Journal of Language Research

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 Teachers and researchers are always welcome to submit unpublished, original, and full-length articles that are not under review in any other journals.

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Editorial

It is our pleasure to share the seventh volume of *Journal of Language Research (JLR)* with the distinguished readers in the field of language learning and teaching. We are also happy to announce that JLR has been indexed in TÜBİTAK ULAKBİM TR DİZİN as of 2022. The seventh volume of JLR features eight articles, each of which adds a different viewpoint to the changing field of language education and two book reviews on different aspects of language education. From the autonomy levels of English language textbooks to the nuances of Arabic language rhetoric, these studies examine the complexity that educators and language learners must navigate in order to accomplish effective language learning and teaching.

The first two articles examine the current issues in language teaching: "Turkish EFL Learners' Perceptions and Preferences of Written Corrective Feedback" and "Examination of Cambridge Primary Path 3 and Oxford Discover 3 by Reinders' Levels of Autonomy." In the former, the autonomy structures of popular English textbooks are examined, and it is found that they are consistent with Reinders' autonomy model. The latter, which is a quantitative study, highlights the significance of matching feedback practices with learner expectations and provides insight into the preferences of Turkish EFL learners for written corrective feedback.

Further exploring the multi-perspective evaluation issues encountered during teaching practicum, "The Practicum Evaluation Conundrum: Perceptions of Preservice English Language Teachers and Their Mentors" digs further into the field of teacher education. This study provides insights that can guide policy and practice in language teacher education by highlighting the need for customized tactics and focused training to improve mentorship and training programs.

A further examination of the metacognitive components of EFL writing is provided in the fourth article, "An Investigation into the Relationship Between Metacognitive Knowledge and Writing Achievement of Turkish EFL Learners." The study provides important insights into the complex structure of metacognitive knowledge in writing by demonstrating a weakly positive link between students' writing skill and their understanding of person- and strategy-related metacognitive features.

The emphasis of "What is up with English: A Needs Analysis for Music Students" is shifted to the particular requirements of Turkish music students acquiring this language. The results highlight how keen learners are to study English for academic and communication goals, and they advocate for pedagogical changes to better support language learners in specialized fields.

The sixth article "A Discourse-Oriented Approach to Interpreter's Non-Rendition Behavior: A Case Study of An Interpreted Parent-Teacher Talk" examines interpreters' non-rendition conduct in mediated communicative environments. The study gains important insights on the kinds and purposes of interpreter-generated utterances by taking a discourse-oriented approach.

"An Evaluation of Reading Text Questions Based on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy in the 7th Grade English Coursebook by Turkish Ministry of National Education" evaluates reading activities' critical thinking skills in the context of reading comprehension. The findings highlight the necessity of modifying instructional strategies and coursebook design in order to guarantee fair coverage of cognitive levels.

The last article, "The Art of Tawjih in Arabic Language Rhetoric," explores the rhetorical skill of tawjih while delving into the rich literary tradition of Arabic language literature. This linguistic investigation provides a deep comprehension of the Arabic language's innate flexibility and complexity.

Together, these publications add to the current research about language education by advising academics, practitioners, and decision-makers to embrace diversity and creativity in their methods. These findings motivate us to keep looking for new opportunities and honing our techniques as we negotiate the ever-changing field of language learning in order to satisfy the various requirements of language learners everywhere.

We are grateful to all the contributors for this seventh volume of JLR and we appreciate their time and effort.

Editors-in Chief

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Cambridge Primary Path 3 ve Oxford Discover 3 Kitaplarının Reinders'in Özerklik Yaklaşımına Göre İncelenmesi

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Öz: Küreselleşen dünyada öğrenme ağında kalabilmek, 21. Yüzyıl becerilerini geliştirebilmek için ikinci hatta üçüncü bir dil bilmek daha da önemli hale gelmiştir. Bu nedenle yabancı dil öğrenme ve öğretiminde, bireyin sınıf içinde ve dışında kendi kendine bağımsız bir şekilde öğrenmesini destekleyen yeni stratejiler, yöntemler ve teknikler geliştirilmektedir. Eğitim sürecine ilişkin yaklaşımın değişmesi, süreçte kullanılan materyallerinde değişmesini zorunlu kılmaktadır. Materyalin hedef kitleye uygunluğu, ilgi çekici olması, kalıcı bir dil edinimi sağlayabilecek niteliğe sahip olması gibi unsurlar ön plana çıkmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda çalışmada, İngilizce öğretiminde kullanılan ders kitaplarının etkili öğrenmenin ön koşulu olan özerk bir yapıda olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır. Nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden Durum çalışması deseninde yapılan araştırmada Cambridge Primary Path 3 ve Oxford Discover 3 ders kitapları örneklem olarak alınmıştır. Doküman incelemesinin kullanıldığı araştırmada kitaplar Reinders'in dokuz özerklik basamağına göre incelenmiştir. Araştırma sonucunda her iki kitapta da farklılıklar gözlemlenmekle birlikte, Reinders'in özerklik modeline uygun olarak tasarlandığı görülmüştür.

Anahtar kelimeler: *İngilizce ders kitapları, İngilizce ders materyalleri, Öğrenen özerkliği, Reinders'in özerklik basamakları.*

Examination of Cambridge Primary Path 3 and Oxford Discover 3 by Reinders' Levels of Autonomy

Abstract: In the globalizing world, knowing a second or even a third language has become even more important in order to stay in the learning network and develop 21st century skills. For this reason, in foreign language learning and teaching, new strategies, methods and techniques are developed that support the individual's independent learning inside and outside the classroom. The change in the approach to the education process necessitates a change in the materials used in the process. Elements such as the suitability of the material for the target audience, its attractiveness, and the ability to acquire a permanent language come to the fore. For this reason, in the study, it was investigated whether the textbooks used in English teaching have an autonomous structure, which is a prerequisite for effective learning. Cambridge Primary Path 3 and Oxford Discover 3 textbooks were taken as samples in the research conducted in the case study design, which is one of the qualitative research methods. In the research, in which document analysis was used, the books were examined according to Reinders' nine levels of autonomy. As a result of the research, although differences were observed in both books, it was seen that they were designed in accordance with the autonomy model of Reinders.

Keywords: *English textbooks, English course materials, Learner autonomy, Reinders's autonomy steps.*

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GİRİŞ

Teknolojideki gelişmeler, eğitimden sağlığa, ekonomiden sosyal hayata birçok şeyi değiştirmiştir. Bu değişimde bazı meslekler, beceriler önemini kaybederken bazıları da daha önemli hale gelmiştir. Şekli, yöntemi, kullanılan araçları değişse de önemi her geçen gün artan becerilerden biri olan iletişim ve iletişimde de yabancı dil bilmek ayrı bir öneme sahip olmuştur. Küresel dünyada var olabilmek, öğrenme ağında kalabilmek için özelikle yabancı dil olarak İngilizce bilmek, lüks olmaktan ziyade ihtiyaç haline gelmiştir.

Dünya genelinde yıllardır yabancı dil öğretiminde farklı kaynaklarla, materyallerle, farklı yaklaşımlarla dil öğretimi gerçekleştirilmeye çalışılmaktadır. Dinleme, konuşma, okuma ve yazma becerileri temelinde gerçekleşen bu süreçte, ders kitapları hem öğretim programını uygulamada hem de dil becerilerinin öğretiminde asıl kaynak olarak konumunu korumaktadır (Maden ve Önal, 2020). Her ne kadar eğitim dijital bir hal alsa da gelişen yaklaşım ve metotların ışığında bu kitaplar gerek ünitelerin içeriği, gerek temalar ve gerekse sözcükler gibi pek çok konuda sistemlerini geliştirmekte ve belli başlıları dünya çapında tercih edilmektedir. Yaygın olarak konuşulan İngilizcenin öğretimi bu kitaplar sayesinde belirli bir standarda ve güvenirliğe ulaşmıştır (Güneş, 2019). Fakat bu standartlar süreç boyunca sürekli olarak sorgulanmış ve gelişen dünyanın gereklilikleri ile yeni neslin öğrenme yaklaşımları ve ihtiyaçları etrafında şekillenmiştir. Zira okul uygulamalarında başarılı olabilecek yaklaşımlar olsa dahi, bilginin hızla arttığı ve yayıldığı günümüzde öğrenenlerin profesyonel yaşamlarını başarılı bir şekilde sürdürebilmelerine yeterli olmamakla birlikte, hayat boyu gereksinimlerini karşılayamamaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra günümüz insanından yaşam boyu öğrenen bireyler olması beklenmektedir (Tarhan ve Saraç, 2006). Yaşam boyu öğrenmenin öğrencisi olmak için de bireyin " öz yönetimli öğrenme (self-directed learning), "özdüzenlemeli öğrenme (self-regulated learning)", "bağımsız öğrenme (independent learning)" ve "öğrenen özerkliği (learner autonomy)" gibi becerilerden bazılarına sahip olması gerekmektedir (Tarhan ve Saraç,2006).

Bu becerilerden biri olan "Öğrenen Özerkliği" günümüzde pek çok İngilizce dil sınıfında önemli faktörlerden biri haline gelmiştir. Sınıf içerisinde başarılı olan öğrencilerin, aynı zamanda sınıf dışında da bir öğretmen olmaksızın bağımsız bir şekilde öğrenmek için kendi öğrenmelerini kontrol edebilme yolunda ilerlemeleri fikri, dil öğretiminde yaygın olarak kabul görmüştür.

Özerk Öğrenme Nedir?

Günümüz yüzyılının dil öğretiminin teori ve pratiğinde, öğrencilerin öğrenmelerinde daha özerk olmalarına yardımcı olmanın önemi, çok daha öne çıkan temalardan bir haline gelmiştir. Ortak Avrupa Dil Çerçevesi (CEFR) odaklı müfredat uygulamaları ve daha bir çok dikkate alınan konular içerisinde öğrenen özerkliği de bulunmaktadır (Yaman, Ekmekçi ve Şenel, 2019) . Özerklik fikri genellikle güçlü tepkilere yol açar diyen Benson'a (2001) göre eleştirenler için özerklik, idealist bir hedeftir ve teşvik edilmesi gerçek dil öğretme ve öğrenme işinden alı koymaktadır. Savunucularına göre ise etkili öğrenme için bir ön koşuldur; öğrenenler özerklik geliştirmeyi başardıklarında, sadece iyi dil öğrenicileri olmakla kalmaz aynı zamanda yaşadıkları topluluğun daha sorumlu ve eleştirel bireyleri haline gelirler.

Bununla birlikte, özerklik konusundaki tartışmalar, genellikle kavramın doğası ve uygulanması hakkındaki yanlış anlamalarla ilişkilendirilir. Örneğin, özerkliğin genellikle izole öğrenme, öğretmensiz öğrenme veya sınıf dışında öğrenme anlamına geldiği varsayılır, öyle ki kavramın dil öğretimi ile ilgisi belirsizdir. Benzer şekilde, özerklik genellikle zorunlu olarak belirli becerileri ve davranışları ve öğretme ve öğrenme sürecini organize etmenin belirli yöntemlerini ifade ediyor gibi görülür. Bu kavram yanılgıları, en azından kısmen, alanın kendi içindeki terminolojik ve kavramsal karışıklığın bir sonucudur. Aslında özerklik, belirli bir öğretme veya öğrenme modundan ziyade, öğrencinin öğrenme sürecine geniş yaklaşımını ifade eder (Benson, 2001). Yani günümüzde bu, öğretmen ve öğrenci arasındaki rol değişikliğini; öğretmenin bilgi aktarıcı bir kaynak konumundan çıkarak, öğrenciyi yönlendiren bir rehber rolüne girmesi ve öğrencinin de bilgiyi alan değil, oluşturan

olmasını sağlayan bir yaklaşım olarak da ifade edilebilir. Öğretmen merkezli geleneksel öğrenme yaklaşımının yerini artık öğrenci merkezli yaklaşıma bırakması olarak görülebilir (Akkuş,2019).

