte iletişimsel olarak geliştirilmeye çalışılan bir beceridir. Ortaokullarda Türkçe dersi içerisinde diğer becerilerle birlikte ele alınan yazma becerisi aynı zamanda doğrudan “Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerisi Dersi” ile de geliştirilmeye ve desteklenmeye çalışılmaktadır. Bu dersle birlikte öğrencilerin yazma becerisi ve yazma süreçlerini yönetmedeki gelişimleri hedeflenmektedir. Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerisi dersi ile öğrencilerin duygu ve düşüncelerini açık biçimde metne dökebilmesi, gündelik yaşamda öğrenilmesi bir zorunluluk olan yazışmaları biçim ve içeriği gözeterek oluşturabilmesi, öğrenme sürecinde bir kaygı odağı olan yazma kaygısını aşabilmeleri hedeflenmektedir (Kartop, 2019, s.125). Öğrencilerin belirlenen bu hedeflere ulaşabilmeleri amacıyla Milli Eğitim Bakanlığınca Ortaokul ve İmam Hatip Ortaokulu Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri Dersi Öğretim Programı 2012 yılında hazırlanmış olup 2018 yılında yeniden güncellenmiştir.

2012 – 2013 eğitim öğretim yılında uygulamaya konulan program süreç temelli bir öğretim yaklaşımı esas alınarak hazırlanmış, öğretim programı kendi içerisinde yaklaşım, beceriler ve kazanımlar; uygulama kılavuzu ise yazma becerisinde düzeyler, yazma süreci, metin yapıları ile ölçme ve değerlendirme alt başlıklarında ele alınmıştır. Programda beceriler, dönem sonunda cümle, paragraf ve metin düzeyinde yazmaya yönelik kazanılacak hedefleri; kazanımlar ise bilgi, beceri, tutum ve uygulamaları kapsamaktadır (Çarkıt ve Karadüz, 2015, s. 366).

2018 yılında güncellenen program yine süreç temelli hazırlanmıştır. Programda yazma süreci ile ilgili yeterlilikler hazırlık, planlama, geliştirme, düzeltme ve sunum ana başlıklarıyla bu başlıklara ait alt kazanımlar yer almaktadır. Yazma sürecinin istenen amaçlara ulaşabilmesi için öğretmen rehberliğindeki çalışmalarda yazmaya hazırlık, yazılı anlatımı planlama, gözden geçirme ve geliştirme, düzeltme ve sunum gibi süreçlerin öğrenci tarafından tasarlanması ve gerçekleştirilmesi hedeflenmektedir (MEB, 2018). Ortaokul ve İmam Hatip Ortaokulu Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri Dersi Öğretim Programında (MEB, 2018) kazanımlar öğrencilerin gelişim özellikleri göz önünde bulundurularak hazırlanmıştır. Yazma etkinliklerinin hazırlanmasında uygulanabilirlik ilkesi göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Programa göre hazırlanacak etkinlikler öğrencide düşünme, karşılaştırma, bir araya getirme gibi becerileri kazandıracak şekilde olmalıdır.

Yazılı anlatım çalışmalarının geliştirilme ve düzeltilme aşamalarında öz, akran ve grupla değerlendirme etkinliklerine yer verilmelidir. Yazma sürecinin tamamında öğrencinin başarısına odaklanılan Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri dersinin kazanımlarının öğrenciler tarafından gerçekleştirilmesi öğrencilerin yazmaya karşı tutum ve özyeterlik algıları gibi psikolojik unsurlara etki edecektir. Alanyazında yazmaya karşı tutum ve özyeterlik algılarının yazma ile ilişkisine ve yazma başarısına olumlu etkisine yönelik çalışmalar bulunmaktadır (Bandura, 1993; Pajares, Johnson & Usher, 2007; Graham, Berninger & Fan, 2007; Martinez, Ned & Jeffrey, 2011; Susar Kırmızı ve Beydemir, 2012; Ulu, 2018; Polatcan ve Şahin, 2019 vb.).

Kavramsal Çerçeve

Tutum

Psikoloji pek çok alanla ilişkilendirilebilir. Bu alanların başında da eğitim gelmektedir. Anadili eğitiminde becerilerin gelişimine yönelik çeşitli psikolojik incelemeler yapmak mümkündür. Yazma becerisinin gelişiminde de psikolojik etkenler göz ardı edilemez. Bu psikolojik etkenlerin başında da tutum gelir. Tutum, bireyin belirli bir kişi, grup, kurum veya düşünce olarak kabul etmeye veya reddetmeye yönelik duygusal hazırlığı veya eğilimidir (Özgüven, 1994; akt. Polatcan ve Şahin, 2019).

De Houwer, Thomas & Baeyens (2001) tutumların duyuşsal, davranışsal ve bilişsel olmak üzere üç bileşeni olduğunu belirtir. Buna göre tutum, nesnelere ve olgulara yönelik hissedilen duygular, nesne ve olgulara yönelik davranışlar ve bunlara yönelik edinilmiş/öğrenilmiş bilgi ve inançlara göre şekillenir. Bir tutum nesnesi/olgusu olarak yazma da kişinin duygu, davranış, inanç ve bilgilerinden olumlu ya da olumsuz yönde etkilenebilir. Yazma eylemi bireyin kendisini mutlu ya da mutsuz hissetmesine neden olabilir (Graham, Berninger & Fan, 2007, s.518). Sonuç olarak öğrencilerin geçmişte yazmaya yönelik olumlu ya da olumsuz deneyimleri, öğrencilerin yazmaya karşı olumlu ya da olumsuz tutumlar geliştirmelerine neden olmaktadır. Bir etken olarak geliştirilen bu tutumlar öğrencilerin yazma başarısını doğrudan etkilemektedir (Polatcan ve Şahin, 2019, s. 741).

Alanyazında yazma becerisi ve bu beceriye karşı oluşturulan tutumlar çeşitli yönlerden incelenmiştir. Ulu (2018) ilkökul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin yazma eğilim ve tutumları ile yazma başarıları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelediği çalışmada yazma eğilim ve tutumunun yazma başarısını olumlu etkilediği sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Temel ve Katrancı (2019) yazılı anlatım becerisi, yazmaya yönelik tutum ile yazma kaygısı arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemeyi amaçladıkları çalışmalarında yazmaya yönelik tutumun öğrencilerin cinsiyetine, ebeveynlerinin öğrenim durumuna, günlük tutma ve okuldaki kitap sayısına göre anlamlı düzeyde farklılık gösterdiği sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Tutumun yazma üzerindeki etkisi ve bunun doğru biçimde belirlenebilmesi ihtiyacından yola çıkarak Tavşanlı, Bilgin ve Yıldırım (2019) Yazmaya İlişkin Tutum Ölçeğinin Türkçeye Uyarlama Çalışması; Susar Kırmızı, Kapıkıran ve Akkaya (2021) da “Dijital Ortamda Yazmaya İlişkin Tutum Ölçeği: Ölçek Geliştirme Çalışması” nı gerçekleştirmiştir.

Özyeterlik

Yazma becerisi üzerine etkisi olan diğer önemli bir psikolojik etken de özyeterlik algısıdır. Yazma özyeterliği yazma tutumunu olumlu yönde etkileyen bir değişkendir (Polatcan ve Şahin, 2019). Bandura (1986, s.94) özyeterlik algısını kişilerin belirlenen performans türlerini elde etmek için gerekli eylemleri organize etme ve yürütme becerilerine ilişkin yargıları olarak tanımlar. Özyeterlik algıları, düşünce kalıplarını, eylemleri ve duygusal uyarılmayı etkiler. Bireylerin uyarılmış özyeterlik düzeyi ne kadar yüksek olursa, başarımları o kadar yüksek olur ve duygusal uyarılma o kadar düşük olur (Bandura, 1982, s.122). Bilişsel, güdüsel, duyusal ve seçim süreçleri üzerinde etkisini ortaya koyan özyeterlik algısı, akademik gelişime üç farklı seviyede katkıda bulunur. Buna göre öğrencilerin kendi öğrenmelerini düzenleme ve akademik faaliyetleri yönetme konusundaki etkinliklerine olan inançlarını, arzularını, motivasyon düzeylerini ve akademik başarılarını belirler (Bandura, 1993, s.117).

Yazma için özyeterlik, yazma başarısı da dâhil olmak üzere, akademik performansla tutarlı bir biçimde gösterilmiştir. Kavramsal olarak, özyeterlik özel becerilere atıfta bulunur ve yazma, kendinden düzenlemenin yanı sıra çok sayıda beceri, strateji ve bilgi gerektirir (MacArthur, Zoi & Graham, 2016, s.32). Yazma özyeterliği, kişinin yazma yeteneğine olan inancı olarak tanımlanır. Öğrencilerin gerçek yazma yeteneğinden bağımsız olarak, Bandura'nın bulguları daha yüksek yazma özyeterliğinin daha iyi yazma performansına katkıda bulunacağını göstermektedir (Martinez, Ned & Jeffrey, 2011, s.352). Shell, Murphy & Bruning, 1989; Schunk, Swartz, 1993; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Pajares & Johnson, 1994, 1996; Rankin, Bruning & Timme, 1994; Shell, Colvin & Bruning, 1995; Wachholz & Etheridge, 1996; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Pajares & Valiante 1997, 1999, 2001; vb. araştırmaların bulguları, özyeterlik ve yazma performanslarının ilişkili olduğunu tutarlı bir şekilde göstermiştir (Pajares, Johnson & Usher, 2007, s.105).

Türkiye’de yazma özyeterlik algısına yönelik çalışmalar Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenler (Büyükkiz, Uyar ve Balcı, 2013; Altunkaya ve Ateş, 2017; Erdil, 2017) ilkökul öğrencileri (Bulut, 2017), ortaokul öğrencileri (Arslan, 2018) ve öğretmen adayları (Batar ve Aydın, 2014; Altunkaya ve Topuzkanamış 2018) ve üzerinde yapılmıştır. Bu araştırmada ise Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri dersinin öğrencilerin yazmaya yönelik tutum ve özyeterlik algılarına bir etkisinin olup olmadığı, varsa bu etkinin ne yönde olduğu araştırılmıştır. Bu amaçla çalışmanın temel problem cümlesi “Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerisi dersinin öğrencilerin yazma tutum ve özyeterlik algılarına etkisi ne düzeydedir?” şeklinde belirlenmiştir. Problem cümlesine bağlı olarak alt problem cümleleri de şu şekilde düzenlenmiştir:

1. Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ders öncesi ve ders sonrası yazma tutumları ile yazma özyeterlik algıları arasındaki ilişki ne yöndedir?
2. Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ders öncesi ve sonrasında yazma tutumları ile yazma özyeterlik algıları ne düzeydedir?
3. Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına göre yazma tutumları arasında bir fark var mıdır?
4. Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına göre yazma tutumları;

- a) Cinsiyete göre farklılık göstermekte midir?
- b) Sınıf düzeylerine göre farklılık göstermekte midir?
- 5. Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına göre yazma özyeterlik algı düzeyleri arasında bir fark var mıdır?
- 6. Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına göre yazma özyeterlik algıları;
 - a) Cinsiyete göre farklılık göstermekte midir?
 - b) Sınıf düzeylerine göre farklılık göstermekte midir?

Yöntem

Araştırma deseni ve yayın etiği

Bu araştırma, nicel araştırma yöntemlerine bağlı olarak durum saptaması desenine göre yapılmıştır. Çalışmada Yozgat Bozok Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonu'nun 20.10.2021 tarih ve 26/04 numaralı kararınca etik bir sakınca bulunmadığı değerlendirilmiştir.