Akpınar ve Aydın'a (2007) göre öğrenen özerkliği, süreçte öğrencinin öğrenme sorumluluğunu üstlendiği, öğrenme sürecinde aktif ve tüm aşamalarına hâkim olduğu bir yaklaşımdır. Aynı zamanda Avrupa Konseyi tarafından da yabancı dil eğitimindeki sürecin belirli bir çerçeve içerisinde yürütülmesi için hazırlanan Avrupa Dil Portfolyosu (ADP) kapsamında öğrenci özerkliği, yabancı dil öğretimi içerisinde kullanılmak amacıyla geliştirilmiş bir öğrenme- öğretme yaklaşımıdır (Çakıldere, 2016). Ayrıca Avrupa Dil Gelişim dosyası (ELP) 'nin de özellikle üzerinde durduğu en önemli kavramlardan biri de öğrenen özerkliğidir (Güneyli, ve Demirel 2006). Her düzeyde dil becerisi ve öğrenme çabasını desteklemek ve öğrenenleri güdülemeyi ön planda tutan bu çalışma, bunu yaparken öğrenene hedef belirleme, öğrenmeyi planlama ve özerk öğrenme için cesaret vermeye ve yardımcı olmaya çalışmaktadır (Bayat, 2007).

Holec (1981)'e göre ise öğrenci özerkliği, öğrencinin öğrenme sorumluluğunu alma becerisidir. Buradan hareketle öğrenciden: hedeflerin, içeriğin belirlenmesi ile başlayarak, kullanılacak yöntemin seçilmesi, öğrenilenlerin değerlendirilmesi gibi pek çok öğrenme aşamalarından sorumlu olması anlamına geldiği sonucuna varabiliriz. Fakat Dam'e (1995) göre bu sürecin başarılabilmesi için öğrenciye ilk olarak nasıl öğrenileceğini öğretmek gerekmektedir.

Kişinin kendi öğrenmesinden sorumlu olması olarak tanımlanan öğrenme özerkliğinin giderek daha popüler hale gelmesi, ders kitaplarında da gerekli kalitenin bulunması, öğrenen kişiyi kendi başına yeni bilgiyi aramaya teşvik edebilecektir (Holec,1981).

Balçıkanlı ve Reinders'e (2011) göre, özerkliğin ders kitaplarındaki yerine yönelik çalışmalar pek fazla bulunmamaktadır. Reinders (2010), ders kitaplarının eğitim alanında bilgi ve uygulama sağlayıp sağlamadığına ve eğer sağlıyorsa bunu nasıl uyguladığına yönelik bir çerçeve geliştirmiştir. Ders kitabı öğrencilere nasıl öğrenecekleri, kendi seçimlerini yapma fırsatı verip vermediği, öğrenme stillerine ve stratejilerine odaklanılıp odaklanmadığı ve farkındalık oluşturma için bir fırsat sunup sunmadığına yönelik kendi kendine öğrenme sürecindeki sekiz aşamayı gösteren bir çerçeve ortaya koymaktadır. Aşamalar kendini tekrar eden ve kendi üzerine inşa eden bir döngü oluşturur ve yinelemelidir. Reinders'ın öğrenci özerkliği gelişim aşamaları Tablo 1'de verilmiştir:

Tablo1: Öğrenci Özerkliğinin gelişim aşamaları

ÖĞRENME AŞAMASI	ÖĞRETMEN YÖNETİMİ	ÖĞRENEN YÖNETİMİ
Öğrenme İhtiyaçlarının Belirlenmesi	Yerleştirme testler, öğretmen geribildirimleri	Dil kullanımında öğrenen deneyimleri/zorlukları
Hedeflerin Belirlenmesi	Ders içerisinde belirlenir,sabittir.	Bağlamsal olarak belirlenir, nispeten esnektir.
Öğrenmenin Planlanması	Öğretmen tarafından belirlenir, biraz esnektir.	Bağlamsal olarak belirlenir, çok esnektir.
Kaynakların Seçilmesi	Öğretmen tarafından belirlenir.	Öğrenciler tarafından kendi kendine seçilir.
Öğrenme stratejilerinin seçimi	Öğretmen modeller ve yönergeleri verir.	Öğreneneler tarafından seçilir.
Uygulama	Öğretmen tarafından destekli uygulama ve aktiviteler	Uygulama(dil kullanımı) ve deneyimleme
İlerlemeyi izleme	Düzenli sınıf geri bildirimi ve ödevler ile görevler hakkında yorumlar	Kendi kendini izleme, Akran geri bildirimi
Değerlendirme ve Gözden Geçirme	Testler, müfredat değişiklikleri	Öz değerlendirme yansıtma

Öğrenme İhtiyaçlarının Belirlenmesi

Barcelos'e (2008) göre öğrenenlerin öğrenme ihtiyaçlarına ilişkin çok fazla fikri bulunmamaktadır. Hatta pek çoğu bu hususta hiçbir şey bilmemektedir. Reinders (2010), öğrencilere sınıf içerisinde sadece genel seviyelerinin gösterildiği puanlar verildiğini fakat güçlü ve zayıf yönlerinin dikkate alınarak öğrenme ihtiyaçlarının, eksiklerinin verilmediğini ifade ederek sınıf atmosferini eleştirmektedir.

Hedeflerin Belirlenmesi

Öğrencilerin özerk olmalarına yardımcı olmak için hedef belirlemenin ihtiyaçların analizi kadar önemli olduğunu belirtmek gerekmektedir. Nunan'a (1999) göre, kendi hedeflerini tanımlayabildikleri ve kendi öğrenme fırsatlarını yaratabilecekleri bir noktaya ulaşan öğrenenler, tanım gereği hali hazırda özerk hale gelirler. Ayrıca Reinders'a göre öğrenenin merkezine doğru ilerlemenin tek yolunun, öğrencilerin kendilerine öğretilenler üzerinde söz sahibi olmalarıdır. Özerklik çerçevesinin bu basamağı ile ders kitaplarının öğrenenin hedeflerini belirlemesine izin verip vermediği belli olmaktadır.

Öğrenmeyi Planlama

Reinders (2010), hedef belirleme ve öğrenmeyi planlamanın aynı madalyonun farklı yüzleri olduğunu öne sürmekte ve kişinin hedeflerinin planlama için en iyi yol olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Bu aşama seçilen ders kitabının öğrencileri öğrenmelerini planlamaya teşvik edip etmediğini belirlemektedir.

Kaynakların Seçilmesi

Bu aşama genellikle öğretmenler tarafından yapılmaktadır. Fakat pek çok öğretmen bu seçim aşamasına özerklik kazanımları adına öğrencileri de dâhil etmeyi denemiştir (Aston, 1993; Benson, 1994). Örneğin Dam (1995), öğrencilerden sınıfta ve kendi kendine erişim merkezinde kullanılmak üzere okul dışından otantik materyaller bulmalarını istedi. Bu aşamada görev olarak sınıflandırılabilecek etkinliklerin çoğu, materyallerin öğrenciler tarafından üretilmesini veya paylaşılmasını içerebilmektedir.

Öğrenim Stratejilerinin Seçilmesi

Reinders (2010), pek çok öğrencinin etkinliklerin nasıl tamamlanacağına öğretmenin karar vermesinden memnun olduğunu, ancak öğrenmenin gelişmesi için yine de çok çeşitli stratejiler kullanma ve tam sorumluluk alacaklarsa göreve uygun stratejiler seçme becerilerini geliştirmeleri gerektiğini önermektedir. Bu aşama, seçilen ders kitaplarının öğrencilere öğrenme stratejilerini seçme şansı verip vermediğini belirlemektedir.

Uygulama

Genellikle öğretmenlerden öğrenilenlerle ilgili öğrenenlerden uygulama yapmaları beklenmektedir. Bu bağlamda sınıflarda kullanılan materyaller de öğrenenlere şans vermelidir. Reinders (2010), bu materyallerin birçoğunun öğrencilere öğrendikleri yeni bilginin hangi yönünü uygulayacakları ve yeni bilgilerini nasıl kullanacakları konusunda onlara herhangi bir seçenek de sunmadığını söylemektedir. Öğrenenlerin pratik yapması önemli olduğundan bu basamakta ders kitaplarının öğrencilere bu konuda fırsat verip vermediği değerlendirilmektedir.

İlerlemeyi İzleme

Reinders (2010), özerkliğin gelişimi için öğrencinin kendi ilerlemesini izleme ve buna göre öğrenme planlarını gözden geçirme becerisini geliştirmesi gerektiğini öne sürmektedir. Ayrıca bu süreçte faydalı olabilecek öğrenme günlüklerine bir örnek sunmaktadır. Bu basamakta derslerde kullanılan ders kitapları, öğrencileri başarılarını kaydetmeye ve başarılarının nedenlerini belirlemeye teşvik etmelidirler. Bu aşamada ders kitaplarında bu özelliğin olup olmadığı aranmaktadır.

Değerlendirme ve Gözden Geçirme

Bu basamak, portfolyo gibi bazı alternatif değerlendirmeler kullanarak öğrencilerin kendi öğrenmelerini değerlendirmelerine izin vermekle ilgili olmaktadır. Reinders (2010), tarafından geliştirilen bu çerçeve son olarak kitapları, öğrenenlerin öğrendiklerini değerlendirmelerini ve gözden geçirmelerini sağlamak açısından değerlendirmektedir.

ARAŞTIRMANIN ÖNEMİ

Doğru ya da yanlış, yoğun bir bilgi paylaşımının oluşturduğu bir çağda yaşıyor olduğumuzu da göz önünde bulunduracak olursak, bireylere her türlü bilgiyi aktarmak yerine onların öğrenmeyi öğrenmesini sağlamak çok daha fazla kazanım sağlayacaktır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında da öğrenci özerkliği bunu hedefleyen bir yaklaşımdır (Süğümlü, 2017).

Nasıl öğreneceğini öğrenen bireyler gereksiz bilgi yığınının içerisinden sıyrılarak doğru ve tam bilgiye ne şekilde ulaşacağını bilir ve istediği hedefe rahatlıkla yönelebilir. Bu yaklaşım doğrultusunda yabancı dil öğretiminde de öğrencinin özerk olma sürecinde, kişisel gelişimini sağlamasında yardımcı olabilecek materyallerin gerekliliği önemli bir husus olmaktadır. Ders kitapları göz önüne alındığında, öğrencilerin ihtiyaçları ile ilgili olarak önceden belirlenmiş amaç ve hedeflere ulaşmada en iyi kaynaklar olarak görülmektedir (Cunningsworth, 1995). Çünkü ders kitapları öğrencilere kendi kendilerine çalışma şansı veren materyallerdir. Bu açıdan bakıldığında öğrenci özerkliği ile ders kitapları arasında bir bağlantı kurulabileceği sonucuna varılabilmektedir.

Fenner'a (2000) göre öğrenen özerkliğinin belirli yönleri yararlı araçlar olarak ders kitaplarıyla desteklenebilir. Yani bu kitap içerisindeki metin ve yönergelerle öğrenci özerkliğini geliştirebileceğimiz anlamına gelir. Fakat asıl sorun bu derece önem arz eden ders kitaplarının yazarları için bu konuların göz ardı edilebilmesidir.Bir diğer sorun ise ders kitaplarının değerlendirilmesi sürecinde kitapların farklı yönlerine odaklanılması ve genel anlamda yetişkin öğrenen materyallerine yönelik incelemeler yapılmasıdır. Hâlbuki teknolojinin hızla gelişmesi ile özerkliğin erken yaşta kazanılması gerçeğinin göz ardı edilmesi sebebiyle yetişkin öğrencilerden ziyade daha küçük yaş gruplarının öğrenen özerkliği de söz konusu olmaya başlamaktadır. Bu aşamada öğreten ve öğrenen kadar yabancı dil materyallerini üretenlerin de özerklik kavramını bilmeleri ve ders materyallerini özerkliği göz önünde bulundurarak hazırlamaları gerekmektedir (Aydoğdu, 2009).

Dünya genelinde İngilizce dil öğretiminde çoğunlukla Cambridge ve Oxford üniversitelerinin yayınları kullanılmaktadır. Ancak bu yayınların günümüzdeki öğrenen özerkliğini destekleyip desteklemediğine ilişkin bir çalışma bulunmamaktadır. Bu doğrultuda araştırmada Cabridge Primary Path 3 ile Oxford Discover 3 kitapları, Reinders'ın özerklik basamaklarına uygun mudur? sorusuna cevap aranmıştır.

YÖNTEM

Çalışmada nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden durum çalışması tercih edilmiştir. Durum çalışması, belli bir sınırı olan sistemin sürecinin nasıl ilerlediği ve nasıl çalıştığı ile ilgili bilgi toplamak adına çoklu veri toplama kullanılarak, sistemin derinlemesine incelenmesini içeren metodolojik bir yaklaşımdır (Chmiliar, 2010).

Araştırmanın örneklemi, amaçlı örnekleme olarak belirlenmiştir. Amaçlı örnekleme, amaca bağlı olarak bilgi bakımından zengin durumların seçilerek detaylıca araştırma yapılmasına olanak tanıyan örnekleme çeşididir (Büyüköztürk vd. 2012).

Araştırmada örneklem olarak dünya çapında yıllardır yabancı dil eğitimi alanlarında kullanılan Oxford ve Cambrigde yayınlarından 3. Sınıf düzeyinde;

- Oxford Discover 3 - Yazarlar: Kathleen Kampa , Charles Vilina
        Sayfa sayısı: 192
        Basım yılı: 2019
        Yayınevi: Oxford University Press, İngiltere
- Cambridge Primary Path 3 - Yazarlar: Emily Hird
        Sayfa Sayısı: 208
        Basım Yılı: 2019,
        Yayınevi: Cambridge University Press, İngiltere

kitaplarının öğrenci kitapları incelenmiştir. Bu kitapların seçilmesinin nedeni, Cambridge Üniversitesi Yayınevi'nin Primary Path 3 kitabının ve Oxford Üniversitesi Yayınevi'nin Oxford Discover 3 kitabının seçilmiş olması her ikisinin de hem basılı hem de çevrimiçi olarak eğitim materyalleri, kaynaklar ve hizmetlerin sağlayıcılığı açısından yaygın bir ağa sahip olmasıdır. Cambridge Üniversitesi Yayınevi'nin (2022) yıllık raporuna göre, 5 ila 19 yaş arası öğrenciler için uluslararası eğitim programları ve yeterliliklerin dünya genelindeki en büyük sağlayıcısı konumunda olması; Oxford Üniversitesi Yayınevi'nin (2019) yıllık raporuna göre 53 milyon öğrenciyi destekleyen 71 dilde eğitim kaynakları geliştirmek için 159 ülkedeki eğitimciler, okullar ve ortaklarla birlikte çalışıyor olması nedeniyle, Primary Path 3 ve Oxford Discover 3 kitapları tercih edilmiştir (Oxford Impact Study, 2019; Cambridge University, 2022).

Her iki kitap iki set halinde olup, her sette bir öğrenci kitabı, bir çalışma kitabı bulunmakla birlikte Cambridge Primary Path' de My Creative Journal (yaratıcılık günlüğüm) adı altında bir aktivite kitabı daha bulunmaktadır. Her iki yayın evi de 21. Yy becerilerinden özellikle 4C (Communication, Collaboration, Critical thinking, Creativity) iletişim, takım çalışması, eleştirel düşünme ve yaratıcılık becerilerini çalışmalarının odağında tutarak genel anlamda bu çerçeve etrafında gitmeye özen göstermişlerdir.

Tablo 2 : Cambridge Primary Path 3 ve Oxford Discover 3

Cambridge Primary Path 3	Oxford Discover 3
1) **Big Question** **What makes your community special?**	1) Big Question - How do people have fun? Unit 1 Unit 2
2) **Big Question** **What is food for?**	2) Big Question -Why do people move to new places? Unit 3 Unit 4
3) **Big Question** **Why do we need to take care of nature?**	3) Big Question - Why do people write poems? Unit 5 Unit 6
4) **Big Question**	4) Big Question - How do we measure time?

What is art?	Unit 7
	Unit 8
5) **Big Question** **Why do we travel?**	5) Big Question - Where does energy come from? Unit 9 Unit 10
6) **Big Question** **Why do we play sports?**	6) Big Question - How do people make music? Unit 11 Unit 12
7) **Big Question** **How can we explore the past?**	7) Big Question - How do inventions change our lifes? Unit 13 Unit 14
8) **Big Question** **How important is electricity?**	8) Big Question - Why do we need plants? Unit 15 Unit 16
9) **Big Question** **Why do we have music?**	9) Big Question - Why do we explore? Unit 17 Unit 18

Tablo 2' de de görüldüğü üzere Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabı 9 üniteden oluşmaktadır ve her ünite "Big Question" başlığı altında ünitenin temasını oluşturmaktadır. Oxford Discover 3 kitabında da 9 Big Question teması bulunmakta fakat her tema altında kendisi ile ilişkili iki üniteye ayrılmakta ve toplamda 18 üniteden oluşmaktadır.

Verilerin analizinde betimsel analiz kullanılmıştır. Betimsel analiz, önceden belirlenmiş temalar doğrultusunda çeşitli veri toplama teknikleri kullanılarak elde edilen verilerin özetlendiği ve yorumlandığı nitel veri analizi yöntemidir. Bu yöntemin temel hedefi, elde edilen bulguların özetlenmiş ve yorumlanmış bir şekilde okuyucuya sunulmasıdır. Verilerin analizinde Reinders tarafından geliştirilen sekiz basamaklı özerk öğrenme çerçevesi kategoriler olarak alınmıştır. Belirlenen kategorilere göre değerlendirme işlemi araştırmacılar tarafından ayrı ayrı yapılmıştır. Bu doğrultuda; öğrenme ihtiyaçlarının belirlenmesi, hedeflerin belirlenmesi, öğrenmenin planlanması, kaynakların seçilmesi, öğrenme stratejilerinin seçimi, uygulama, ilerlemeyi izleme, değerlendirme ve gözden geçirme basamaklarına göre betimsel analizler gerçekleştirilmiş ve her iki araştırmacının değerlendirmesi karşılaştırılmıştır. Veri analizi güvenirliği için Miles ve Huberman'ın (1994) önerdiği [Görüş birliği / (Görüş birliği + Görüş ayrılığı) x 100] görüş birliği formülü kullanılmıştır.

BULGULAR

Oxford ve Cambrigde yayın evlerine ait 3. Sınıf düzeyinde Oxford Discover 3 ve Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitapları, özerk öğrenme aşamalarındaki adımlara göre (öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarını belirleme, hedeflerini belirleme, öğrenmeyi planlama, kaynakları ve öğrenme stratejilerini seçme, uygulama yapma, öğrenme sürecini izleme ve değerlendirme ve yeniden düzenleme) değerlendirilmiş ve ulaşılan bulgular aşağıda basamaklar halinde sunulmuştur.

İhtiyaçların Belirlenmesi

Reinder'ın Özerk Öğrenme Basamakları'nın ilk aşaması öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarının belirlenmesi üzerinedir (Reinders,2010). Bu basamakta bu kitapların öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarını belirlemesine izin verip vermedikleri incelenmiştir. Reinders (2010) 'a göre öğrenciler dil ihtiyaçları ile ilgili net bir fikre sahip değillerdir. İhtiyaçları olduğunu düşündükleri ile gerçekte ihtiyaç duydukları arasında bir uyuşmazlık vardır.

Bu bağlamda kitapları incelediğimizde, her iki kitapta da "Big Question" adlı soruların önemli bir yeri bulunmaktadır. Ünitelerin, bağlamlarını belirleyen, üst düzey düşünme becerilerini geliştiren ve temanın daha derinden keşfedilmesi destekleyen 1 soru (Big Question) sorarak başlaması dikkat çekmektedir. Bu sorular ünitede işlenecek olan konular için öğrencileri hazırlamakla birlikte öğrencilerin konu hakkında ne kadar bilgiye sahip olduklarını düşündürmektedir. Ayrıca öğrencilerin ön bilgilerini harekete geçirmekte ve konu hakkında düşünmelerini sağlamaktadır. Her soru ayrıca tema ile ilgili resimlerle çevrilmiştir. Bu resimler soru ile ilişki kurulmasını sağlayarak ünitenin tamamına atıflarda bulunmakla birlikte öğrencilerde merak ve ilgi uyandırmaktadır.

Cambridge Primary Path 3, ünite girişi ve Big Question	Oxford Discover 3 , ünite girişi ve Big Question

Şekil 1: İhtiyaçlara ilişkin görseller

Her iki kitabında Ünite sorusunun altında bu ünite dahilinde neler yapılacağı kademelere ayrılarak verilmiştir. Ve konuyla ilgili daha detaylı sorularla öğrenciler daha detaylı düşünmeye teşvik edilmiştir.

Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabında ise bunların peşine bölüm dahilinde öğrenilecek anahtar kelimeler listelenmiştir. Bu da öğrenme hedeflerinin seçimi konusunda öğrenciye özerklik tanıması açısından bir örnek olarak görülebilir. Öğrenciler bu verilen kelimeleri bilip bilmediklerini kontrol ederek öğrenme ihtiyacı duydukları sözcükleri listeleyebilirler.

Her iki kitapta da konuyu tanıtan ve öğrencileri konunun farklı açılarından düşünmeye teşvik eden bir ünite açılış videosu bulunmaktadır. Öğretmen tarafından sınıf ortamında kitapların dijital kaynaklarından gösterilen bu videolar, öğrencileri görsel ve işitsel olarak ünitenin teması ile ilgili başta sorulan tüm soruları tekrar sormakta, ders içi motivasyon ve merakı arttırmaktadır.

Bunlara ek olarak, Oxford Discover kitabında ise ,''Big Question Chart" adı altında bir ek bulunmakta ve her ünite sorusu altından 3 kısma ayrılmaktadır. Bu da o soru ile ilgili *Ne Biliyordum?, Ne Bilmek İstiyorum? Ve Ne öğrendim?* kısımlarından oluşmaktadır. (Bu pek çok dil sınıfında da kullanılmakta ve KWL Chart olarak bilinmektedir.) İlk sorunun yanıtlarını başta alarak aslında özerklik basamaklarından ihtiyaçların belirlenmesi ile ilişkin adımın tamamlanmasına hizmet ettiği görülmektedir.

Hedeflerin Belirlenmesi

Özerklik basamaklarından hedef belirleme basamağı, öğrencilere süreç içerisinde varmak istedikleri noktayı ve elde etmeyi umduklarını seçme şansı vermektedir.

Her iki kitabın ünite sorusunun altında bu ünite ilgili varılması beklenen hedefler sıralanmıştır:

Tablo 3: Üniteler ile ilgili varılması beklenen hedefler

Cambridge Primary Path 3	Oxford Discover 3
Konuşulacak konu	İzlenecek video
Öğrenilecek kazanım	Öğrenilecek kazanım
Yazılacak metin	Okunacak metin
Yapılacak aktivite (değişken)	Yapılacak aktivite (değişken)
Yapılacak etkinlik (değişken)	Yapılacak etkinlik (değişken)

Örnek ünite: Cambridge Primary Path 3 (Unıt 1- What makes your community special?)	Örnek ünite: Oxford Discover 3 (Unıt 1-2 – How people have fun?)
Konuşulacak konu (About different types of community)	İzlenecek video (About people having fun)
Öğrenilecek kazanım (Discuss the oracy grand rules)	Öğrenilecek kazanım (How people have fun)
Yazılacak metin (A letter to nominate a classmate for a prize)	Okunacak metin (About festivals and games)
Yapılacak aktivite (Give a presentation on making your school better)	Yapılacak aktivite (write a play about a fun day)
Yapılacak etkinlik (Ask for directions in a town)	Yapılacak etkinlik (Act in a play)

Bu hedeflerin büyük bir kısmının uygulanışı tamamen öğrencilerin konuyla ilgili varmak istedikleri kendi hedefleri doğrultusunda şekil alabilecekleri yönergelerle sunulmaktadır. Yapılan incelemede Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabının bu basamaklarda öğrenciyi konu ile ilgili kendi hedeflerini belirlemeye ilişkin daha çok alan sağladığı gözlemlenmiştir. Yani daha esnektir.

Fakat, ayrıca Oxford Discover 3 kitabında ,''Big Question Chart'' adlı tablonun ikinci kısmı bu ünite ile ilgili öğrencinin konu ile ilgili neyi bilmek istediğini sorduğu kısımdır. Bu da hedeflerin belirlenmesi ile ilgili basamağın tamamlanması ile ilgili bu kitapta ünite başında ayrıca olarak teşkil edilmektedir.