Örneklem

Araştırmanın evrenini Yozgat'ta öğrenim gören ve seçmeli olarak Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri dersini seçmiş ortaokul 6. (41) ile 8. sınıf (34) öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Örneklem ise kolay ulaşılabilir örneklem yöntemine göre Şefaati Yavuz Sultan Selim Ortaokulu'nda öğrenim gören 75 (45 kadın, 30 erkek) 6. ve 8. sınıf öğrencilerinden oluşturulmuştur.

Verilerin toplanması ve çözümlenmesi

Araştırmada verilerin toplanmasında Can ve Topçuoğlu Ünal (2017) tarafından geliştirilen "Ortaokul Öğrencilerine Yönelik Yazma Tutum Ölçeği" (OÖYYTÖ) ile Demir (2014) tarafından uyarlanan "Yazma Öz Yeterlik Ölçeği" (YÖÖ) kullanılmıştır.

Ortaokul Öğrencilerine Yönelik Yazma Tutum Ölçeği (OÖYYTÖ): OÖYYTÖ ilgi, algı ve katkı olmak üzere 23 maddeden oluşmaktadır. İlgi faktörü toplam varyansın %43,4'ünü (10 madde); algı faktörü toplam varyansın %26'sını (6 madde); katkı faktörü toplam varyansın %30,6'sını (7 madde) açıklamaktadır. Ayrıca ölçekte bir tane ters madde bulunmaktadır. Ölçeğin her bir alt boyutundan alınan yüksek puan bireyin ilgili alt boyutunun değerlendirdiği özelliğe sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Ölçek puanlanırken alt boyutların toplam puanın ortalaması alınmaktadır.

Yazma Öz Yeterlik Ölçeği" (YÖÖ): YÖÖ, iki alt faktörden oluşmaktadır. Birinci alt faktör 5, ikinci alt faktör 5 olmak üzere toplam 10 maddeden oluşmuştur. Birinci alt faktör 5, ikinci alt faktör de 5'er maddeden oluşmaktadır. Bu iki faktör birlikte ölçeğe ilişkin varyansın % 60'ını açıklamakta ve birinci bileşene ait maddelerin faktör yük değerleri 0,776 ile 0,658 arasındadır. Madde-test korelasyonları ise 0,45 ile 0,68 arasında değişmekle birlikte ikinci bileşene ait maddelerin faktör yük değerleri 0,714 ile 0,767 arasındadır. Madde-test korelasyonları ise 0,58 ile 0,70 arasında değişmekte; ölçeğin tümü için elde edilen iç tutarlık katsayısı 0.88, alt ölçekler için sırasıyla 0,80, 0,84'tür.

Araştırma Süreci

Araştırmada veri toplama süreci 2021 – 2022 eğitim öğretim yılının bahar döneminde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu süreçte dönemin başında Yazma ve Yazarlık Becerileri dersini seçen 6. ve 8. sınıf öğrencilerine ilk derste OÖYYTÖ ve YÖÖ ön test olarak uygulanmıştır. Daha sonra dersin öğretmeni tarafından Ortaokul ve İmam Hatip Ortaokulu Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri Dersi Öğretim Programına (2018) uygun olarak dönem boyunca haftada iki saat dersler işlenmiştir. Dönem sonunda öğrencilere tekrar OÖYYTÖ ve YÖÖ son test olarak uygulanmıştır. Öğrencilerin anketlere verdiği cevaplar araştırmacı tarafından ön test ve son test verileri olarak işlenmiş ve analiz edilmiştir.

Analizlere başlamadan önce kayıp değerler, uç değerler ve örneklem büyüklüğünün uygunluğu varsayımı incelenmiştir. Veri setinde yer alan kayıp değerlere ortalama atanmıştır. Veri setinde uç değerler bulunmamaktadır. Öğrencilerin OÖYYTÖ ve YÖÖ ön test ve son test uygulamalarından aldıkları puanlar arasındaki farkı belirlemek amacıyla hangi tekniğin kullanılacağına karar vermek için puanların dağılımının normalliği incelenmiştir. Ön test ve son test puanları normal dağılıma ($p > .05$) uygun olduğu için puanlar arasındaki fark parametrik testler kullanılarak hesaplanmıştır.

Bulgular

Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ders öncesi ve ders sonrası yazma tutumları ile yazma özyeterlik algıları arasındaki ilişkinin düzeyi Çizelge 1'deki gibidir.

Çizelge 1. Ortaokul Öğrencilerinin Yazmaya Yönelik Tutum ve Yazma Öz Yeterlik Algı Düzeyleri Spearman İlişki Katsayı Değerleri

Spearman İlişki Katsayısı	r	p
Ders Öncesi Yazma Tutum*Yazma Özyeterlik	0.361	0.001
Ders Sonrası Yazma Tutum*Yazma Özyeterlik	0.468	0.000

Yukarıdaki çizelgeye göre öğrencilerin yazmaya yönelik tutumları ve özyeterlikleri arasında orta düzeyde pozitif istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır ($r=0.361$, $p<0.01$; $r=0.468$, $p<0.01$). Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ders öncesi ve sonrasında yazma tutumları ile yazma özyeterlik algılarının ne düzeyde olduğuna yönelik toplam puanların ortalama değerleri Çizelge 2'deki gibidir.

Çizelge 2. Yazmaya Yönelik Tutum ve Özyeterlik Toplam Puanların Ortalama Değerleri

OÖYYTÖ	\bar{x}	Ss	Sd	p
Ön Test	83,3300			
Toplam Puan		17,35211	75	,464
OÖYYTÖ	84,8056			
Son Test				
Toplam Puan				
YÖÖ Ön Test	36,4964			
Toplam Puan		6,70289	75	,824
YÖÖ Son Test	36,6694			
Toplam Puan				

$N = 75, p > .05$

Yukarıdaki çizelge incelendiğinde ortaokul öğrencilerinin OÖYYTÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puanlarının ortalamasına bakıldığında öğrencilerin yazmaya yönelik tutumlarının iyi düzeyde olduğu görülmektedir (OÖYYTÖ 115 – 93 çok iyi; 92 – 70 iyi). Yine aynı çizelgede ortaokul öğrencilerinin YÖÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puan ortalamalarına bakıldığında öğrencilerin yazma özyeterlik algılarının da iyi düzeyde olduğu görülmektedir (YÖÖ 50 – 41 çok iyi; 40 – 31 iyi). Bu verilere bakılarak ortaokul öğrencilerinin yazmaya yönelik tutumları ile yazma özyeterlikleri arasındaki ilişkinin doğrusal olduğu söylenebilir. Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına göre yazma tutum düzeyleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığına ilişkin yapılan t testinin sonuçları Çizelge 3'te sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 3. OÖYYTÖ Ön Test ve Son Test Arasındaki Fark

Grup	\bar{x}	Ss	Sd	t	p
OÖY YTÖ Ön Test	-1.47564	17.35221	74	-.736	.464
Son Test					

$N = 75, p > .05$

Çizelge 3 incelendiğinde ortaokul öğrencilerinin OÖYYTÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark ortaya çıkmamıştır ($p > .05$). Ortaokul öğrencilerinin cinsiyete göre yazma tutumlarının ön test ve son test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığına yönelik yapılan t testi sonuçları Çizelge 4'teki gibidir.

Çizelge 4. OÖYYTÖ Cinsiyete Göre Fark

Cinsiyet	N	\bar{x}	Ss	t	sd	p	
OÖY YTÖ Ön Test	Kadın	45	89.3929	15.25844	3.882	73	.000
Erkek	30	74.2356	18.36830	3.741	54.252	.000	
OÖY YTÖ Son Test	Kadın	45	88.7950	16.13819	2.477	73	.016
Erkek	30	78.8215	18.41905	2.412	56.522	.019	

$N = 75, p < .05$

Çizelge 4 incelendiğinde ortaokul öğrencilerinin OÖYYTÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puanları arasında cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir fark meydana gelmiştir ($p < .05$). Ön test ve son test puan ortalamalarına bakıldığında kadınların erkeklere göre yazma tutumlarının daha yüksek olduğu söylenebilir.

Ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf düzeylerine göre yazma tutumlarının ön test ve son test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığına yönelik yapılan t testi sonuçları Çizelge 5'teki gibidir.

Çizelge 5. OÖYYTÖ Sınıf Düzeyine göre Fark

	Sınıf	N	\bar{x}	Ss	t	sd	p
OÖYYTÖ Ön Test	6.	41	80.5167	18.26184	-1.493	73	.140
	8.	34	86.7225	17.50178	-1.499	71.443	.138
OÖYYTÖ Son Test	6.	41	83.4995	19.07673	-.701	73	.486
	8.	34	86.3806	15.93292	-.713	72.993	.478

$N = 75, p < .05$

Yukarıdaki çizelge incelendiğinde ortaokul öğrencilerinin OÖYYTÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puanları arasında sınıf düzeylerine göre anlamlı bir fark olmadığı görülmektedir ($p > .05$). Buna rağmen ortalama puanlar incelendiğinde öğrencilerin sınıf düzeylerine göre yazma tutumlarının iyi düzeyde olduğu söylenebilir.

Ortaokul öğrencilerinin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına göre yazma özyeterlik algı düzeyleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığına ilişkin yapılan t testinin sonuçları Çizelge 6'da sunulmuştur.

Çizelge 6. YÖÖ Ön Test ve Son Test Arasındaki Fark

	Grup	\bar{x}	Ss	Sd	t	p
YÖÖ	Ön Test Son Test	-,17297	6,70289	74	-.223	.824

$N = 75, p > .05$

Yukarıdaki çizelge incelendiğinde ortaokul öğrencilerinin YÖÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığı görülmektedir ($p > .05$). Ortaokul öğrencilerinin cinsiyete göre yazma özyeterlik algılarına yönelik ön test ve son test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığına ilişkin yapılan t testi sonuçları Çizelge 7'deki gibidir.

Çizelge 7. YÖÖ Cinsiyete göre Fark

	Cinsiyet	N	\bar{x}	Ss	t	sd	p
YÖÖ Ön Test	Kadın	45	36,8444	6,91164	,527	73	.600
	Erkek	30	35,9743	7,15696	,523	60,785	.603
YÖÖ Son Test	Kadın	45	37,0267	8,10026	,475	73	.636
	Erkek	30	36,1333	7,80245	,478	63,902	.634

$N = 75, p > .05$

Yukarıdaki çizelge incelendiğinde ortaokul öğrencilerinin YÖÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puanları arasında cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir fark görülmemektedir ($p > .05$). Ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf düzeylerine göre yazma özyeterlik algılarına yönelik ön test ve son test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığına ilişkin yapılan t testi sonuçları Çizelge 8'deki gibidir.

Çizelge 8. YÖÖ Sınıf Düzeyine göre Fark

	Sınıf	N	\bar{x}	Ss	t	sd	p
YÖÖ Ön Test	6.	41	36,2535	7,02345	-,329	73	.743
	8.	34	36,7893	7,01187	-,329	70,496	.743

	Sınıf						
YÖÖ Son Test	6.	41	37,1328	8,19641	,552	73	.582
	8.	34	36,1105	7,70711	,556	71,814	.580

$N = 75, p > .05$

Yukarıdaki çizelge incelendiğinde ortaokul öğrencilerinin YÖÖ'den aldıkları ön test ve son test puanları arasında sınıf düzeylerine göre anlamlı bir fark görülmemektedir ($p > .05$).