Öğrenmenin Planlanması

Reinder'a (2010) göre hedeflerin belirlenmesi ve öğrenmenin planlanması birbirleri ile bağlantılıdır. Hali hazırda hedefini belirlemiş olan bir öğrenci aslında öğrenmenin planlamasındaki ilk adımı atmış bulunmaktadır. Hedeflerin önceden belirlenmiş olması öğrenmeyi planlama açısından öğrencilere fırsat sunmuyor gibi düşünülse de kitapların tüm ünitelerinin plan sıralamaları incelediğinde;

Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabında, ünite planlaması; okuma, kelime öğretimi, dil bilgisi konuşma becerileri (ORACY), fonetik ve sesletim, yazma, dinleme, ünite sonu proje çalışması ve konuşma çalışmaları ana başlıkları altında sıralanmaktadır. Fakat bu başlıklar üniteden üniteye temaları farklı şekillerde ele almakta ve her seferinde öğrenciye farklı bir bakış açısı ve düşünme şekline yönlendirmektedir.

Oxford Discover 3 kitabında, ünite planlaması: okuma, kelime öğrenimi, dil bilgisi, dinleme, konuşma, yazma ve ünite sonu proje çalışması ana başlıkları altında sıralanmaktadır. Her iki kaynakta da ünite etkinliklerinin birbirleriyle bağlantılı olması nedeniyle öğrenmenin kitabın planlamasına uygun olarak ilerlemesini zorunlu kılmaktadır. Bu da kitapların öğrencilere öğrenmeyi planlama fırsatı sunmadıklarını göstermektedir. Yani öğrenmenin planlanması konusunda öğrenciye özerklik tanımamaktadırlar.

Kaynakların Seçilmesi

Kendi öğrenmelerini sağlayacak kaynakların öğrencilerin kendileri tarafından seçilmesine ilişkin örnekler ve başarılı sonuçlar mevcuttur (Aston, 1993; Benson,1994). Fakat genellikle kaynakların seçiminin öğretmenlerin görevi olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabını kaynak seçmede özerk olmaya teşvik edip etmediği doğrultusunda incelendiğinde, ünitenin içinde beş ayrı yerde ''Big Question Links'' adı altında konuyla alakalı bağımsız tek sorular bulunduğu görülmektedir. Bu soruları amacı, öğrencinin konu ile ilgili kitabın dışına yönelerek başka kaynaklardan cevap arayışına girmesini sağlamaktadır. Örneğin, üçüncü ünitede, deniz kaplumbağaları ile ilgili metnin işlendiği sayfanın sonu, *Deniz hayvanlarının korunması için neler yapılmalıdır?* diye bir soru ile sonlandırılarak öğrencileri bu konuyu işledikten sonra bu soru ile ilgili bir araştırma yapmalarına teşvik etmektedir. Ayrıca ünite sonlarında bulunan projelerde de farklı kaynaklara yönlendirmeye ve araştırmaya dayalı çalışmalar gözlemlenmektedir.

 Oxford Discover kitabı incelediğinde işlenen konu ile alakalı öğrencinin ne düşündüğüne ilişkin sorular sorulmakta, bu ise kaynak araştırmasına yönlendirmekten ziyade ne düşündüğünü ifade etmesini teşvik etmektedir. Fakat ünitelerin "Big Question" olarak başlaması yani her iki kitapta da ünitelerin temel bir soru altında olması aslında en başta bu konunun araştırılmasına ilişkin kaynak aramaya teşvik edici ilk adım olarak kabul edilebilir. Örneğin Cambridge Primary Path 3 *Why do we play sports?* Sorusu ile ilk ünitesine giriş yaparken, Oxford Discover ise *How do people have fun?* sorusu ile ilk ünitesine başlar. İlk olarak bu soruların yanıtını bulmak kaynak aramasına teşvik eden ilk adım ve ünite temasına güzel bir hazırlık olarak kabul edilebilir.

Stratejilerin Seçilmesi

Öğrenmenin merkezinde öğretmenin olduğu ortamlarda, öğrenme stratejileri öğretmen tarafından seçilmektedir. Seçilen stratejilerin öğrencilere yönelik, onlara hitap eden stratejiler olması her zaman mümkün olamamaktadır. Bu sebeple öğrencilerin kendi öğrenmelerini iyi bilip kendi stratejilerini geliştirmeleri ya da uygun stratejiyi bulmaları gerekmektedir.

O'Malley ve Chamot'ın (1990) geliştirdiği, öğrenci özerkliğinin de içinde bulunduğu sınıflandırmaya göre öğrenme stratejileri üçe ayrılmaktadır: üstbilişsel stratejiler, bilişsel stratejiler, sosyo-duyuşsal stratejiler. Öğrencinin dil öğrenmesinde daha özerk olabilmesi için ders kitabının tüm bu stratejileri içermesi ve öğrencilere kendilerine uygun olan stratejiyi seçebilme şansı vermesi gerekmektedir.

Öğrenme stratejilerinin seçiminde Oxford Discover ve Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitaplarının etkili olup olmadığı incelendiğinde:
Oxford Discover 3 kitabında her ünitede belli başlı okuma stratejileri bulunduğu görülmektedir. Bu stratejiler öğrencilerin bir metne nasıl bir yaklaşımda bulunacaklarını, metni nasıl kavrayacaklarını, önemli ve detaylı bilgileri nasıl okuyacaklarını öğrenmelerine yardımcı olmaktadır. Öngörüde bulunma, karşılaştırma ve analiz etme gibi stratejiler, özetleme ve karakterlere odaklanma gibi öğrencilere sadece yabancı kavramların anlamını öğrenmede değil, kendi sözcük dağarcıklarını da genişletmeleri için ilham verebilmektedir. Bu okuma stratejileri öğrencileri okudukları şeyleri düşünmeye teşvik ederek eleştirel düşünmeye de katkı sağlamaktadır. Öğrenciler çeşitli okuma stratejilerini kullanarak daha rahat geliştikçe kendi öğrenme süreci hakkında bilinçli kararlar almayı da öğrenebilmektedirler. Ayrıca her ünitede bulunan yazma çalışması bölümleri de, öğrencilerin yazma becerisinde daha başarılı olmaları için gerekli stratejileri ve hedefleri de sunmaktadır. Bu stratejiler, beyin fırtınası, fikirleri organize etme, yazma ve düzenleme gibi dört aşamalı süreçleri içermektedir.

Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabını incelendiğinde: her ünitede yine özellikle metinlerin öncesinde okuma stratejilerinin bulunduğu görülmektedir. Öğrencileri metni okumadan önce bir okuma stratejisiyle tanıştırmakta, her metin, karşılaştırma yapmaktan, yazarın amacını belirlemeye ve

tahminde bulunmaya kadar farklı bir stratejiye odaklanmakta ve öğrencilere daha iyi okuyucu olmaları için çeşitli teknikler sağlamaktadır. Yine her ünitede bulunan yazma sayfalarında ise çeşitli yazı türleri ve bunlara yönelik izlenecek çeşitli stratejik yaklaşımlar ve uygulamalar mevcuttur.

Uygulama

Seçilen kitaplarda öğrencilerin özerk olmalarına yardımcı olan uygulamalar bulunup bulunmadığı incelediğinde:

Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabının pek çok adımında öğrenileni uygulamaya dökmeye yönelik çalışmalar bulunduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Bunlara örnek olarak: her ünitede okutulan metnin ardından *Explore The Text* adlı bir sayfa gelmekte ve bu sayfada öğrenilen okuduğunu anlama stratejilerini kullanarak metnin öğrenci tarafından detaylı bir şekilde incelemesi yaptırılmaktadır. *ORACY (Konuşma Sanatı)* sayfalarının sonunda verilen konuşma becerisine yönelik kazanımların sınıf ortamında öğrenci tarafından arkadaşları ile kullanması doğrultusunda uygulamalar bulunmaktadır. *Writing* sayfasında ise o ünitede verilmek istenen metin türünün (mektup, e-posta, broşür, gazete, rapor vs.) yazılmasına yönelik uygulama basamakları bulunmaktadır. Ve bunlarla birlikte her ünitenin sonunda genel anlamda tüm beceri basamaklarını içermeye yönelik tema dâhilinde projeler bulunmaktadır.

Oxfor Discover 3 kitabını uygulama özerkliği bakımından incelediğinde ise: her ünitede bulunan Communicate başlıklı sayfalara dinleme, konuşma ve yazma başlıkları altında bir takım kısa uygulamalar bulunmaktadır. Bu kısımlardan Speaking (konuşma) basamağı öğrenilen bilginin hangi yönüyle alakalı uygulamalar yapacakları ile ilgili öğrencilere bir takım seçenekler sunmaktadır. Ardından yine her ünitede bulunan *Wrap up* kısımları uygulamaya yönelik öğrencilere daha fazla seçenekler sunmakta ve tema dahilinde bir proje yapılmasına yönlendirmektedir.

Sürecin İzlenmesi

Öğretmen merkezli ilerleyen eğitim anlayışında süreç öğretmen tarafından değerlendirilir. Bunlar ise ödev ve sınavlardan sonra öğrencilere geri bildirilir. Fakat öğrenci merkezli eğitim anlayışında öğrencilerin kendi ilerlemelerini izleme yeteneğine sahip olmaları öğrencileri özerk hale getirmektedir. Her iki kitap da öğrencilerin kendi öğrenme süreçlerini izlemelerini sağlayacak örnekler olup olmadığı ile ilgili incelendiğinde, öğrencilerin kendi gelişimlerini fark edebilecekleri uygulamaların bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Değerlendirme ve Gözden Geçirme

Öğrencilerin özerk olmalarını sağlama da son basamak değerlendirme ve gözden geçirmedir. Knowles (1975) 'in de dediği gibi, kendi kendisine değerlendirmesini yapabilen öğrenciler sadece öğretmenleri tarafından değerlendirilen öğrencilerden çok daha iyi ve çok daha fazla şey öğrenmektedirler. Bu aşamada sürecin izlenmesi söz konusudur. Öğrencilerden ne öğrendiklerini düşünmeleri beklenmekle birlikte, öğrendiklerini gözden geçirip değerlendirmesi gerekmektedir. Buradaki amaç da gözden geçirmeye teşvik etmek ve eksiklerin farkına varılmasıdır.

Cambridge Primary Path3 kitabını değerlendirme ve gözden geçirme açısından incelediğimizde Oracy (konuşma sanatı) sayfalarının her ünitede değerlendirme ve gözden geçirme basamaklarına sahip olduğu gözlemlenmektedir. Fakat bu ünitenin genelini kapsamadığından ve sadece konuşma becerisine odaklandığından kendini değerlendirme açısından uygun olmadığı görülmüştür.

Oxford Discovery 3 kitabını incelediğimizde KWL Chart adlı kısmının son sütunu *"Ne öğrendim?"* her ünite için öğrenci tarafından kelimeler ve ya kelime grupları ile doldurularak bir

gözden geçirme, öz değerlendirme yapması beklenmektedir. Bu da daha çok öğrenilen kelimeleri kapsadığından kendini değerlendirme ile ilgili yeterli olmadığı görülmüştür.

SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Yaşadığımız yüzyılın getirileri ve gereklilikleri, hızla değişen sektörler, ihtiyaçlar, anlayış, yaklaşım ve yöntemler ve hatta bilginin hızla nitelik değiştirmesiyle kurumların görevlerinde de değişikler gözlemlenmektedir. Klasik eğitim bakış açısında eğitimin amacı bilgiyi direk yüklemek iken günümüzde bireyleri yaşam boyu öğrenenler haline getirmek eğitimin amacı haline gelmektedir.

Bunu sonucunda yaşam boyu öğrenme ifadesiyle bütün halde bir yol izleyen öğrenen özerkliği ve öz yönetimli öğrenme kavramları gündeme gelmektedir. Özellikle ülkemizde de yaşam boyu öğrenme, öz yönetimli öğrenme ve öğrenen özerkliği gibi kavramlar dikkat çekmeye başlamıştır. Avrupa dil konseyinin yayınladığı Avrupa Dil Gelişim Dosyasının uygulamalarının başlamasıyla yabancı dil öğretimi alanında da öğrenen özerkliğine ilişkin çalışmalar hız kazanmıştır (Tarhan ve Saraç, 2006).

Bu çalışmada da özel okullarda yaygın olarak okutulan 3. Sınıf seviyesindeki iki ders kitabının öğrenci özerkliğine katkı sağlayıp sağlamadığını belirlemek amacıyla inceleme yapılmıştır. Bu ders kitaplarının öğrencilerin; ihtiyaçlarını belirlemelerine imkân sağlamaları, hedeflerini belirlemeleri, öğrenmelerini planlamaları, kitap harici kullanacakları kaynakları belirlemeleri, öğrenme stratejilerini belirlemelerine imkân sağlamaları, öğrendiklerini uygulamalarına olanak sağlamaları, öğrenme süreçlerini izlemelerine fırsat vermeleri ve öğrendiklerini gözden geçirmeleri, değerlendirmeleri bakımından bunları sağlayıp sağlamadıkları tespit edilmeye çalışılmıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda çalışma Reinders (2010) tarafından tasarlanan özerklik basamakları çerçevesi doğrultusunda sürdürülerek belirtilen özerk öğrenme basamaklarını içerip içermedikleri bakımından incelenmiştir.

Yabancı dil öğretiminde dünya çapında tercih edilen bu iki büyük yayın, 21. yy'ın yeni yaklaşım ve yöntemlerini çokça yakından takip eden ve hatta pek çok alanda öncülük eden önemli yayınlar olduğu da göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, öğrenen özerkliği bakımından her iki yayınında bunu göz ardı etmediği incelenmiştir. Genel anlamda bu kitaplar tek bir kitap olmaktan ziyade pek çok destek materyali (alıştırma kitabı (activity book), kelime kartları (flash cards), dijital kaynak ve materyaller vs.) ile bütünleşik olarak uygulanmaları sebebiyle bu çalışmada incelenen temel beceri kitaplarındaki özerklik basamaklarından eksik olan kısımlarını tamamlamaktadırlar. Fakat Cambridge Primary Path 3 kitabında geliştirilen içeriklerin gerek tematik gerekse 4 temel beceriye dayanan geçişlerin verilimi, özellikle konuşma becerisi açısından incelendiğinde öğrenen özerkliği bakımından oldukça destekleyici ve süreci tam da bu basamakların gerektirdiği şekilde tamamlaması sebebiyle daha verimli olduğu kanısına varılmıştır.

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Turkish EFL Learners' Perceptions and Preferences of Written Corrective Feedback

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Abstract: Written corrective feedback (WCF) has gained significant attention from both scholars and teachers in English language teaching (ELT). Although a large bulk of research on WCF has focused on the link between different feedback types and language development, more research is needed to understand how language learners perceive written corrective feedback and what practices they favor when it comes to receiving it. Therefore, this quantitative study aims to investigate Turkish EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of written corrective feedback in terms of the feedback strategies employed in their classrooms as well as their revision practices upon getting feedback. 90 Turkish Intermediate EFL undergraduates from a public university in Türkiye completed a 21-item Likert-scale questionnaire online. Using descriptive statistics, the questionnaire data were analyzed. The findings showed that the learners' perceptions and their teachers' feedback practices mostly aligned, and most learners preferred to receive comprehensive and indirect feedback that focuses on grammatical, mechanical, and lexical errors rather than organization and content. These findings highlighted the importance of learner expectations in relation to the perceived efficacy of feedback practices.

Keywords: *L2 writing, written corrective feedback, error correction, learner perceptions, learner preferences*

INTRODUCTION

For students of higher education, writing ability is one of the most essential skills as they are often required to search for and present information. This ability is also crucial because it enables college students to improve their self-expression and academic achievement (Graham, 2006; Liao & Wong, 2010). However, most learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) struggle with writing in a second language (L2) because it requires a process of transferring ideas into the written mode in a completely different language and ensuring that readers can make sense without any misinterpretation. That is why the writing process should be facilitated to help EFL learners to master this challenging skill. One way to achieve this is to provide learners with written corrective feedback (WCF) so that they can easily revise and edit their pieces of writing.

In the L2 writing literature, extensive research has been done on the efficacy of WCF, also called error correction, in increasing L2 learners' grammatical accuracy (Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ellis et al., 2008; Van Beuningen et al., 2012). However, the majority of L2 researchers who investigated the effectiveness of feedback versus no feedback reached mixed results. For example, Truscott (1996, 1999) claimed that WCF is useless in L2 writing practices and so

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should be neglected, while other scholars, who challenged this idea, suggested that correcting errors is helpful (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1997; Lyster et al., 1999). Following this debate, a considerable bulk of research has been carried out to understand whether and to what degree WCF fosters L2 writing, and many earliest studies reported positive effects of WCF on L2 writing accuracy (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). However, these studies were later criticized for their limitations such as lacking a control group and focusing only on immediate revision but not delayed accuracy.

To overcome prior design flaws, more recent WCF studies have investigated both the efficacy of getting feedback and the effect of receiving different kinds of feedback by involving a control group and/or measuring the accuracy of revised papers as well as new pieces of writing. These studies have often focused on what types of WCF are more effective than others (Ekanayaka & Ellis, 2020; Ellis et al., 2008; Karim & Nassaji, 2020; Kim & Bowles, 2020; Sinha & Nassaji, 2021; Zhang & Cheng, 2021). The two most common feedback types mostly explored were direct feedback (i.e., supplying the target form for an error) and indirect feedback (i.e., pointing out the error but not offering the correct form).

Although there seems to be a consensus on the benefits of WCF, the comparison of direct vs. indirect feedback still leads to inconsistent findings. Some studies, for instance, have concluded that direct feedback is more productive as it offers sufficient information to figure out grammatical errors, especially complicated ones, and helps L2 learners deal with any confusion in processing the feedback (Benson & DeKeyser, 2019; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis et al., 2008; Kim & Bowles, 2020; Lim & Renandya, 2020; Sheen, 2007; Shintani & Ellis, 2013; Van Beuningen et al., 2012). However, other studies have pointed out to an advantage for indirect feedback as it involves students in discovery learning and thus promotes learner autonomy (Ferris 2003, 2006; Sheppard, 1992).

However, most studies that have found an effect for WCF (direct or indirect) have only tackled a limited number of linguistic errors (i.e., focused/selective feedback) rather than providing feedback on a wide range of errors (i.e., unfocused/comprehensive feedback). Although focused feedback has yielded better accuracy gains in many studies (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Sheen, 2007; Shintani et al., 2014; Suzuki et al., 2019), such a practice has been found to have little pedagogical value in the classroom context since L2 writing teachers do not generally correct only one type of error. Because students often produce various errors in their writing, teachers are more inclined to use an approach that thoroughly responds to this problem. That is why providing comprehensive WCF might be a better practice because it reflects the nature of most L2 writing classrooms. Still, it is not possible to make a valid conclusion about the positive effect of comprehensive WCF as the number of studies comparing it to focused feedback is relatively scarce (Frear & Chiu, 2015; Sheen et al., 2009; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Truscott & Hsu, 2008; Van Beuningen et al., 2008, 2012).

Despite a large bulk of research on different variables affecting the efficacy of WCF (e.g., the scope of feedback, its explicitness, its short-term/long-term effects), one factor still seems to be underexplored: EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of WCF. As Lee (2008) suggested, "feedback is a social act" (p. 146). It is a reciprocal activity in which feedback is not only about the product but also about the interaction between the teacher and the student. Ferris (2011) also stressed that learner preferences should not be underestimated as the goal of giving feedback is to encourage learners to benefit from it. Otherwise, feedback might be perceived useless and thus ignored (Armhein & Nassaji, 2010). However, only a handful of studies have looked at L2 learners' perceptions and/or preferences of the WCF they receive from their teachers (Kim et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2021; Saragih et al., 2021; Sinha & Nassaji, 2022). To fill this gap, the present study aims to explore Turkish EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of their teachers' written feedback practices in a public university in Türkiye. The findings will help EFL teachers to gain a deeper understanding of their feedback practices and to accommodate them to meet the unique needs of their classrooms.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Written Corrective Feedback

Written corrective feedback refers to the corrections L2 teachers provide for their learners' linguistic errors in writing. It is a crucial aspect of L2 writing (Ferris, 2014). Although some scholars (e.g., Hedgcock, 2005; Liu & Brown, 2015) were in doubt about whether learners notice and attend to the feedback if they just read through their corrected papers without any revision, WCF is still a commonly used approach to increase L2 writing accuracy (Han & Hyland, 2019; Lee, 2020).

Although there was an ongoing discussion in the 1990s and early 2000s about the impact of WCF, which was initiated by Truscott's (1996, 1999) claim that WCF is not only unproductive but also detrimental to L2 writing, there is now a consensus that WCF is beneficial (Bitchener, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ellis et al., 2008; Ferris, 2006; Sheen, 2007). However, due to this initial debate, a considerable amount of preliminary research merely explored the part WCF plays in increasing L2 accuracy. Many of the earliest studies mostly compared the effects of feedback vs. no feedback and concluded that WCF significantly improved L2 grammatical accuracy regarding errors in first drafts (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Kepner, 1991; Polio et al., 1998; Semke, 1984). However, these studies were criticized because revising a first draft does not guarantee the correct usage of target forms in a new written text (Truscott, 1999). Therefore, more recent studies have started to investigate the efficacy of WCF not only on revised drafts but also on new texts and reported that WCF can be productive depending on the feedback type (Ekanayaka & Ellis; 2020; Karim & Nassaji, 2020; Kim & Bowles, 2019; Kim et al., 2020; Sinha & Nassaji, 2022; Suzuki et al., 2019; Van Beuningen et al., 2012).

Effects of Direct and Indirect WCF

Since the value of feedback provision was acknowledged, studies have begun to look at different types of WCF. This line of research has addressed whether some types of WCF have greater benefits for L2 learners than others. Depending on the feedback explicitness, two commonly investigated types of feedback are direct WCF and indirect WCF.

Direct feedback enables learners to explicitly see their error corrections as the teacher points out the error and then supplies the correct form (by presenting it directly after crossing out the wrong form, deleting the redundant form, or adding a missing form). It is advantageous as there is no need for learner training, and it does not lead to any confusion, which might facilitate the internalization of the correct forms (Chandler, 2003). However, it might trigger only shallow processing (i.e., just transferring the corrections to another draft) and learners may not grasp the rules in the end. On the other hand, indirect feedback involves highlighting the error (e.g., underlining, using correction codes/symbols, or giving a metalinguistic clue/explanation) and leaving it to the learner to think about how to fix it. Therefore, it requires deeper processing, which might contribute to long-term development (Ferris & Roberts, 2001), but learners may not possess the grammatical competence necessary for making the corrections on their own.

The research findings that have compared direct WCF to indirect WCF are mixed. Some studies have found greater effects in favor of direct feedback (Benson & DeKeyser, 2018; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007; Shintani et al., 2014; Suzuki et al., 2019). For instance, Bitchener and Knoch (2010) examined three kinds of WCF: direct metalinguistic explanation, circled errors (indirect), and direct metalinguistic feedback with oral form-focused instruction. The results suggested that direct WCF was more effective than indirect feedback. Shintani et al. (2014) also looked at the effects of direct WCF and indirect metalinguistic explanation on the use of two linguistic forms: indefinite article and the hypothetical conditional. It was revealed that direct feedback accompanied by revision was most productive. In a more recent study, Suzuki et al. (2019) investigated four kinds of WCF: direct metalinguistic explanation, direct WCF only, indirect

metalinguistic explanation, and indirect WCF only. The findings indicated that both kinds of direct WCF resulted in greater short-term effects than indirect WCF.

Other studies have reported an advantage for indirect feedback (Lalande, 1982; Shintani & Ellis, 2013). For example, Shintani and Ellis (2013) compared direct feedback to indirect metalinguistic explanation (ME). In their study, ME was provided via a handout about how to use definite and indefinite articles in English. The comparison of the two feedback types showed that the ME group improved from their initial to revised drafts but not to their new writings, while the direct WCF group did not progress over time. Their findings suggested that indirect feedback enhanced the learning of the article rules.