Tartışma

Bu araştırma ortaokul 6. ve 8. sınıfta öğrenim gören ve seçmeli Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri dersini tercih eden öğrencilerden elde edilmiş verilerle gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ortaokul öğrencileriyle yapılan uygulamadan elde edilen bulgulara bakıldığında öğrencilerin gerek ders öncesi gerekse ders sonrası tutum ve özyeterlik algıları arasında orta düzeyde pozitif bir ilişki vardır. Alanyazında yapılan çeşitli çalışmalarda bu sonucu destekleyen bulgular elde edilmiştir. Yazma özyeterliği ve tutumunun yazma başarısına etkisini yapısal eşitlik modellemesi yoluyla araştıran Bulut (2017) yazma özyeterliği ve tutumunun yazma başarısına etkisini olumlu ve anlamlı bulmuştur. Sarkhoush (2003) yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin yazma performanslarının yazma özyeterlik, yazma kaygısı ve tutumu ile ilişkili olup olmadığını araştırdığı çalışmasında yazma özyeterliği ve tutumu arasında pozitif ilişki ($r = .606, p < .05$) olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Yine Williams (2012) da yazma özyeterliği ile tutumu arasında pozitif ilişki tespit etmiştir. Bu çalışmada tutum ve özyeterliğin birbirini yordama durumundan ziyade seçilen dersin öğrenciler üzerinde etkisinin olup olmadığı irdelenmektedir. Bu etkinin de tutum ve özyeterlik gibi psikolojik etkenler üzerinden incelenmesine gerekçe olarak iki psikolojik etkenin arasındaki ilişkiyi göstermesi bakımından elde edilen sonuç önemlidir. Dersi seçen öğrencilerin ders öncesi ve sonrası yazmaya karşı tutum ($92 - 70$) ve özyeterlik algıları ($40 - 31$) iyi düzeydedir. Seçimlik bir ders olması bakımından Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri dersini seçen öğrencilerin yazmaya karşı tutum ve özyeterlik algılarının yüksek olmasının beklendiği bir sonuç olabileceği söylenebilir. Bu sonuca bakarak öğrencilerin bu dersi seçmelerinde, yazmaya karşı tutumlarının iyi düzeyde olmasının da etkili olduğu söylenebilir. Çünkü tutumlar nesne ve olgulara yönelik davranışları etkiler (De Hower ve ark., 2001). Ancak ön test ve son test sonuçlarına bakarak alınan eğitim sonucunda öğrencilerin yazmaya karşı tutum ve özyeterlik algılarında anlamlı bir artışın olmadığı görülmüştür. Çarkıt ve Karadüz (2015) Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerisi dersi bağlamında yazma becerisi üzerine öğretmen görüşlerine başvurdukları çalışmalarında öğretmenlerin dersin programı ve kazanımlarını tam anlamıyla özümseyebilmeleri için hizmet içi eğitime alınmalarının dersin amacına ulaşabilmesi açısından yararlı olacağı değerlendirmesinde bulunmuştur. Karatop (2019) da Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri Dersinin öğrencilerin yazılı anlatım becerilerine etkisini inceldiği çalışmasında deney grubunda yer alan öğrencilerin kontrol grubunda yer alan öğrencilere göre dersin kazanımlarını gerçekleştirme oranının daha yüksek olduğu sonucuna ulaşmış ancak yine de öğrencilerin genel olarak çoğunluğunun kazanımlara

ulaşmada yetersiz olduğunu ifade etmiştir. Bunun da dersin bazı kazanımlarının öğrenci seviyesine uygun olmamasından kaynaklandığını belirtmiştir.

Elde edilen bulgular sonucunda öğrencilerin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına göre yazmaya yönelik tutumlarında sınıf düzeylerine göre anlamlı bir fark olmamasına karşın cinsiyete göre kadınların erkeklerden daha yüksek tutuma sahip olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu sonuç alanyazındaki ilgili çalışmaların sonuçlarıyla benzerlik göstermektedir (Knudson 1995, Graham, Berninger & Fan 2007, Graham, Berninger & Abbot 2012, Korkmaz 2015, Çocuk, Yelken ve Özer 2016, Temel ve Katrancı 2019). Öğrencilerin özyeterlik algılarına ilişkin ön test ve son test sonuçlarına bakıldığında da cinsiyet ve sınıf düzeyi değişkenlerine göre anlamlı bir fark olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmaktadır. Alanyazında bu sonuçları destekleyen çalışmalar da yer almaktadır. Özyeterlik algısının cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir fark oluşturmadığı sonucuna Ekici (2008), Ülper ve Bağcı (2012), Eggleston (2017) vb. çalışmalarda ulaşılmıştır. Sınıf düzeyinde ise Korkut, Akkoyunlu (2008), İşeri ve Ünal (2012), Baş, ve Şahin (2012), Seçkin ve Başbay (2013) vb. çalışmalarda anlamlı bir farkın bulunmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu durum Yazma ve Yazarlık Becerileri dersinin öğrencilerin yazmaya yönelik tutum ve özyeterliği üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisinin olmadığı yönünde yorumlanabilir.

Sonuç

Sonuç olarak elde edilen bulgulara göre Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri dersinin öğrencilerin yazmaya yönelik tutum ve özyeterlik algıları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi bulunmamaktadır. Bunun da Çarkıt ve Karadüz (2015) ile Karatop'un (2019) belirttiği gibi dersi işleyen öğretmenden veya programdaki kazanımlardan kaynaklandığı söylenebilir. Ayrıca bu sonuçların elde edilmesinde çalışmaya dahil edilen örneklem grubunun taşımali eğitim yapan bir okuldan seçilmiş olması da etkili olabilir. Bu bakımdan ileriki çalışmalar ve ders için şu öneriler yapılabilir:

- Daha büyük ve farklı okul türlerini kapsayan örneklem üzerinde bu dersin etkililiğine yönelik çalışmalar yapılabilir.
- Ders öğretmenlerinin dersin içeriği ve kazanımları hakkında farkındalığı artırılabilir.
- Türkçe öğretmenlerinin de temel dil becerilerine yönelik uzmanlaşması sağlanarak seçimlik derslerin ilgili beceride uzmanlaşmış öğretmenler tarafından verilmesi sağlanabilir.

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L1 and L2 Summarizing Strategies Used by EFL Learners

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to explore the frequency and effectiveness of summarization strategies used by 80 Turkish EFL learners in both their L1 and L2 processes. Participants completed a self-report questionnaire and a summary writing task in both languages. Results revealed moderate use and effectiveness of summarization strategies in both processes, with positive correlations found between the use of certain strategies and summary criteria. These findings highlight the importance of teaching a variety of strategies to improve summarization performance in both L1 and L2 processes. The transferability of L1 summarization skills to L2 is also emphasized.

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Statement of Publication Ethics

The ethics committee approval has been obtained for the current study: Pamukkale University Social and Human Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee, 25/05/2022, 178.233.40.155

Authors' Contribution Rate

Both authors contributed equally.

Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest for the current study.

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Introduction

Summarizing techniques refer to methods used to condense and simplify large amounts of information into a more manageable form. In the context of second/foreign language (L2) [L2 is used to refer to English as a foreign language in the rest of the article.] and first language (L1) learning, summarizing is a crucial skill that helps students effectively understand and retain information. There are various summarizing techniques that can be used, including extracting main ideas, condensing text, rephrasing, and creating visual aids such as mind maps or concept maps. These techniques help learners identify key concepts, make connections, and improve their critical thinking and comprehension skills.

One of the essential summarizing models, the summarizing strategy model, proposed by Dijk and Kintsch (1983). The model is based on the assumption that summarizing is a complex process that involves multiple cognitive operations, such as text comprehension, information extraction, and information integration. According to Dijk and Kintsch (1983), the process of summarizing begins with the comprehension of the text, where the reader extracts the information contained in the text and organizes it into a mental representation. Then, the reader applies a set of large-scale building rules to condense the information and extract the most important ideas and details.

The macrostructure building rules proposed by Dijk and Kintsch (1983) are a set of heuristics that guide the summarization process by directing the reader to select certain information over others. These rules are based on the idea that the most important information in a text is the information that is central to the text's coherence and the information that is repeated across multiple sentences. The summarizing strategy model has been widely used in the field of natural language processing. However, the model has also received criticism for oversimplifying the process of summarizing and not taking into account the influence of individual differences and text-specific factors on the summarization process.

Studies exploring the use of summarization strategies in Turkish contexts have revealed a number of challenges faced by students when summarizing various text types. For instance, Erdem (2012) analyzed the summarization preferences and practices of teacher trainees in Turkish language and literature through a linguistic summarization study. The results showed that the trainees had difficulty in choosing appropriate summarization strategies and often relied on simple deletion of information. Eyüp, Stebler, and Yurt (2012) investigated the tendencies of Turkish language teacher trainees in using summarization strategies. The results indicated that the trainees had limited knowledge of summarization strategies and lacked the skills to apply them effectively.

Sulak and Arslan (2017) evaluated the utilization of summarization strategies among fourth-grade primary school students. The findings showed that the students had limited knowledge of summarization strategies and often lacked the ability to apply them accurately and effectively. Özçakmak (2014) looked into the difficulties experienced by teacher trainees in Turkish language when summarizing listened material. The results

revealed that the trainees struggled with comprehension, accuracy, and reduction in summarizing listened material.

These studies shed light on the practices and preferences of summarization strategies among Turkish language teacher trainees and primary school students. The findings indicate that both groups struggle to summarize texts, but can benefit from targeted training on summarization strategies. Thus, it is imperative to integrate summarization training into the education of Turkish language and teacher training.

In a recent contribution to the field of summarization research in L1, Çetinkaya, Şentürk, and Dikici (2020) provide a thorough examination of the relationship between the use of summarization strategies and summarization performance of the high school students and juniors, and the study offers practical implications for education. The steps involved in the process, including comprehending the source text, constructing a preliminary summary, and revising and correcting the draft summary through the use of appropriate strategies, have a positive impact on the overall quality of the final summary. The authors found that there is a positive relationship between the use of summarization strategies and summarization performance. Furthermore, the revision and correction stage demonstrated the greatest contribution to the formation of the final summary, emphasizing the significance of a thorough review process in the creation of a competent summary. These findings are important as they highlight the importance of teaching summarization strategies to students to improve their summarization performance.

On the other hand, a literature review of studies on the extent to which EFL speakers use summarizing strategies showed mixed results. Some studies found that EFL learners employed summarizing strategies effectively, while others revealed that they struggled with these techniques. For example, Ajideh, Zohrabi and Nouazad, (2013) found that Iranian EFL speakers had a high level of proficiency in summarizing strategies, particularly when the text was related to their field of expertise. The study also discovered that students who had been exposed to summarizing strategies in their L1 performed better in summarizing English texts compared to those who had not. Similarly, Kato (2018) realized that the L1 information and abilities EFL learners already possess is crucial in order to study the transfer of L1 summarizing skills to L2 summary performance. The author (2018) explores the transfer relationship of summarizing skills between the first language (L1) and second language (L2) of Japanese university students using a pre-test/post-test design to compare the summarizing performance of students in both languages. She attempted to determine if Japanese EFL learners are affected by their summarizing abilities in their first language, Japanese, while doing summaries in a second language, English. The correlation analysis revealed that a little variation in L1's summarizing ability had an impact on L2's total summary performances.

Malaj (2020) investigated the summarizing strategies on the production of literary text summary in L2. The results indicated that students with a higher level of vocabulary knowledge and proficiency employed more effective summarizing strategies compared to those with a lower level of vocabulary knowledge.