Although studies comparing direct vs. indirect feedback have yielded contradicting results, a meta-analysis performed by Kang and Han (2015) concluded that direct WCF (g = 0.60) has a larger effect size than indirect WCF (g = 0.33) with respect to increasing L2 accuracy writing.

Effects of Comprehensive and Focused WCF

Although many studies have focused on the effects of the feedback that only corrects specific errors (i.e., focused/selective), very few ones have targeted a wide variety of linguistic forms (i.e., comprehensive/unfocused). Focused feedback has been assumably more productive because it draws learner attention specifically to a pre-selected item (Nassaji, 2015). However, its pedagogical value has been open to discussion as teachers are often expected to give feedback extensively on almost all kinds of errors in real classrooms (Karim & Nassaji, 2020).

As comprehensive WCF might better portray the reality of L2 classrooms, many studies have tried to compare its impact to that of focused WCF (Frear & Chiu, 2015; Hartshorn et al., 2010; Liu, 2008; Sheen et al., 2009; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Truscott & Hsu, 2008; Van Beuningen et al., 2012). However, their findings are contradictory. For example, Sheen et al. (2009) examined the effects of comprehensive vs. focused feedback on the learning of some linguistic structures. Target forms consisted of definite and indefinite articles for the focused WCF group, and copula 'be', regular and irregular past tense, and prepositions for the comprehensive WCF group. The results showed no difference between the two conditions. Similarly, Frear and Chiu (2015) compared the effect of WCF provided on the use of 'weak verbs' to that of WCF provided on all error types. It was found that both focused and comprehensive feedback resulted in accuracy gains.

The number of studies on the differential effects of comprehensive and focused feedback is still rather limited to make a valid assumption since various factors might lead to the inconsistent findings. Kang and Han (2015) have put forward such factors as the setting, linguistic competence, the type of the target form, and the operational definition of feedback to further explain the complexity of WCF and why these studies have yielded mixed results.

Learner Perceptions and Preferences of WCF

Although research on the focus and explicitness of WCF is abundant, a few studies have looked at EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of WCF at the tertiary level (Chen et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2021; Saragih et al., 2021; Trabelsi, 2019; Uzun & Köksal, 2020). For example, in a study with EFL undergraduates from Oman, Trabelsi (2019) found that WCF was preferred to be comprehensive, indirect, and teacher-initiated. In another study, Saragih et al. (2021) investigated Indonesian EFL college students' perceptions and preferences of the WCF strategies employed in their writing classrooms and found that most of the learners preferred to receive direct WCF because they felt encouraged to see what they did wrong. Metalinguistic, reformulation, and indirect strategies were favored too. The learners also wanted to receive WCF that focuses on specific but major errors (i.e., focused feedback). The correction of all errors was found to be messy and discouraging. On the other hand, Nguyen et al. (2021) found that Vietnamese EFL college students preferred to receive

comprehensive and indirect feedback that focuses on higher order skills such as organization and content.

Within the Turkish undergraduate context, a few studies have also been conducted to find out EFL tertiary-level students' perceptions and preferences of WCF (Atmaca, 2016; Üstünbaş & Çimen, 2016). For instance, Atmaca (2016) conducted a study with 34 EFL teachers and 34 EFL students to find out the similarities and differences between their perceptions about WCF. She concluded that while some students expected all their errors to be marked and corrected, others expressed a need for more autonomous learning with teacher guidance. With low level preparatory school students, Üstünbaş and Çimen (2016) also investigated EFL learners' preferences for the most effective feedback type and found out that the majority of the learners preferred to receive WCF with teacher comments for all errors, especially in grammar and vocabulary. All these results suggest that cultural and contextual factors might affect EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of WCF.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The present study adopted a quantitative survey design. The reason for choosing this design was that it "provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (Creswell, 2014, p. 203). It helps researchers to gain a greater understanding about the perspectives related to a particular topic of interest. As this study also intended to explore Turkish EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of their teachers' written feedback practices, the survey design suited for this aim. As a result, the following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What are Turkish EFL learners' perceptions of the scope of WCF they receive and their preferences about the scope of WCF?
2. What are Turkish EFL learners' perceptions of the focus and explicitness of WCF they receive and their preferences about the focus and explicitness of WCF?
3. What revision practices do they employ upon receiving WCF?

Participants and Setting

Participants consisted of 90 (41 male and 49 female) Turkish undergraduate EFL learners enrolled in an English program at a preparatory school of a public university in Türkiye. They were young adults ranging from 18 to 22 in age. Only one participant was 27 years old. At the time of the study, they had been attending general English classes for about three months for either mandatory or voluntary purposes. Their level of language proficiency was Intermediate based on the placement test initially administered at the beginning of the academic year and the subsequent institutional examinations. In the following year, the participants were going to be Engineering, Business Administration, International Relations, Translation and Interpreting Studies, or Architecture students. Convenience sampling was used for participant selection. As the researcher was not teaching any EFL writing lessons at the time of the study, she asked her colleagues at the same institution to invite their students to participate in the study. Prior to data collection, consent was taken from the participants, and ethical approval was granted by the Research Ethics Committee of the university.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected in three months via an online questionnaire with four parts that was adapted from Leki (1991), Lee (2004), and Diab (2005). The items which were appropriate for the context of the study and likely to be an effective tool to gather the data were selected from these previous studies. The first part asked the participants to indicate their sex, age, language proficiency, and major. The second part consisted of eleven 5-point Likert-scale items that ranged from (1) never to

(5) always and addressed the participants' perceptions of the scope, focus, and explicitness of the feedback they receive from their teachers. The third part involved eight 5-point Likert-scale items that ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree and explored the participants' preferences for the scope and focus of feedback. With two multiple-choice items, the last part asked the participants to indicate their preferences for the explicitness of feedback and their revision practices (i.e., what they do when they do not know how to correct an error). Considering that the participants might not be proficient enough to answer the questionnaire items in English, the items were presented only in Turkish.

Data analysis was performed through the quantitative analysis of the items in the questionnaire. Google Forms was used to send the link to the questionnaire. It automatically collected, calculated, and provided frequencies and percentages as well as visual representations (bars and graphs) for the data.

FINDINGS

Turkish EFL Learners' Perceptions and Preferences of the Scope of WCF

The first research question of this study investigated Turkish EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of the scope of the WCF they receive from their teachers. Based on the questionnaire data, the following figure summarizes the responses of the learners' perceptions of the scope of the WCF their teachers provide for them.

Figure 1. Learners' perceptions of the scope of WCF
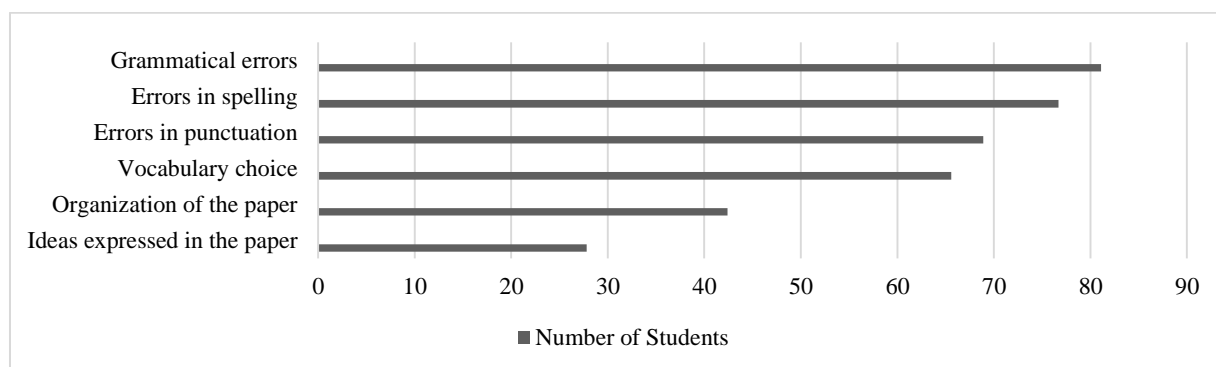
As shown in Figure 1, the WCF the learners received from their teachers focused more on grammatical (81,1%), mechanical (76,7% for spelling and 68,9% for punctuation), and lexical (65,6% for vocabulary choice) errors than the errors in the organization of the paper (42,2%) and the ideas expressed in the writing piece (27,8%).

Figure 2. Learners' preferences of the scope of WCF
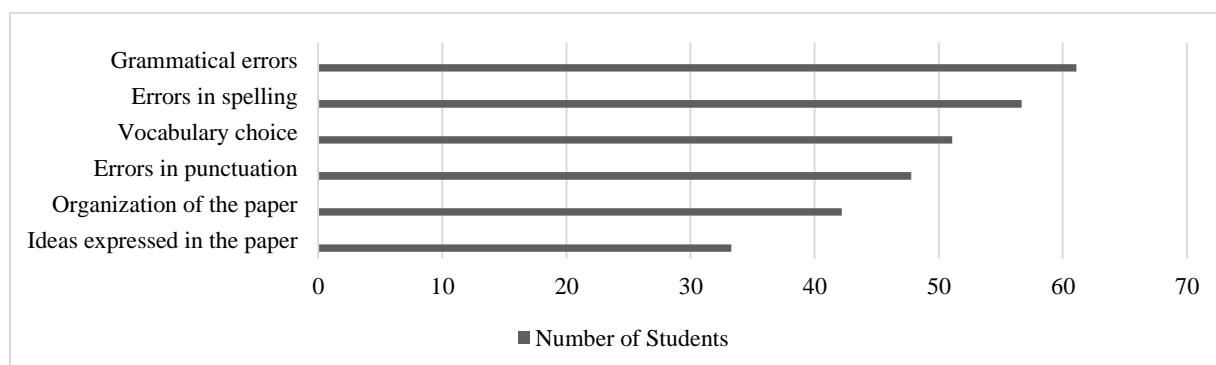
Based on the questionnaire data, Figure 2 above shows the Turkish EFL learners' preferences of the scope of the WCF they receive from their teachers. Most of the learners preferred to get feedback on their errors in grammar (61,1%), spelling (56,7%), and vocabulary choice (51,1%). In addition, they reported that they wanted to receive feedback on their errors in punctuation (47,8%), organization (42,2%), and the ideas they expressed in their writing (33,3%). It should be noted here that some learners were unsure about whether they would want to obtain feedback on their organizational (17,8%) and content-wise (26,7%) errors.

Overall, the findings revealed that the learners' perceptions of the scope of the WCF they receive from their teachers mostly aligned with their preferences for the scope of WCF. Both learners and their teachers gave more importance to the correction of linguistic, mechanical, and lexical errors than the errors regarding organization and content.

Turkish EFL Learners' Perceptions and Preferences of the Focus and Explicitness of WCF

The second research question of this study investigated Turkish EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of the focus and explicitness of the WCF they receive from their teachers. Based on the questionnaire data, it was found that 81,1% of the learners reported that their teachers always or usually mark all their errors (major and minor) in their first drafts. When asked whether their teachers mark some major errors but not the minor ones in their papers, 83,4% of the learners disagreed, indicating that their teachers always or usually mark not only the major errors but also the minor ones. These findings showed that most of the learners always or usually received comprehensive (unfocused) WCF targeted at various errors they make in their written texts.

When asked about their preferences of the focus of the WCF they receive from their teachers, 88,9% of the learners reported that they always or usually want to receive feedback on all their errors (major and minor). Similarly, 78,8% of the learners disagreed that their teachers should always or usually mark their major errors but not the minor ones. These findings showed that most of the learners favored comprehensive WCF, which focuses on a wide range of errors, over focused WCF, which corrects only specific errors.

In terms of the explicitness of the WCF they receive from their teachers, the findings showed that 28,9% of the learners stated that their teachers always correct all their errors for them, while 54,4% of them reported that their teachers always point out their errors and give a clue about how to correct them, such as using correction symbols. However, 16,7% of the learners stated that their teachers only point out the errors without providing any clues about how to correct them and leave the corrections to the students.

When asked about their preferences of the explicitness of the WCF they receive from their teachers, 27,8% of the learners preferred all their errors to be corrected by their teachers, whereas 63,3% of them wanted their teachers to point out their errors and give them clues about how to correct the errors. Interestingly, 8,9% of them preferred to see their errors highlighted but wanted to receive no clues about how to correct them.

Overall, the findings revealed that the learners' perceptions of the focus and explicitness of the WCF they receive from their teachers were mostly in line with their preferences for the focus and explicitness of WCF. Both learners and their teachers favored comprehensive and indirect feedback.

Turkish EFL Learners' Revision Practices upon Receiving WCF

The third research question of this study investigated what revision practices Turkish EFL learners employ upon receiving WCF from their EFL instructors. The findings showed that 41,1% of the learners usually go to their teachers to ask for help if they do not know how to correct an error, while 27,8% of them use the Internet to learn how to correct that specific error. Asking a classmate to

help with the error is also preferred by 18,9% of the learners. Very few learners stated that they consult a native speaker friend (only 8 people) or a grammar handbook (only 3 people) to figure out what the error is about.

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to explore how Turkish EFL learners perceive the WCF they receive, what kind of WCF they prefer to receive, and what revision practices they employ after receiving feedback. In terms of the scope of feedback, it was found that these learners' teachers tended to provide feedback more on linguistic, mechanical, and lexical errors than errors in organization and idea development. This finding is in line with the findings of the study conducted by Nguyen et al. (2021). In their study, teacher feedback also focused more on the linguistic end of the form-meaning continuum than the organizational component of the language. In the present study, the heavy reliance of the WCF on grammatical, mechanical, and lexical forms might be because it is relatively easier for teachers to give feedback on such forms than attending to the flow of ideas in a piece of writing (Leki, 1991). When teachers additionally focus on the coherence and cohesion of the ideas expressed in a paper, they might have to spend more time on error correction. Considering that teachers often need to mark many first drafts in a limited time before returning them to the learners, checking the organization and content of the paper is not very practical compared to correcting the errors in grammar, mechanics, or vocabulary choice only.

The findings also revealed that the learners' preferences for WCF also focused more on grammatical, mechanical, and lexical aspects of the language than the organization and idea structure of their written texts. This finding contrasts with Nguyen et al.'s (2021) study because the learners in their study favored teacher feedback directed at both form and overall problems related to content/idea development and writing style, the latter being preferred more than the former.

However, the fact that the learners in this study wanted to receive feedback more on linguistic aspects of the language than organization or content is in line with the findings of several other studies (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Halimi, 2008; Hammouda, 2011; Schulz, 1996; Üstünbaş & Çimen, 2016; Zacharias, 2007). In these studies, learners tended to value their teachers' comments and corrections on grammatical, lexical, and mechanical features more than those on content and genre. This might be attributed to learners' desire to obtain concrete and observable results when it comes to learning a foreign language. Learners often associate higher linguistic competence with full mastery of the language, so when they expect to make immediate progress in language learning, they value grammatical accuracy over content and organization in their writing. That might be the reason why the learners in this study favored the feedback that points out their linguistic errors more than the feedback that focuses on their idea development.

As for the focus of WCF, the learners in this study reported that they almost always receive comprehensive (unfocused) WCF targeted at a wide range of errors they make in their pieces of writing, and they preferred to continue receiving their corrective feedback in this manner. This finding is in line with the findings of earlier research (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Atmaca, 2016; Diab, 2005; Lee, 2004; Trabelsi, 2019; Üstünbaş & Çimen, 2016; Zhu, 2010). In several other studies, learners also thought that the larger the quantity of WCF is, the more helpful it will be. There might be a few reasons why learners want their teachers to mark all the errors (major and minor) in their written texts. First, when learners see all their errors identified on the paper, they might feel quite satisfied to see the areas that they need to work on. Second, because comprehensive feedback has a greater potential to reflect the real classroom practices (Karim & Nassaji, 2020), learners might value it over focused feedback. Also, as focused feedback involves correcting only a pre-selected set of errors, learners must write as many papers as possible to receive enough feedback on all their errors, which does not seem very plausible considering the limited time for classroom instruction. For all these reasons, comprehensive feedback might seem a better choice for the learners in this study.

It was also found that the teachers in this study preferred to give their students comprehensive (i.e., unfocused) feedback that focuses on a wide array of errors rather than selective (i.e., focused) feedback that targets only a set of predetermined errors, which tends to be less time-consuming compared to the former. There might be a few reasons for their choice of comprehensive feedback. They might favor this feedback type over focused one because teachers usually expect their students to learn from their mistakes too. Therefore, if they only mark specific errors, they might think that their students do not get enough opportunities to work on the linguistic forms that are not marked. Also, comprehensive feedback enables learners to see all the grammatical forms that are still problematic for them. If these forms go unmarked, learners might not be able to notice them and may mistakenly assume that they have mastered these structures, which leads to their fossilization. Without noticing, it gets more difficult to acquire these forms accurately (Schmidt, 1990). With their errors highlighted or corrected, learners will notice the gaps in their interlanguage, make cognitive comparisons between what they already know and what they need to learn, and use their linguistic resources to write more accurately. The knowledge they acquire from comprehensive feedback might remain dormant for some time but will probably be activated later (a phase which Gass (2003) defined as the incubation period). Moreover, teachers might prefer to give comprehensive feedback because feedback in this form is not subjected to the limited attentional span of the learners as opposed to oral feedback since learners can take time to study their errors whenever they like (Williams, 2012). All these reasons might persuade teachers to continue their practice of giving comprehensive feedback.

In terms of the explicitness of WCF, most of the learners mentioned that their teachers almost always highlight their errors by giving a clue about how to correct them without any explicit corrections. More than half of the learners also preferred to receive their written corrective feedback in this way. This finding is in line with the findings of several previous studies (Nguyen et al., 2021; Trabelsi, 2019), but it also contradicts the findings of a few others (Chen et al., 2016; Saragih et al., 2021). In those studies, learners preferred different techniques of error correction. While some of them stated that explicit (direct) types of WCF allowed them to understand their errors and later remember to fix them in a new piece of writing, others reported that as they themselves had to figure out how to correct their errors, indirect WCF enabled them to process these errors more deeply, thus leading to greater language gains. This might be the reason why the learners in this study also wanted to receive indirect WCF from their teachers. They probably preferred indirect feedback because they believed that it results in greater language development in the long term if they themselves work on their errors instead of asking their teachers to correct them. Also, learner autonomy might be another factor for choosing indirect feedback. As the participants of this study are university students, they are probably mature enough to understand that they should take responsibility for their own learning. Through discovery learning and hypothesis testing, they can find out how to correct their own errors. These factors might motivate them to ask for mere guidance from their teachers (i.e., giving a clue about the errors) instead of explicit error correction.

Finally, when asked about their revision practices, most of the learners reported that they ask their teachers for help when they cannot correct an error by themselves. The other remaining majority stated that they use the Internet or ask a classmate to fix their challenging errors. Very few learners mentioned getting advice from a native speaker friend or looking through a grammar handbook. These findings implied that learners value their teachers' guidance more than other sources of information. Therefore, teacher feedback is appreciated more than peer feedback for these learners. Trabelsi (2019) also reached the same conclusion with Omani learners who favored teacher-initiated feedback over peer feedback. This might be attributable to Asian cultures in which the teacher is often perceived as the ultimate source of knowledge in the classroom. That might be the main reason why the learners in this study first thought about seeking advice from their teachers.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The findings of the present study showed that Turkish EFL learners prefer to receive comprehensible and indirect feedback that focuses primarily on the linguistic aspects of the language, and these learners' preferences for WCF mostly align with the feedback practices their writing

teachers employ in the classroom. This congruency is essential for the perceived efficacy of the feedback practices because giving feedback is social in nature (Lee, 2008). It is an interpersonal activity since teachers interact with their students through their comments (written or oral) to foster language development. If learner expectations are ignored during this process, feedback might be regarded as an ineffective practice. Understanding learner preferences is also crucial because there might be individual differences regarding the type of feedback EFL learners desire to obtain. As the primary goal of WCF is to assist learners to enhance their L2 accuracy (Ferris, 2011), their preferences should be prioritized too while choosing specific feedback strategies. In this way, learners can perceive feedback as useful because it will answer to their unique needs and expectations in that classroom context.

Several implications can be made from this study. First, although the heavy focus of the WCF on the grammatical, mechanical, and lexical elements of the language is favorable by EFL learners, the findings imply that L2 writing teachers might need to reconsider their feedback practices in order to highlight other important components of the writing skill. To do that, they can sometimes shift their feedback scope from linguistic aspects of the language to content-related and organizational features of writing. Receiving training on form-focused and content-oriented feedback strategies might be helpful in raising awareness among L2 writing instructors. Thus, they can learn how to balance the scope of the feedback they provide in their writing classes. Otherwise, giving feedback merely on grammar, mechanics, or vocabulary might lead learners to think that good writing equals higher accuracy. In that case, learners may disregard the importance of writing coherent and cohesive papers with well-chosen ideas.

In addition to written corrective feedback, L2 writing teachers might try to employ different feedback practices in their classrooms to increase learner engagement. Solely depending on the same type of written corrective feedback might ultimately lead to boredom among learners, thus resulting in learner indifference to that feedback type. However, if teachers make use of various feedback strategies (e.g., oral feedback, audio and video feedback, technology-enhanced feedback, peer feedback, etc.), it will help maintain learner attention. As learners will be involved in more engaging error correction practices, they will feel more motivated to learn too. Such deeper cognitive involvement will also enhance the efficacy of the feedback they receive.

Furthermore, the findings of this study suggest that L2 learners need guidance with respect to their revision practices. It is obvious that revision is an indispensable component of L2 writing. Without revising a first draft, it is not very logical to expect learners to acquire the target forms. However, this study reveals that learners do not entirely know what to do when they cannot figure out how to correct an error other than asking their teachers' help. This implies that learners should be taught what revision practices they can employ upon receiving feedback because it would not be very practical for teachers to frequently deal with such situations in which learners always go to their teachers for all their challenging errors.

The present study has some limitations. Due to the nature of convenience sampling used in selecting the participants of the study, the sample group was limited to a single university in Türkiye. Therefore, the findings might not be generalizable to other settings. Future research might include a broader range of teaching contexts by investigating different variables that affect the efficacy of WCF. In addition, although the sample size was kept large, additional methods of data collection could have been used to increase the reliability of the study. Qualitative data could have been obtained if semi-structured interviews had been conducted with volunteer students, and the students' written works had been collected from the teaching staff with their corrections made using various WCF techniques. Future studies might employ these methods for data triangulation. Finally, the present study has examined the concept of written corrective feedback entirely from the learners' perspective. Further research can be conducted to compare the learners' perceptions and preferences of WCF practices to those of many other active members of the learning process such as teachers, curriculum developers, and school administrators.

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The Practicum Evaluation Conundrum: Perceptions of Preservice English Language Teachers and Their Mentors

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Abstract: The evaluation conundrum during teaching practicum concerning the criteria used and perception of them by faculty mentors, school mentors, and preservice teachers remains a critical concern in language teacher education. This multi-perspective research quantitatively investigates the viewpoints of preservice English teachers and their school and faculty mentors regarding the significance of the evaluation criteria set by the Turkish Ministry of National Education for the evaluation of preservice teachers' teaching practices and performance in teaching practicum. While all three groups considered the evaluation criteria significant—although at varying degrees—the faculty mentors ascribed greater importance to the evaluation criteria, compared to school mentors and preservice teachers, for both the evaluation criteria used by faculty mentors and school mentors. The study highlights the key role of evaluations and feedback provided by school and faculty mentors during teaching practicum despite higher degrees of significance attached to the evaluation criteria used by school mentors. Specifically, our research reveals nuanced perspectives on evaluation criteria, shedding light on potential areas for refinement in mentorship and training programs. Tailored strategies are crucial to address varying stakeholder views and targeted training for faculty and school mentors can enhance preservice teacher support during practicum. The implications can inform policy and practice in language teacher education, promoting better outcomes for the preparation of future English language teachers in Türkiye.