However, some studies showed that Turkish EFL learners had difficulties with summarizing strategies, particularly when the text was complex and unfamiliar. For

example, a study by Deneme and Demirel (2012) found that Turkish EFL speakers had limited proficiency in summarizing academic texts, due to the difficulties they encountered in comprehending the text and identifying the main ideas. Yet the explicit teaching of summary writing contributed to Turkish EFL learners' overall writing skill. The results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in their writing skills, particularly in terms of coherence, organization, and accuracy. The authors suggest that teaching summary writing can be an effective method for developing writing skills in a foreign language. They recommend that teachers incorporate summary writing activities in their instruction to enhance their students' writing abilities.

The significance of the use of summarizing strategies is widely acknowledged in the literature, as it is considered to be a crucial component of effective comprehension practices in language teaching and learning. It is suggested that the extent to which Turkish EFL speakers use summarizing strategies is influenced by various factors, including their vocabulary knowledge, familiarity with the text, and prior exposure to summarizing strategies. The studies indicate that it is important to include summarization training as part of language and teacher training education. Further research is needed to explore the strategies that Turkish EFL speakers utilize in summarizing and to identify ways to enhance their summarizing skills in their L1 and L2.

To this end, the study aims to examine the correlation between the frequency of Turkish students' use of summarization strategies in their first language (L1) and foreign language (L2) and their summarization performance in those languages, particularly English. It recognizes the significance of summarization strategies in the students' competence during the process of comprehending and succinctly conveying information. The study also recognizes the importance of genre elements, such as introduction, main plot, conclusion, and outline in the mastery of summarization strategies. The research questions addressed by the study are as follows:

1. What is the frequency of using summarizing strategies in L1 and L2 processes for the participants?
2. How are the summarization performances of the participants in the L1 and L2 processes?
3. Is there a significant relationship between the participants' performance in summarizing the L1 process and the frequency of their use of summarization strategies?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the participants' performance in summarizing the L2 process and the frequency of their use of summarization strategies?
5. Is there a significant relationship between the frequency of participants' use of summarization strategies in the L1 and L2 processes?
6. Is there a significant relationship between the participants' success in summarizing the L1 and L2 processes?

Methodology

Research Design and Publication Ethics

Prior to the data collection, the Ethics Committee of the Institute of Social Sciences was applied at the context of the study, and the necessary permissions were acquired from the School of Foreign Languages (Pamukkale University Social and Human Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee, 25/05/2022, 178.233.40.155).

The Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between the use of summarizing strategies and summarizing performance in both the first language, Turkish (L1) and foreign language, English (L2). A mixed-methods research design was employed, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. The research was conducted over a four-week period, during which time participants were asked to write summaries in both L1 and L2. These summaries constituted the qualitative data for the study. Subsequently, participants were administered a questionnaire developed by Çetinkaya et al. (2020) to collect quantitative data.

Sample

The study sample was drawn from a preessional language school at a public university in Turkey. Eighty students from diverse majors who had been studying English for almost a year at the language school were recruited through convenience sampling, which allows for the acquisition of relevant data in a short time. The students were considered to be at a B1-B2 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and their proficiency was determined through proficiency tests administered by the language school. The sample consisted of 80 students, with 58,2% being female and 42,9% being male, with an age range of 17 to 23 years.

Instruments

Three instruments were used to collect data. First, two anonymous fable stories, one in English and one in Turkish, were selected. Both stories possessed the characteristic features of the genre, such as characters, plot, setting, and tension. The Turkish story was titled "Zümrüdüanka Kuşunun Hikayesi" [The Story of Simorgh], and the English story was titled "A Faithful Dog." The fable genre was particularly chosen because fables are concise and comprehensible stories that can be easily read and understood in a short time. Furthermore, participants were familiar with the genre as fables are a component of culture and often used as a tool to teach moral lessons (Sutherland and Arbuthnot, 1977; Adams & Bruce, 1982). According to Applebee (1978), tales such as fables have served as a means of socialization, through which children and youngsters learn cultural norms and principles. The readability and intelligibility of the English story were relevant to B2-C1 CEFR level students, as measured by the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (5,8) and Flesch

Reading Ease (80,5). The Turkish story was assumed to be easily comprehensible for native speakers of Turkish.

The second instrument was the summarization strategies questionnaire developed by Çetinkaya et al. (2020), which consisted of 56 items and was used to collect quantitative data. The questionnaire was divided into three sub-sections: 1) strategies used in the reading-comprehension process of the text (22 items, Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of .86); 2) strategies used in drafting the summary text (20 items, reliability coefficient of .87); and 3) strategies used in the text review and correction process (14 items, reliability coefficient of .92). The reliability coefficient for the entire instrument was .95.

The final research instrument was a rubric developed by Bahçivan and Çetinkaya (2021) used to evaluate the participants' summary outputs. The rubric consisted of five-level evaluation criteria, including introduction, main events, conclusion, and writing quality dimensions.

Procedure

The participants were asked to read two short fable stories and write a summary of each story in succession. The first story provided was in Turkish and the participants were asked to write a summary of the story in 15 minutes and then they were given the questionnaire to explore the summarization strategies they used in their L1. The same procedure was then repeated for the English short story. The responses on the questionnaire were used to compare the frequencies of summarization strategies used in L1 and L2. Finally, the summary outputs were evaluated by two expert instructors, one specializing in English and the other in Turkish. The results of these evaluations were considered as a measure of the participants' competence and were collected as qualitative data for the study.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data was carried out using the SPSS 21 statistical package program to determine the frequency of students' use of summarization strategies and their level of success in summarization. Descriptive statistics were computed to determine whether there were significant correlations between students' summarization success and the frequency of their use of summarization strategies, using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

There are mainly two overarching research goals of this study. The first one is related to the relationship between the frequency of summarization strategies used by Turkish students in their L1 and L2 and their summarization performance in these languages. To address the first overarching research question concerning the correlation between the use of summarization strategies and summarization performance in L1 and L2, we conducted separate analyses of each construct - strategy use and success - in both

languages. As such, the first four research questions in the findings section are dedicated to answering this primary question.

The second overarching research question aims to determine whether there are significant differences in summary writing success between the two languages. Research questions five and six seek to provide answers to this question.

Findings

The frequency of using summarizing strategies in L1 and L2 processes for the participants

Table 1. Frequency of using summarizing strategies in L1 and L2 processes for students

		\bar{x}	Frequency	SD	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
Reading-Comprehension	Turkish	1,57	Sometimes	0,51	0,50	2,95
	English	1,55	Sometimes	0,47	0,55	2,68
Summary Draft Creation	Turkish	1,57	Sometimes	0,49	0,50	2,90
	English	1,57	Sometimes	0,51	0,40	2,60
Revision and Correction of Summary Draft	Turkish	1,83	Sometimes	0,71	0,00	3,00
	English	1,79	Sometimes	0,74	0,00	3,00
Strategy	Turkish	1,66	Sometimes	0,50	0,35	2,73
	English	1,64	Sometimes	0,51	0,35	2,69

The average score for Turkish summarization strategies used in the text reading-comprehension process by students is $\bar{x}=1,57$, while the average score for English summarization strategies is $\bar{x}=1,55$. The average score for both Turkish and English summarization strategies used in creating draft summary texts is $\bar{x}=1,57$. The average score for Turkish summarization strategies used in revising and correcting draft summary texts is $\bar{x}=1,83$, whereas the average score for English summarization strategies is $\bar{x}=1,79$. When the summarization strategies of the students are examined, it is seen that the highest average belongs to the strategies used in the draft summary review and correction process. The mean score for Turkish summarization strategy points is $\bar{x} =1,66$, while the mean score for English summarization strategy points is $\bar{x}=1,64$. When considering the average scores, it is found that the frequency of both Turkish and English summarization strategies is "sometimes."

The summarization performances of the participants in the L1 and L2 processes

Table 2. Summarizing success levels of students in L1 and L2 processes

		\bar{x}	Level	SD	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
Introduction	Turkish	2,14	Moderate	1,50	0,00	4,00
	English	1,90	Moderate	1,38	0,00	4,00
Main Events	Turkish	1,79	Moderate	1,40	0,00	4,00
	English	1,83	Moderate	1,51	0,00	4,00
Conclusion	Turkish	2,25	Moderate	1,29	0,00	4,00
	English	1,80	Moderate	1,32	0,00	4,00
Outline and Mechanics	Turkish	2,01	Moderate	1,17	0,00	4,00

	English	1,74	Moderate	1,03	0,00	4,00
Summary	Turkish	8,19	Moderate	4,98	0,00	16,00
	English	7,28	Moderate	4,78	0,00	16,00

The average Turkish summary scores of the students for the introduction criterion is $\bar{x}=2,14$, for the main events criterion $\bar{x}=1,79$, for the conclusion criterion $\bar{x}=2,25$, for the outline and mechanics criterion $\bar{x}=2,01$, and for the story summary $\bar{x}=8,19$. Similarly, the average English summary scores for the introduction criterion is $\bar{x}=1,90$, for the main events criterion $\bar{x}=1,83$, for the conclusion criterion $\bar{x}=1,80$, for the outline and mechanics criterion $\bar{x}=1,74$, and for the story summary $\bar{x}=7,28$. Upon examining the average scores, it can be observed that the students' overall summarization performance in both Turkish and English is at the "moderate" level.

Relationship between the participants' performance in summarizing the L1 process and the frequency of their use of summarization strategies

Table 3. Pearson Moments Correlation Coefficients between the success of students in summarizing the L1 process and the frequency of using summarization strategies

	Introduction	Main events	Conclusion	Outline and Mechanics	Summary
Reading-Comprehension	-,074	-,003	-,093	-,048	-,061
Summary Draft Creation	,006	,034	,012	,018	,021
Revision and Correction of Summary Draft	-,043	,006	-,086	-,038	-,038
Strategy	-,043	,013	-,068	-,028	-,032

It was determined that there was no significant relationship between the frequency of students' use of L1 process summarization strategies and their summation success ($p>0.05$).

Relationship between the participants' performance in summarizing the L2 process and the frequency of their use of summarization strategies

Table 4. Pearson Moments Correlation Coefficients between the success of students in summarizing the L2 process and the frequency of using summarization strategies

	Introduction	Main events	Conclusion	Outline and Mechanics	Summary
Reading-Comprehension	,022	,086	,175	,180	,124
Summary Draft Creation	,044	,067	,112	,124	,094
Revision and Correction of Summary Draft	,081	,055	,088	,071	,079
Strategy	,060	,075	,133	,130	,107

It was determined that there was no significant relationship between the frequency of students' use of L2 process summarization strategies and their summation success ($p>0.05$).

Relationship between the frequency of participants' use of summarization strategies in the L1 and L2 processes

Table 5. Pearson Moments Correlation Coefficients between the frequency of students' use of L1 and L2 process summarization strategies

		English			
		Reading- Comprehension	Summary Draft Creation	Revision and Correction of Summary Draft	Total
Turkish	Reading-Comprehension	,760**	,622**	,527**	,690**
	Summary Draft Creation	,517**	,781**	,606**	,705**
	Revision and Correction of Summary Draft	,517**	,623**	,816**	,753**
	Total	,668**	,758**	,760**	,818**

**p<0.01

High-level positive correlations were found between the frequencies of using text-reading comprehension strategies in L1 and L2 processes. The relationships were significant ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, there is a high level of positive correlation between the frequency of using summary draft creation strategies in L1 and the frequency of using both summary draft creation and summarization strategies in L2. The relationships were found to be significant at a high level ($p < 0.01$). In L1, a high level of positive correlation was observed between the frequency of using summary draft review and correction strategies and the frequency of using summary draft review and correction, as well as summarization strategies in L2. The relationships were moderately significant ($p < 0.01$). Additionally, positive and highly significant relationships were found between the frequencies of using summarization strategies in L1 and the frequency of creating a summary draft, revising and correcting the summary draft, and using summarization strategies in L2. There were also moderate and positive correlations between the frequencies of using text-reading comprehension strategies, which were significant ($p < 0.01$).

Relationship between the participants' success in summarizing the L1 and L2 processes

Table 6. Pearson Moments Correlation Coefficients between students' success in summarizing L1 and L2 processes

		English				
		Introduction	Main Events	Conclusion	Outline and Mechanics	Total
Turkish	Introduction	,623**	,610**	,540**	,541**	,638**
	Main Events	,570**	,653**	,464**	,532**	,615**
	Conclusion	,547**	,623**	,463**	,519**	,591**
	Outline and Mechanics	,515**	,573**	,493**	,579**	,588**
	Total	,611**	,660**	,527**	,584**	,654**

It has been determined that there exist positive and moderately significant correlations between the scores of introduction, main events, conclusion, outline, and summary in the L1 process and those in the L2 process ($p < 0.01$).

Discussion

In an effort to explore the correlation between first language (L1) and second language (L2) summarization strategies of Turkish students, the study looks at the relationship between their usage of summary techniques in their L2 and L1 and how well they do while summarizing in those languages.

The study found that on average, participants used summarization strategies "sometimes" in both Turkish and English language processes for text-reading comprehension and creating summary drafts. However, they used summarization strategies more frequently in revising and correcting summary drafts, with an average score of "sometimes" for both languages. The participants' overall summarization performance in both Turkish and English was at a "moderate" level. The mean scores for all criteria (introduction, main events, conclusion, outline and mechanics, and story summary) were within the range of "moderate" performance level.

There was no significant relationship between the frequency of students' use of L1 process summarization strategies and their summation success. Similarly, there was no significant relationship between the frequency of students' use of L2 process summarization strategies and their summation success.

High-level positive correlations were found between the frequencies of using text-reading comprehension strategies, summary draft writing strategies, and summary draft review and correction strategies in L1 and L2 processes. Also, positive and highly significant relationships were found between the frequencies of using summarization strategies in L1 and the frequency of creating a summary draft, revising and correcting the summary draft, and using summarization strategies in L2. Similarly, there exist positive and moderately significant correlations between the scores of introduction, main events, conclusion, outline, and summary in the L1 process and those in the L2 process.

Overall, the study suggests that participants used summarization strategies moderately and achieved moderate levels of success in summarization in both languages. There was no significant relationship found between the frequency of students' use of summarization strategies and their summation success in either L1 or L2 processes. However, positive and significant correlations were found between the frequency of using different types of summarization strategies in L1 and L2 processes, as well as between the scores of different summarization criteria in L1 and L2 processes.

Kato (2018) highlights the importance of building strong summarizing skills in L1 as a foundation for developing these skills in L2. The author recommends that language teachers provide explicit instruction and practice in summarizing strategies in both languages to enhance transferability. However, interestingly, it cannot be argued that success in L1 does not necessarily lead to success in L2 according to the results of this study. While building strong summarizing skills in L1 is important for developing these skills in L2, the success in L1 does not necessarily lead to success in L2. The study showed

that participants used different summarization strategies in both languages, indicating that transferability of skills may not always occur as expected. Therefore, explicit instruction and practice in summarizing strategies in both languages are recommended to enhance transferability.

Studies in the literature indicate that the number and quality of activities aimed at summarizing in the teaching tools used in the education process are insufficient. Teachers do not give enough activities related to summarization strategies, and the summarization skills of middle school students are weak (Karadağ, 2019; Kuşdemir & Düşünsel, 2018; Ülper & Arıca Akkök, 2010; Ülper & Yazıcı Okuyan, 2010). This situation hinders the development of skills and strategies related to summarization in L1 in the early period. Based on the relationship between L1 and L2 process, it can be said that the qualified education to be given in L1 process will also positively affect the L2 summarization skill.

Additionally, the use of summarization strategies and summarization success can vary based on factors such as language, task difficulty, and prior knowledge (Millis & King, 2001; Ozuru et al., 2009). These factors can impact the effectiveness of summarization strategies, which may contribute to the moderate success levels found in this study.

The lack of a significant relationship between the frequency of strategy use and summarization success aligns with previous research that has found mixed results (Crossley & McNamara, 2007; Keck 2014; Ozuru et al., 2009; Tighe & Schatschneider 2016). This suggests that strategy use alone may not be enough to ensure success in summarization tasks, and other factors may also be at play. For example, Crossley and McNamara (2007) found that while strategy use was positively related to summarization quality, it did not account for all of the variance. Keck (2014) also found that the frequency of strategy use was not a significant predictor of summarization success. Similarly, Ozuru et al. (2009) and Tighe and Schatschneider (2016) found that strategy use was not the only factor that contributed to successful summarization. Therefore, it can be concluded that while the use of summarization strategies is important, other factors such as background knowledge, motivation, working memory capacity, and reading comprehension skills may also play a role in summarization success.

However, the significant correlations found between the frequency of using different types of summarization strategies and the scores of different summarization criteria in both languages support the idea that strategy selection may be more important than strategy frequency (Çetinkaya et.al., 2020; Porter-O'Donnell, 2004). This emphasizes the need for educators to teach a variety of summarization strategies to students and encourage them to select and apply the appropriate strategy for a given task. The findings of this study align with previous research on summarization strategies and success, highlighting the complexity of this process and the importance of selecting appropriate strategies for a given task.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study aimed to investigate the frequency and effectiveness of summarization strategies used by students in both their L1 and L2 processes. The findings revealed that students used summarization strategies "sometimes" in both processes, with the highest frequency of use observed in revising and correcting summary draft texts. Despite the moderate level of overall summarization performance in both L1 and L2, no significant relationship was found between the frequency of summarization strategy use and students' summarization success. However, high-level positive correlations were observed between the frequencies of using text-reading comprehension, summary draft creation, and summarization strategies in both L1 and L2 processes. Furthermore, positive and moderately significant correlations were found between the scores of introduction, main events, conclusion, outline, and summary in the L1 and L2 processes. These results highlight the importance of using various summarization strategies and their effectiveness in improving summarization performance in both L1 and L2 processes. Further research can investigate the effectiveness of different types of summarization strategies and their impact on language learners' summarization skills.

Implications of the study's findings emphasize the need for educators to teach and encourage the use of a variety of summarization strategies in both L1 and L2 processes, with particular emphasis on strategies that focus on text-reading comprehension, summary draft writing, and overall summarization. Moreover, educators need to pay attention to the specific summarization criteria of introduction, main events, conclusion, outline, and summary, and guide students to improve their skills in these areas.

One limitation of this study is the use of self-report data to measure the frequency of summarization strategy use, which may not accurately reflect students' actual use of these strategies. Additionally, the study only focused on university-level language learners, so the findings may not generalize to other age groups or proficiency levels.

Further research can expand on this study by investigating the effectiveness of different types of summarization strategies on L1 and L2 learners' summarization skills. Future studies can also explore the impact of other factors such as task difficulty, prior knowledge, and motivation on summarization performance. Furthermore, it would be interesting to investigate whether the effectiveness of summarization strategies varies depending on the type of text or genre being summarized.

Overall, this study provides valuable insights into the frequency and effectiveness of summarization strategies in both L1 and L2 processes and highlights the importance of teaching a variety of strategies to improve summarization performance.

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**Transition into Online Education During COVID-19:
The Case of Speaking-based Courses at an English Language Teaching
Program in Turkey**

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ABSTRACT

During the spring semester in March 2020 and the fall semester in October 2020, tertiary-level education in Turkey underwent two different transitions into online education. This study aimed to examine the two transition periods with a focus on the course design processes of two speaking-based courses taught at a state university. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with two professors, and open-ended questionnaires were administered to students. The findings showed that professors could not tailor the design of the two courses in March as they did not have time, but they gained experience to supplement their course content, remove some activities and prioritize others, and they opted for performance-based assessment in October. This paper concludes that the transition in October needs to be differentiated with the suggested term; semi-planned transition into online education. This transition period is still affected by the crisis; however, time can be allocated to determine the needs and expectation of the stakeholders to better prepare for online education.

Acknowledgments

Statement of Publication Ethics

Authors' Contribution Rate

Conflict of Interest

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The authors declare that the names of the participants were kept anonymous in the research. The approval of Social Sciences Ethics Committee at Bartın University was obtained for this research with the protocol number 2021-SBB-010.
Corresponding author was responsible for data collection, analysis and reporting. The second author offered supervision and cooperation in methodology, analysis, and concept of the article.
The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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Introduction

In today's world, where technology is constantly evolving and shaping our lives in ways we could not have previously imagined, the skills and qualifications needed to succeed in this rapidly changing landscape have also changed. As the skills and qualifications needed in the digital age evolve and the profile of learners changes, it becomes necessary for higher education institutions to adapt and reposition their teaching and learning processes and environments. According to Garrison (2016), "expectations are changing and there is little doubt that educational institutions are being transformed as a result of online and blended learning innovations" (p. 141). These institutions must therefore consider their roles and responsibilities in the digital era, and work towards building a robust digital teaching and learning culture that prepares graduates for success in the modern world. This requires faculty members and instructors to adapt to these changes and take on new roles in the teaching-learning process. Researchers have explored the challenges and implications of these changing faculty roles in the shift toward digital education. However, in the recent pandemic, an immediate digital shift in education was inescapable despite the vital influence of the changing roles and the appropriate time allocated to ensure the change is smooth.

Although online classes have become common at tertiary level education, it is a provocative contradiction that the rate of acceptance of the value and legitimacy of online education is incredibly low among faculty members (Allen & Seaman, 2016). The reason behind such contradiction may be because "changing the medium of transmission without changing the expectations and learning experience does not address the quality of learning outcomes" (Garrison, 2016, p. 5). In addition, many faculty members who are new to online teaching lack formal education in how to teach in this format, despite the efforts made by universities to provide support and training to faculty members, including informal learning, mentoring, in-service training, and structured certificate programs (Cutri & Mena, 2020; Gülbahar & Adnan, 2020). Despite the conditions mentioned earlier, education at all levels faced a challenge which made it obligatory for teachers and faculty members to move their classes online in 2020 to prevent the spread of Coronavirus. Most universities and schools worldwide switched to an online teaching format beginning in March, 2020.

With the growing spread of the virus, the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) in Turkey announced on March 12, 2020, that universities will be closed for at least a week starting on March 16. In the following weeks, CoHE announced that universities would continue their education online, starting from March 23, 2020. Given only one week of preparation time, all universities in Turkey were faced with the difficult task of moving all their courses online. The lightspeed transition from face-to-face to online education left universities with no choice other than using what they already had: curricula, syllabi, and materials which were prepared during face-to-face education, and for face-to-face education (CoHE, 2020).

Studies of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic have found that many teachers lack practical knowledge in conducting online lessons and that online lessons did not yield the intended outcome in teaching English. Many studies also examined the challenges faced by students and teachers using platforms like Zoom and provided suggestions for overcoming them. However, only a few studies have focused specifically on

the speaking skill and the challenges of practicing it in online lessons. These studies have found common issues such as internet connection problems, lack of a genuine communicative environment, and lack of student engagement. Suggestions for overcoming these challenges include solving internet access issues, using collaborative strategies like breakout rooms, and supplementing lessons with videos, games, and other web tools.

Aim of the study

This study aims to examine how two speaking based-courses: *Listening and Pronunciation* and *Oral Communication Skills* at English Language Teaching B. A. program at a state university in Turkey were designed to be delivered online during the pandemic. More specifically, this study outlines the course design changes of the two courses in the two semesters. This study also aims to examine the professors' and the students' views towards online education during the two semesters. In line with these aims, two research questions were formulated:

1. How were the two speaking-based courses designed to be delivered online during the two semesters affected by the pandemic?
2. What are the views of the participants (professors and undergraduate students) towards the online format for the two speaking-based courses?

Literature Review

Planned Online Education and Crisis-prompted Online Education

Gacs et al. (2020) make a distinction between planned online education and crisis-prompted online language teaching. The main difference between the crisis-prompted online delivery format of a course and a planned one is that normally, the courses were designed for face-to-face delivery format and its affordances, and in crisis-prompted online language teaching, the same design is used but online; however, in planned online language teaching, the course is specifically designed for online and distant delivery format of language teaching (Hodges et al., 2020). Their distinction indicates that what universities experienced, especially during March 2020, was crisis-prompted online language education because of the fact that policymakers, administrators, lecturers and professors did not have the chance to prepare and adapt to the new format of education. Gacs et al. state that planned online education has an “intentional commitment and buy-in from most stakeholders, carefully vetted resources, faculty training and collaborations between subject matter experts and instructional designers” (p. 382). Whereas planned online education is built for sustainability, crisis-prompted online education, specifically the case for universities in Turkey in March, cannot meet most of the aforementioned criteria. Gacs et al. assert that when the circumstances make it necessary to shift to online education, there are some steps to be followed:

First and foremost, when rapidly moving instruction online, one has to assess the syllabus to identify assignments and course components which simply cannot be delivered remotely, and a quick needs analysis is needed to understand instructors' and students' needs in terms of technology, workload, access, accessibility, equity and inclusion. (Gacs et al., 2020, p. 383)

Mishra et al. (2020) investigated how an Indian university adopted online education during the pandemic. In their case, the university followed an action plan with trainings prepared by and for faculty members, assistance from ICT experts. However, their report also showed that the faculty members faced the challenge of being unable to read the face or the mood of students, dealing with a lack of motivation in addition to technical problems such as connectivity issues.

Previously Conducted Studies

With the outbreak of Covid19, many studies in the literature examined the process of online education. Researchers in the field of language learning and teaching took interest in finding out the effects of the pandemic by examining challenges, problems, and experiences through the views of the stakeholders. A recent review of literature showed that a substantial amount of studies were conducted with the aim of examining the effects of the pandemic in EFL classrooms. Erarslan's (2021) review which included 69 empirical studies between 2020 and 2021 showed that teachers lacked practical knowledge in conducting online lessons and the common view was that the online lessons did not yield the intended outcome in teaching English. This finding was linked with the lack of preparation in education on a macro scale, and it is suggested that alterations are made by policy-makers to tailor the content of online lessons with the help of teacher-training. Most studies also examined the effects of using platforms such as Zoom, Google Groups, Microsoft Teams, and the challenges that the students and teachers faced during their lessons, and provided suggestions towards how to overcome those challenges.

Although many studies were conducted to find out the impact of the pandemic in EFL classrooms and the challenges of online lessons during the pandemic, only a few studies narrowed their focus to the speaking skill. As a productive skill, speaking is an essential part of English lessons and due to the fact that practicing speaking in online lessons is challenging due to poor internet connections, lack of body language and eye contact, researchers aimed to explore the place of speaking in online lessons. Most studies conducted in this context explored the problems and experiences of teachers or students during speaking in online lessons (Aldilah Khaerana et al., 2022; Anugrah, 2022; Arianto, 2021; Djafar, 2020; Drescher, 2022; Efriana, 2021; Gonzalez-Torres et al., 2022; Huang, 2021; İşler & Elmas, 2022; Istiqhomah et al., 2021; Khreisat, 2022; Kuznekoff & Munz, 2022; La'biran & Dewi, 2021; Li, 2021; Menggo, 2021; Mulyani et al., 2021; Nayman & Bavlı, 2022; Nurwahyuni, 2020). The research in these studies included students' views on the use of online platforms such as Zoom, and their experiences in online lessons. While almost all participants in these studies reported having internet connection issues, most student participants also reported that they had anxiety or low levels of self-confidence during the online lessons. A common finding for these studies were that the students held the view that online lessons lacked a genuine communicative environment and the content of the lessons lacked teamwork building, interaction, and collaboration. Similarly, teachers faced issues in accessing the internet, getting familiar with the online platform, dealing with the lack of student motivation or participation in online lessons (Anugrah, 2022; Efriana, 2021; Istiqhomah et al., 2021). Finally, the studies in the recent literature offer many suggestions towards overcoming the challenges faced by the participants. The primary suggestion in

almost all studies is to solve internet access issues which hinder the process of online lessons. Moreover, there are many studies which explore strategies in online lessons, and it is a common implication that collaborative strategies such as using breakout rooms could improve student engagement and interaction, and scaffolding could enhance overall performance in online classrooms (Khreisat, 2022). Nayman and Bavlı (2022) examined EFL teachers' experiences in teaching productive skills. Their research showed that student engagement during online lessons was low, and the teachers supplemented their lessons with videos, games, discussions and other web tools to overcome the lack of motivation in their classrooms. Moreover, the views of the teachers also emphasized the importance of student-centered activities and the role of formative assessment in online lessons.

In addition to the few studies which narrowed their focus on speaking in EFL classrooms, even fewer studies approached the same context with a perspective of course design. An explorative study was conducted by Khaerana et al. (2022) to find out the type of materials, activities, assignments, and involvement and engagement among the students as well as the lecturer. Their findings showed that lecturers used similar materials (coursebooks, audio, and online sources) for speaking. Moreover, these materials were designed in an integrative manner in the coursebooks. Group activities and discussions have seen a significant decrease in online lessons when compared to the face-to-face lessons before the pandemic. Another study conducted by Kusumawati (2020) aimed to redesign a speaking-based course to include Gagne's nine events of instruction which comprises three steps (before, during, and after) for establishing suitable learning conditions for engagement and absorption in the classroom. The findings of the study showed that assignment scores increased when compared to their previous results in face-to-face classes, and students' perceptions towards the course design were measured high through a Likert-type attitude scale.

Methodology

Research Design and Publication Ethics

Since the aims of this study are to examine the views of professors and students and reveal the course design planning process for the two courses, this study made use of the principles of case study design in a qualitative research approach. This study investigates the cases of two specific courses and focuses on the experiences of the people involved during two terms; more specifically, the study inquires on what happened and how people were affected. As Yin (2018) states, case studies that ask 'what' questions are more exploratory in nature, and accordingly, this study seeks to explore the experiences and views of the participants. Thus, the research design in this study is an explorative case study (Yin, 2018). The approval of the Social Sciences Ethics Committee at Bartın University was obtained for this research with the protocol number 2021-SBB-010. The authors also declare that the names of the participants were kept anonymous in the research.

Research Context

The research conducted in this study focuses on English Language Teaching (ELT) courses that include speaking in their content. In the curriculum of the English Language

Teaching B. A. program published by the Council of Higher Education (2018), Listening and Pronunciation (L&P, hereafter) and Oral Communication Skills (OCS, hereafter) are described to include the use of speaking skills in their content. Undergraduate students who are enrolled in the ELT program at universities in Turkey must take these two courses before graduating. During the second semester of the academic year in 2020, The two courses started with the face-to-face format on March 12, 2020, and with the rapid and crisis-prompted shift to online education, and all courses shifted into online education starting from March 23, 2020. In the following year after the summer break, L&P I started with the online delivery format in the first semester.

The syllabus for L&P course shows that its content starts with analysis of listening materials and transcriptions of sounds and continues with more advanced topics such as stress types, pitch, and intonation. The content of this course requires that students do a lot of speaking and pronunciation activities. The expected outcome of the course is identifying sounds and phonological rules and engaging in discussions fluently and accurately. OCS course covers expressions, basics of communication, dialogue building, non-verbal communication, telephone conversation, informative and persuasive speech types, and various group discussion activities and continues with fluency in oral communication with interviews, presentations, and discussions. Outcomes of this course cover understanding spoken language, and identifying features of oral communication and discussion, fluency, accuracy, and interactive communication in speaking.

Participants

The professors who participated in this study were responsible for at least one of the four different courses (two courses are separated into I and II in the first two semesters) during the pandemic, and they have been teaching at the same university since before the pandemic. The two professors are full-time assistant professors at a state university in the Black Sea Region in Turkey. Participant A holds an MA degree and a PhD in teaching English from a prestigious university in the UK and had two years of teaching experience. Participant B holds a PhD in teaching English and has over 10 years of teaching experience.

The classroom size for the courses ranged between 40 and 55 as some students froze their studentship during the pandemic and some students transferred to the university between the semesters. In total, 19 undergraduate students enrolled in English Language Teaching BA program at a state university in Black Sea region in Turkey participated in this study.

Data Collection Tools

Data regarding the views and experiences of the participants were collected through two interviews with the professors and answers to open-ended questions from the students. Semi-structured interviews with the two professors allowed the researchers to gather their views towards the online format with a focus on what they experienced during the designing process of these courses. The questions in the interviews were drafted before the interviews and sent to three experts in the field. The expert views helped shape the final form of the questions and clarify the wording in some sentences. The interviews followed a semi-

structured format. One interview lasted 21 minutes and the other 52 minutes on Zoom meetings. A Google Forms survey was administered for student views, and students answered five open-ended questions about their satisfaction towards the online education.

Data Analysis

The data gathered from the interviews were transcribed into written reports and imported into MAXQDA2022 Qualitative Data Analysis software. The transcriptions then were coded with the coding feature on the software. All coding procedures were conducted on MAXQDA2022 software and coded segments were exported from the software. A deductive qualitative analysis process was followed where the segments (sentences) were coded first and then these codes were categorized under themes. In the first round of coding, structural coding was followed where segments in the transcriptions were coded according to the research questions and pre-determined interview questions. These codes were then grouped under sub-themes and finally, three larger themes were identified (see the Appendix).

To establish reliability and validity of the data analysis, the researchers followed various methods and techniques. Firstly, some questions in the interviews were rephrased and asked again to encourage the participants to repeat their views. In analyzing the data, intercoder reliability was checked by first removing the labels of the codes in the transcriptions and highlighting the coded segments in the texts, and then sharing the document with an expert experienced in English language teaching and qualitative analysis. The document was then analyzed by the second coder, and then the analyses were compared. Wording for the codes and themes were negotiated and the process was finalized with minor adjustments. The coding scheme and the themes were concluded with no disagreements. The findings were reported under related themes and codes with excerpts from the transcriptions. The findings obtained from the open-ended questionnaire from the undergraduate students were also reported under the *attitudes towards online education* theme. Obtaining students' attitudes also provided a way to confirm the findings from the interview and find the differences or similarities between the questionnaire results and the interviews.

Findings

Course Design During the Pandemic

The interviews conducted with the professors in this study aimed to shed light on the process of transitioning into online education during the pandemic by examining their attitudes towards the transitions and the course design procedures of the two semesters. The statements made by the professors in the interviews were coded and categorized (Figure 1 in Appendix) in three themes: Course Design in March, Course Design in October, and Attitude. The first two sections were dedicated to course design, and they describe the transition processes for both semesters. The focus of these sections are on contents and material, activity types, and assessment. Then, attitudes towards online education during the pandemic is outlined by the views of the professors and the students.

The transition into online education in March 2020

With the official country-wide announcement made on March 23 in Turkey, universities moved education online to prevent the spread of the Covid-19 outbreak. For the Spring semester, which began in March, the professors who participated in this study were initially advised to do synchronous lessons one week, and upload and publish an asynchronous video of their lesson in the following week until the end of the semester; however, the professors in this study abandoned the asynchronous lesson plan by the end of March as it took too long to upload videos, and they decided to give synchronous lessons on Zoom every week. The university decided to move all courses to its Learning Management System; but as this platform could not withstand the heavy load of all lessons being streamed at the same time, it was only used for sharing links for Zoom meetings and keeping track of which student clicked the links, and publishing announcements or additional documents for the students. As the reality of the outbreak took everyone by surprise, the crisis-prompted transition into online education caused confusion at universities. Since the transition was immediate, the professors discovered how to conduct lessons by themselves and learned from their colleagues by trying out the features of software. The institutional assistance was only limited to video instructions on how to use tools such as Zoom or Loom.

Course design in March

Contents and materials: The professors stated that the crisis-prompted transition in March did not allow allocating time for adapting their courses, meaning that the same syllabus with the same contents and materials was used in the online lessons. As the following excerpts illustrate, the courses were not specifically tailored for the online format during this transition. One of the professors described this situation by using the word ‘digitization’:

There is this general impression that we do not exactly do online education; we try digitization of the traditional way of teaching; because, as far as I see, the teaching methods or techniques do not change, the way communication changes, that is what’s causing discrepancy. Therefore, we need to consider this (education) as more of a remote or online method and act accordingly, and design materials appropriately. (Participant A)

I have given the course before at another university... There are some materials for speaking at the university level... I examined the main themes... after examining the course materials, I supplemented the content with online materials and used my past experiences. (Participant B)

In addition to the interviews, the syllabi for both speaking-based courses were designed prior to March 2020, and the professors made no changes during the crisis-prompted transition. The structure of the syllabi; goals, objectives, intended outcomes, assessment, and weekly contents, stayed the same for the online delivery method during the pandemic. The contents of L&P2 included stressing syllables and speaking clearly, speech rhythm, focus words and shifting focus, and intonation, and some tasks such as role plays and presentations spread over 15 weeks in the semester. The contents of the OCS2 included turn-taking practices, topic management, maintaining the conversation, and group discussion with a considerable amount of individual and group presentations.

Assessment: Syllabi for both courses included a combination of many assessment methods, such as tasks, assignments, and tests. Although the tasks and assignments did not

change, the tests were conducted online by using Microsoft Forms, which led to some concerns. Professors held the view that plagiarism or cheating were serious threats to online tests:

One of the most general changes was with the exams since students could plagiarize or copy each other's works, and this created pressure on the professors to prepare more open-ended questions. (Participant A)

I was never sure if the students copied the texts or sounds from somewhere else. (Participant B)

Initially, professors tried online tests during the mid-term exam week (8th week of the academic calendar). After realizing the threats involved in online tests, the professors opted for online assignment submissions for their courses for the final exam week (15th week of the academic calendar). These changes in the assessment were taken into consideration while preparing for the transition in October.

The transition into online education in October 2020

After completing one semester online during the pandemic, the summer break before the fall semester (October 2020) lasted around four months. Although professors had around four months to prepare for the courses, it was not certain if education would be online in October or not. Universities in Turkey issued official announcements in early September 2020, and the semester began online in mid-October 2020.

Course design in October

Compared with the previous semester, the statements made in the interviews indicated that the professors and students gained more experience in online education. However, despite the increasing experience, there were only slight alterations to the course design in October for the two speaking-based courses in the ELT program. Professors held the view that 'digitization' continued:

There was no additional training (in October) because they thought people gained more experience from the previous year, there were video-based instructions but no practical training and some Q&A sessions. There was a view that professors reached an adequate level (in online education) and we have (training) videos from the previous years. (Participant A)

Contents and materials: Before the fall semester began in October, the professors had four months to design their courses; however, they were unsure if education would be online since universities had not issued official statements during the summer break. The professors stated in the interviews that they introduced supplementary materials (e.g., YouTube videos and TED talks) in the weekly content of the courses. The syllabus for L&P I (in October) includes several YouTube links for each weekly content, such as examining vowels and consonants or lexical stress, and the syllabus for OCS I included TED talk videos and phone conversation samples. However, in time, supplementary videos were used before classes as it became hard to use videos while live-streaming a computer screen on Zoom calls:

I have supplemented my resources with YouTube links for each lesson, and these videos became their homework; they joined the class having watched the videos. (Participant B)

Activity types: Even though courses were not specifically designed for online education in March, professors gained enough experience by the end of the semester, and by October, they decided that some types of activities were found more favorable for speaking-based courses. Group discussions were conducted more often as the students also became familiar with how to assume roles in online group discussions in OCS I course. For example, in one popular format of activity, the students were assigned tasks in groups in which they were either *the speaker* of the activity giving a speech or *the writer* taking notes, and they had to write a report in 15 minutes. Furthermore, as the following excerpt shows, group activities and group discussions were chosen over the whole-class discussions due to many technical reasons:

We observed that there were many voice overlaps, echo, or latency when we tried whole-class discussions; group activities were less problematic in breakout rooms. Face-to-face education is more advantageous in whole-class discussions when you engage the class at the beginning of a lesson for idea generating with a photograph, question, or a fact and expect students to express their views. (Participant A)

In speaking-based lessons, debate as an activity was abandoned since voices would overlap or break during online lessons. In OCS I, the professor included descriptive and informative speech task activities instead. Similarly, role-playing exercises were challenging since no gesture or body language was involved on Zoom calls:

We tried role plays on Zoom but gestures, body language and non-verbal communication have an important place in role-play tasks, students only have cameras and even that is not consistent; some do not start video and we cannot make it obligatory. Therefore, it is very difficult to communicate without body language and we reduced the weight of activities such as role plays, to put it more clearly, we foresaw that these activities would not work, and we tested at the beginning and gave up. We shortened the discussions, groups talked better among themselves, we conducted the lessons by giving group tasks and assigning tasks. (Participant A)

Assessment: OCS I course included five tasks; self-introduction, imitation (of a TED talk), recording a how-to video, and descriptive and persuasive speeches. Considering that the assessment of OCS II (in March) included only individual and group presentations, there was an increase in the number of performance-based tasks in the syllabus for OCS I (in October). Similarly, L&P I included seven assignments, such as finding and reporting words for each specific sounds (vowels and consonants), writing words in phonemic symbols with voice recording, finding the lyrics of a song and transcribing the lyrics in phonemic symbols. Moreover, participation was included in the assessment in October. Although 70% participation is obligatory in courses, in-class participation can often be included in the syllabus. The assessment in both courses only included performance-based tasks and assignments and no online tests were given in October:

I can at least say that an institutional understanding was established for exams when we compare this year to the previous year in terms of exam organization and assessment, I can say it is now more planned since we have more performance-based assessment rather than tests. (Participant A)

The experience gained by the professors in March affected their decisions for assessment methods in October. All assessment methods were performance-based, and online tests were disregarded for both courses in October. The problems and threats caused

by the online tests in the previous semester were compensated by online assignment submissions and formative assessments. As both professors stated, their only option was to give performance-based assignments with video or audio recording. Another issue with assessment was that online education posed a new problem threatening test security:

I was initially planning to do an additional sit-and-write exam. But during online education, I couldn't. Instead, I turned towards a total performance-based assessment with audio and video recording. (Participant A)

Moreover, giving feedback in some activities such as group work or pair work activities were more favorable in the online format and this affordance made formative assessment easier for this type of activities.

Attitudes towards Online Education during Pandemic

Views of the professors

The findings showed that professors had both positive and negative views towards the online format for the courses. One professor explained that he would like to continue online for his course in the following years as well:

I would definitely like to give this course (L&P) online next year, too. As I said, I can list many problems for courses in general but, especially for this course (my view) is positive. (Participant A)

The professor also stated that the online format had an advantage in some parts of the lesson. Since the class was very crowded, pair or group work activities were difficult. Zoom meetings, however, provided opportunities where the professor could easily use the breakout rooms feature and monitor each group:

I could not do group work or pair work activities as we did not have a lab. The classroom was crowded, but Zoom enabled me to do these activities. Therefore, I tried to do more of these activities. (Participant A)

The professor also held the view that there was a significantly positive affordance in giving feedback online. He explained that it became easier to monitor group work and pair work activities online and give feedback:

We struggled (in the face-to-face format) in group activities and I especially struggled in giving feedback. That's because it is impossible for me to listen to 40 people in the class. If I try to listen and give feedback, the timing wouldn't allow me to. (Participant A)

While the online format had its advantages, there were also negative views towards it. One of the most frequently reported issues in the interviews was that students were not motivated enough. This lack of motivation was visible as they did not turn on their cameras or microphones often and they would not participate during the lessons:

I tried to give both theoretical information and examples, but I could not see how receiving the other side was; if I was in the class, I could see the students even from the way they look at me; however, I cannot know if the student goes to sleep after 10 minutes in online classes... I would have liked to see more interaction and see their video (faces) but 90% of the time they close their webcams if I don't tell them by calling out their names, they say that they have bad internet, and this affects my motivation, it is as if I am talking to a wall; this was the same last semester, too. (Participant B)

Another important obstacle, which also affected the course design of the courses, faced in online education was that conducting online tests created many threats related to plagiarism or copying:

One of the most general changes was with the exams since students could plagiarize or copy each other's assignments and this created pressure on the professors to prepare more open-ended questions ... I would have absolutely given an actual test; a sit-and-write exam in an actual classroom. (Participant A)

Although professors chose formative assessment instead of online tests, their desire was to somehow give a test in an actual classroom even during online education.

Views of the Students

The students shared their views towards online education during the pandemic in the open-ended questionnaire, which included five questions. Almost all answers included more than one sentence with examples and explanations about their views. The first question aimed to gather their general attitudes. The answers given to this question illustrated mixed views; while 11 students clearly stated that they were not satisfied with online education, 8 stated that they were satisfied. While describing their attitude, they mostly complained about technical difficulties such as not being able to watch the videos properly during live streaming on Zoom meetings or having too many assignments. In addition, internet connection, microphone quality, exhaustion from looking at computer screens were also mentioned in the answers:

I could participate more in the activities in Oral Communication Skills since the professor asked personal questions in addition to general questions.

I am satisfied, but please let education continue face-to-face. I have so many assignments that my family says they used to see me more often before.

I attend Oral Communication Skills course without feeling as if I have to, I like participating.

The second question aimed to focus more on their participation. The question included a statement asking to briefly explain the reason behind their low or high participation during the lessons. There were many positive comments on how the courses were joyful and educative. When asked about their participation and if they ever faced any difficulties during the classes, no student responded with a specific problem that is related to the courses but only complained about their own lack of reachability, such as electricity problems in the house or not having enough internet access:

In the second semester of the first year, there were more activities for speaking, but now with online education, we experience misunderstandings or hindrance due to bad internet connection or low microphone quality.

We mostly encounter sound problems and cannot watch some videos in class but I'm content with Oral Communication Skills course.

While some students commented that they enjoyed the tasks they were given, some thought that there were too many assignments in general. A few students also commented that they would like to see more feedback and clarifications or explanations for their assignments:

We do not have much idea about what we did wrong in assignments. I just want to see feedback so that I can improve myself.

Discussion

The interviews conducted with the professors showed that the semester which began with the face-to-face format and transitioned into online education did not allow them to reconsider their syllabus. Their statements showed they did not even have enough time to familiarize themselves with the software. Their efforts to prepare for the online lessons were only limited to try the new software with their colleagues with a sense of solidarity. Although Gacs et al. (2020) recommend that a needs analysis must be conducted and training and professional development methods must be given to the stakeholders in education, universities in Turkey were obliged to skip these steps as they only had a few weeks before the transition in March. The comparable situation described by Gacs et al. (2020) drew a different portrait where despite having a few weeks to prepare, Michigan State University was able to respond strategically. They associate their practical response with the fact that the division had been investing in online education for over a decade, and they were aware that their expectations must be adjusted. In this study, however, one of the most significant findings was that the assessment methods did not work in March. As the professors did not have time to design their courses for the online format and they tried online tests and realized that tests were not viable online. The realization that online tests were impossible to conduct and the increased number of assignments in October showed that the adjusting expectations were not considered properly in online education during the pandemic. This finding was also supported by a remark stating that the professor would like to continue with the online delivery format for the lessons but still have sit-and-write exams in an actual classroom. In the 2021-2022 academic year, the university decided that all Elective courses should be online and Must (obligatory courses that all students take) should be face-to-face. During this period, tests were given face-to-face. Although this decision mollified the security concerns towards online tests, it was only a situational remedy made possible after the decline of the Covid-19 outbreak.

At first glance, it may seem that the professors had adequate time before the semester in October; however, universities made official announcements in September, leaving only a few weeks to prepare, just as the urgent and crisis-prompted transition in March. The interviews and the syllabi for the courses in October showed that there were some changes in course design in terms of supplementary materials (audio recordings and YouTube videos), activities in lessons, and assessments. Despite the changes, professors held the view that the 'digitization' continued in October. In other words, education was not specifically tailored for the online format. Gacs et al. (2020) suggest that a 'backward' design approach in online education can provide benefits to any curriculum. It can especially benefit online teachers as it helps "set expectations first, allowing the design process to fully utilize the affordances of the online technologies to create meaningful learning experiences in the course" (p. 385). In fact, the backward design approach was visible in October when professors decided to re-design their syllabi with only performance-based assessments. This finding brings out the discussion that there were some elements in the course design process of the semester in October that differentiated the process from the semester in March. In other words, while the semester in March was most certainly a crisis-prompted urgent transition into online education, the semester in October was not. While the transition in

October was still influenced by the previous crisis, it was not urgent; however, it cannot be categorized as a planned transition into online education, either. This paper suggests a new term for the transition in October; a semi-planned transition into online education. It can be stated that in this type of transition, enough time can be allocated to course design, which is affected by the previous conditions, and experience and expectations can help reshape the process of online education, especially in terms of assessment.

Despite the mixed views on the effectiveness of online classes for the two speaking-based courses examined in this study, there were some positive outcomes of online education, such as the digital means of the online format compensating for the lack of physical infrastructure. As one of the professors commented, there was a lack of speakers to play voice tracks in face-to-face classrooms but on Zoom digital sound was clear most of the time when the internet connection was stable. This was stated as an affordance of online lessons, especially for group-work activities, which often created loud noise in the classroom with echo.

The professors' views demonstrated that turning on cameras should be a natural part of online education; however, sometimes students refused to show their faces. The professors' comments on online lessons showed that even seeing students' faces could increase their motivation. Students must be made aware by the administrators that their presence and participation in the lessons make a change. Not all students may have the adequate equipment for online lessons; therefore, in line with this suggestion, Mishra et al. (2020) also emphasize that "the governments must ensure the availability of reliable communication tools, high quality digital academic experience, and promote technology-enabled learning for students to bridge the disparities originated in the education system before and after COVID-19 catastrophe" (p. 8). Jeffery and Bauer (2020) also suggest that the rapid and forced transition to online teaching aggravated the effects of problems caused in online education and the factors affecting the quality of online education has increased with the recent rapid and forced transition to online teaching. In light of the findings, it can be suggested that students' views need more investigation, especially during crisis-prompted transitions into online education. Various applications and websites may be incorporated to online education to increase student satisfaction and interaction. This recommendation was also suggested in the interviews and this finding is in alignment with Mallillin et al. (2020) who recommend that students can advance their learning through the use of different technologies and apps are assets to online education. The use of Learning Management Systems (LMS) can introduce student-to-student interaction and substantial extensive learning opportunities in online education.

It was also reported by the professors that activities such as role-playing or debate were removed from their syllabi. The reason for removing the activities was that turn-taking was difficult in debates and there was a lack of non-verbal communication (e.g., hand gestures) for roleplays in online lessons. Yépez, Guevara, and Guerrero (2020) state that a virtual reality application can allow "allow students in non-face-to-face education to have a telepresence experience, allowing them to simulate being inside a real classroom with students and teacher" (p. 27). Through a virtual reality application, students may have a

better experience and they may benefit from the virtual telepresence in activities such as role-playing in speaking-based courses.

It is also noteworthy to mention that students' comments on online education indicated that they were not satisfied by the amount of feedback they received for their assignments; however, in the interviews with the professors, giving feedback was one of the advantages of the online format. It may be stated that although giving feedback is more advantageous, as more performance-based assessment is introduced to a course and the amount of grading and giving feedback increases per student, it may become a burden for online teachers.

Furthermore, although satisfaction towards online lessons does not seem low among students, the views of the professors portray a different picture. The statements in the interview illustrated that students refrained from speaking in most activities unless they were specifically assigned a task or called out by name. The students also turned off their cameras most of the time and used the chat box to communicate during the lessons. As professors stated, there was a lack of motivation as they could clearly feel the lack of presence of the students in some lessons. As Bich and Lian (2021) emphasize, students usually feel under pressure during speaking-based lessons and in online education this pressure may be even more intense. Bich and Lian (2021) also found out that although 85% of the students stated that they faced challenges in online education, 62% were satisfied with a project-based learning environment in which they could autonomously explore their abilities, and their needs were better identified. It can be stated that needs and expectations of the students must be examined in order to better understand the ways to improve online education.

During the global pandemic, all parties in education had to make sacrifices and it is also evident in participants' views that since everyone had health-related concerns, online education was widely accepted as the new format for their education; however, as Gacs et al. (2020) describe, when moving to online education, there are several fundamental steps to be followed such as preparing, planning, implementing, and evaluating. Digitization which was mentioned by one of the participants, is not enough for sustainable online education; using face-to-face resources and methods and directly transferring them to online teaching is not a viable way, specifically for speaking-based courses. A study conducted by Kusumawati (2020) illustrated redesigning a speaking course based on Gagne's nine events of instruction. Findings from a study conducted by Basilaia and Kvavadze (2020) also show the importance of online training for teachers. Their conclusion also emphasizes that teaching methodologies have to be studied and improved in online education, and the lesson learned from the pandemic of 2020 will force a new generation of laws, regulations, and platforms.

Conclusion

The research conducted in this study aimed to take a closer look at the process of transitioning into online education with a perspective of course design regarding speaking-based courses. More specifically, the course design process of two speaking-based courses was examined through semi-structured interviews with professors, and an open-ended questionnaire with undergraduate students enrolled in the courses. The interviews aimed to

explore the process of designing the courses and the questionnaire aimed to examine the views of the students toward the online delivery of the courses.

This study suggests that, the type of transition for the semester which began in October was a semi-planned transition to online education. In the semi-planned transition, the main basis for the expectation that online lessons would work comes from the institutional trust towards the experience that professors, lecturers, or teachers gained from the rapid and forced transition in March. Therefore, since professors gained experience of what online education is like but did not introduce new course design or method tailored for online education, it was a semi-planned transition to online education.

During the forced and rapid transition to online education in March, no planning was made, as the professors' views demonstrated; it was a '*digitization*' of the traditional courses. The professors simply transferred their F2F materials into online teaching. This situation was understandable and expected since they had no longer than a week to start teaching in a pandemic outbreak; however, the semester which began in October was different in that they had more time to adjust for the upcoming semester during the semester. Despite the increased time in October, professors' views and comments showed that in course planning, the transition was no different; they continued with the digitization and made minor changes. Their comments showed that they did not view the summer period to be an adequate preparation period since there was uncertainty about whether online education would continue or not until September and they were left with a short period to prepare, again. Although the somewhat longer period of transition in October provided the professors with preparation time to make minor changes and make minor adjustments to course design, the answer to the third research question is that the transition period for the semester which began in October cannot be called a planned transition; however, since it was not a rapid one and there was an official announcement, which was made by the university and supported by the Council of Higher Education in Turkey, it cannot be called a rapid and forced one, either. This finding showed that the answer for the second research question was that courses were not re-designed in terms of content, materials; however, there were minor adjustments in activity types and assessment methods.

In addition to what professors could do, it was evident in the interviews that institutions also need to provide their staff with practical training. It was commented in the interviews that there were only video-based instructions on how to use software and Q&A sessions. On this matter, Buckenmeyer et al. (2011) suggest that Distance Education Mentoring Program (DEMP), which is "designed to educate and certify faculty members in the principles of instructional design for the purpose of enhancing the quality of their online course" may have benefits in helping decision makers at universities with necessary information to build quality online courses (p. 1). Cutri and Mena (2020) also point out that many faculties are "new to online teaching and lack formal education in how to successfully teach online" (p. 361). There needs to be an in-service training where professors are given the chance to conduct need analyses, design and pilot lessons and evaluate the course contents. Gacs et al. (2020) also emphasize that "the institution also has to increase their support to provide just in-time training for teachers and students and foster an atmosphere of collaboration" (p. 383). Therefore, it can be suggested that providing

academic staff with a practice-based training, guidelines on how to plan and design online courses and promote better tailoring courses to online format will be beneficial in improving the quality of online education.

One of the most significant findings of the study was that students refrained from participating in lessons in some cases. Professors reported that the students did not turn on their cameras and microphones despite the repeated requests. It is typical that students may avoid participation in online meetings unless they are assigned a task, or their names are called out during the lesson. As Garland and Violanti (2021) emphasize, during transitions into online education, “no previous experiences can provide a framework for what to expect in this new situation” and students may assume that the education will be based on a typical teacher-student type of communication (p.3). Gacs et al. (2020) also emphasize that setting expectations right is key to a health online education.

Even though the October transition was not urgent, it was nevertheless influenced by the prior crisis and cannot be classified as a planned transition into online learning. In this paper, a *semi-planned transition* to online education is proposed as a new term for the October transition. It can be argued that in this sort of transition, adequate time may be dedicated to course design, which is affected by the prior conditions, and experience and expectations can assist in altering the process of online education, especially in terms of assessment. It was a significant finding that the expectations and needs of both parties, the professors, and the students, were overlooked. This study suggests that during this semi-planned transition period, needs and expectations of the stakeholders can be taken into consideration as this period will have more time when compared to the crisis-prompted urgent transition period.

In conclusion, the results of this study showed that when compared to the forced and rapid transition to online education in March, the transition in October was not a rapid one nor a planned one; it was a semi-planned transition that enabled professors to introduce minor adjustments to online courses. However, in order to bring about quality and efficient online education, needs and expectations of the stakeholders must be investigated before providing institutional in-service trainings and guidelines.

Finally, as of March 2023, tertial level education in Turkey is faced with a crisis-prompted transition into online education yet again. During a devastating earthquake that affected the lives of millions of people in Turkey, universities shifted into online education. This study shed light on the case of two speaking-based courses at a state university, future studies may investigate and compare crisis-prompted, semi-planned, and planned transitions into online education.

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Appendix

Themes, sub-themes and codes of the findings