Keywords: *mentors, preservice teachers, teaching practicum, teaching practicum evaluation criteria*

INTRODUCTION

The teaching practicum and supervision experience are critically important for the professional maturation of preservice English language teachers (Bailey, 2016; Bulut, 2016; Cakmak & Gunduz, 2019; Circoki et al., 2019; Cohen et al., 2010; Crookes, 2003; Farr & Farrell, 2023; Pu & Wright, 2022; Richards & Farrell, 2011). Throughout their initial years in a teacher education program, preservice English language teachers (hereafter PSTs) engage in a variety of coursework where they learn various educational theories, pedagogical approaches, and teaching methods and strategies. Teaching practicum, commonly referred to as field experience, provides them with a unique opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge acquired through coursework in genuine classroom settings. This bridges the gap between the academic foundations of teaching and the actual implementation in authentic contexts and highlights the significance of this practical component in their training on their path to becoming teachers.

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During teaching practicum, PSTs gain firsthand experience in diverse classroom settings which enables them to further explore effective instructional strategies, learner characteristics, and instructional challenges enabling them to develop classroom management skills and modify their teaching strategies and resources to suit the requirements of a multifarious student population. The practicum phase, thus, offers PSTs an opportunity to engage in critical reflection and self-evaluation by analyzing their teaching practices, identifying potential areas for improvement, and devising strategies to enhance their instruction, thereby contributing to a deeper understanding of how they perceive their teaching abilities and the extent to which they invest in ongoing professional learning and growth. Consequently, this stage serves as a decisive juncture in the development of PSTs' professional identities, as they encounter the real challenges, rewards, and complexities of being a language teacher for the first time and begin to question, negotiate, and shape their beliefs, attitudes, and teaching philosophies.

Therefore, language teacher education programs and faculty should carefully consider how to effectively support and nurture the teaching practicum and supervision process to facilitate the preparation of future language teachers. One crucial aspect that needs dedicated attention in this complex, challenging, and often highly emotional process (Caires et al., 2010, 2012) of learning to teach is professional (mentor) feedback (e.g., Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Altınmakas, 2012; Anderson & Radencich, 2001; Bhatti et al., 2020; Le, 2007; Le & Vásquez, 2011; Martínez Agudo, 2016; Nguyen, 2022). During the teaching practicum, PSTs greatly benefit from receiving mentor feedback on their performance, as it serves as a valuable tool for their development and evolution as professionals. Through regular and systematic mentor feedback sessions, they gain insights into their teaching practices, allowing them to reflect on and identify their capabilities, strengths, and areas needing additional focus. This feedback also helps them establish benchmarks for self-improvement and pursue customized professional development activities as needed to enhance their instruction, ultimately preparing them for successful careers in teaching (e.g., Aydın, 2016; Aydın & Ok, 2020; Çelik & Zehir Topkaya, 2023; Farr & Farrell, 2023; Keiler et al., 2020).

It should be noted, however, that the feedback offered to PSTs during their practicum cannot be random. This has been the basis for the faculty-school cooperation model, which places strong emphasis on the roles and responsibilities of the parties involved in PSTs' education in teaching practicum, as well as the evaluation criteria to be used in their assessment (see CoHE, 1998). In this regard, based on our experiences in teacher education and teaching practicum, we believe that having well-defined evaluation criteria in place is essential for providing effective feedback, as this ensures a clear framework for assessment, ultimately fostering consistency and accountability across various programs and practicum placements. Such standards and expectations for PSTs' performance and progress during their practicum pave the way not only for meaningful feedback to prompt their self-awareness and growth as reflective practitioners but also serve as a means of ensuring accountability and uniformity across diverse programs and teaching practicum placements (see Asregid et al., 2023; Martinez Agudo, 2016). Evaluating PSTs against predetermined indicators aligned with the specific program goals, objectives, and learning outcomes helps monitor and ensure the caliber of language teacher preparation programs, fulfilling educational and institutional requirements while safeguarding credibility. Therefore, facilitating a coherent and integrated approach to PSTs' education, including the delivery of productive and insightful feedback based on predetermined evaluation criteria, becomes possible only when the teaching practicum experience is directly linked to the teaching skills acquired during the program.

While the evaluation criteria used in teaching practicum and supervision have a vital role in forming the experiences and professional judgments of PSTs, it is similarly important to explore the knowledge and perceptions of both PSTs and their mentors regarding these evaluation criteria, particularly within the context of English language (EFL interchangeably) teacher education in Türkiye, where the teaching practicum course and the accompanying evaluation methods and criteria have undergone multiple and major changes in the last decade. Furthermore, lack of understanding due to lack of research in this specific area poses a potential challenge in ensuring the effectiveness and quality of the practicum experience, making it a must to investigate the perceptions of all stakeholders

involved to identify any discrepancies, challenges, and potential areas for improvement in the evaluation criteria. Accordingly, we examine the perceptions of preservice English language teachers and mentors from their school and faculty with regard to the significance of evaluation criteria used in teaching practicum within the Turkish EFL teacher education context.

By exploring these perceptions, we seek to acquire some insight into the experiences and expectations of various stakeholders, including PSTs, and school and faculty mentors regarding the evaluation criteria used in teaching practicum in the EFL language teacher education in Türkiye. The findings may offer valuable practical implications for teacher education programs, mentoring practices, and evaluation processes within the Turkish EFL context by enabling different parties to assess the extent to which the evaluation criteria successfully measure the desired learning outcomes (i.e., alignment between the evaluation criteria and the overall program objectives). Moreover, given that the existing evaluation criteria are rooted in the teacher competency framework (see CoHE, 1998; TED, 2009), this study may offer insights into which specific competency area(s) hold greater weight, particularly as perceived by mentors in the realization of the teaching profession within authentic classroom settings. Furthermore, the findings of this study will inform recommendations for improving evaluation criteria, thereby enriching the scholarly discourse on leveraging them for a comprehensive assessment of preservice language teachers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As mentioned earlier, the teaching practicum, referred to as field experience (Crandall, 2000) or school teaching (Farrell, 2008), is a crucial component of teacher education programs. Successful teaching practicum experiences and professional development of PSTs rely heavily on two key factors: strong collaboration and communication between school mentors and faculty mentors (SMs and FMs, hereafter) and the establishment of a shared understanding of evaluation (Bullock, 2017; Castaneda & Montenegro, 2015; Celen & Akcan, 2017; Karaman et al., 2019; Merç, 2015). In this regard, it is important to delve into the unique context of Türkiye and examine if and to what extent school and faculty mentors value the evaluation criteria used in PSTs' teaching practicum.

Teaching Practicum in Preservice English Teacher Education in Türkiye

In Türkiye, a practicum course entitled *Instructional Practices* was first incorporated into teacher education programs in 1982 when teacher training institutions were unified under universities (CoHE, 2007). The name was later changed to *Teaching Practice* in the 1997-1998 academic year within the framework of the World Bank-supported National Education Development Project aimed at, alongside other goals, enhancing the quality of teacher education (Koç et al., 1998). This change was brought about by the Faculty of Education-School Collaboration implemented by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) through a protocol signed on July 28, 1998 (CoHE, 2007). The order underwent an update in 2018 (MoNE, 2018) to require a minimum of 72 teaching hours (six hours per week over 12 weeks) for PSTs in one semester. Furthermore, changes were made to the implementation of the course, limiting the number of PSTs to a maximum of 6 per SM and 8 per FM (MoNE, 2018). Despite the changes, the teaching practicum course ultimately aims to provide preservice teachers with the skills, expertise, perspectives, and extensive capabilities required for the teaching profession. In addition, as MoNE (2021) reported, the teaching practicum aims to ensure that the "PSTs are better prepared for the teaching profession and gain the competence to utilize the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors related to general culture, pedagogical content, and the teaching profession acquired during their education" (p. 1). PSTs stand to benefit greatly from teaching practicum, as it allows them to receive feedback from their SMs and gain insight and understanding of the authentic classroom setting, ultimately helping them refine their skills and develop a professional identity (Celen & Akcan, 2017; Karaman et al., 2019; Merç, 2015; Serdar Tülüce & Çeçen, 2016).

Furthermore, acquiring professional knowledge requires understanding the criteria that define what is allowed, correct or incorrect, true or false, fitting or unfitting, and what is better and why (Richards, 2008). In other words, it requires knowing what is important in practice, which necessitates the identification of teacher competencies that will serve, in turn, as a guide to evaluating teacher performance during the practicum (Shalem & Slonimsky, 2010). By engaging in real classroom teaching and receiving constructive feedback from mentors, PSTs have the opportunity to apply and refine the competencies they have acquired through their faculty education. Although teacher competencies may vary across countries and institutions, they set the standards of teacher education and aim to ensure that PSTs are well-equipped to educate students effectively. They also establish the standards of PSTs' performance throughout the teaching practice process (Elliott, 2015).

In the teacher education context in Türkiye, as part of the negotiations for integration into the EU, the general competencies of teachers were defined (see Türk Eğitim Derneği (TED), 2009). Additionally, domain-specific competencies for English language teachers were specified in 2008 by the MoNE's Directorate of Teacher Training and Development (MoNE, 2008). They serve as a comprehensive set of skills that outline the foundational knowledge, pedagogical skills, and professional dispositions that English teachers are required to possess. The competencies also guide standards for teacher education in higher education and define performance criteria in the teaching practice. In this regard, they provide a benchmark for evaluating and fostering teaching performance (Aguinis, 2009; Elliot, 2015).

Therefore, evaluation criteria informed by teacher competencies provide a structured framework to SMs and FMs in their evaluations of the PSTs' teaching performance during their teaching practicum. Using these criteria ensures standardization in all teacher education programs (Elliot, 2015; Merç, 2015) and identification of PSTs' strengths and areas of improvement becomes easier (Castaneda & Montenegro, 2015). Therefore, feedback based on evaluation criteria enables PSTs to reflect on their practice and develop action plans for further development (Merç, 2015; Serdar Tülüce & Çeçen, 2016).

Research on Mentors' Evaluations of PSTs' Performance in Teaching Practicum

Research shows that SMs and FMs have different approaches and opinions regarding providing feedback to PSTs in their teaching practicum (Aydın, 2016; İlya, 2022; Orsdemir & Yıldırım, 2020; Tüfekçi Can & Baştürk, 2018). A study by Aydın (2016) indicated that SMs often lack confidence in their ability to provide constructive feedback and identify weaknesses in PSTs. Therefore, they depend too much on numerical evaluations and positive feedback rather than providing detailed comments and explanations. Besides, PSTs felt that they were not receiving sufficient feedback from their SMs during teaching practice (see Tüfekçi Can & Baştürk, 2018). Examining PSTs' views on the accomplishment of mentoring roles and responsibilities, Aydın and Ok (2020) probed into SMs' mentoring practices. Data revealed that PSTs only tended to agree on the execution of observer-feedback provider and assessor-evaluator. Yaylı (2018) examined SMs' support for PSTs and the theory-practice gap in Türkiye and found that SMs in Türkiye were reluctant to mentor PSTs and considered it a secondary task. The research indicates that mentor roles should be clearly outlined and preservice teacher education in Türkiye should be rearranged to reinforce vulnerable links between faculties and schools. In line with this, Rakicioglu-Soylemez and Eroz-Tuga (2014) proposed that SMs should be made aware of how to properly carry out mentoring procedures to effectively meet PSTs' needs. Similarly, Orsdemir and Yıldırım (2020) found that PSTs identified feedback provision as the least observed behavior among mentors and considered it the most critical area for SMs to improve.

On the one hand, despite the scarcity of research, Merç (2015) reported that PSTs expressed greater confidence in their FMs' evaluation of their practicum performance compared to their SMs', albeit acknowledging a divergence between the theoretical evaluation criteria used by each supervisor. On the other hand, İlya (2022) highlighted the need for a standard protocol. However, knowing that

such protocols are already available and standards of PSTs' evaluation are already defined by the MoNE and CoHE, we, as the authors, want to underline the need for a closer examination of SMs' and FMs' evaluations of PSTs' teaching performance in their teaching practicum. For instance, Karaman et al. (2019), SMs often view filling out the required evaluation criteria as burdensome paperwork. Consequently, they tend to prioritize other aspects of PST evaluation and may inadvertently overlook or ignore the importance of those performance criteria. Regarding the evaluation forms, Ak Başoğul et al. (2023) found that those evaluation forms were inadequate and lacking in meeting the demands of 21st century teacher competencies. The study reveals that the existing evaluation forms did not adequately capture the diverse skills and dispositions required for effective teaching in the modern educational landscape. Kablan et al. (2015) analyzed the opinions of SMs, FMs, and PSTs about the practicum using the evaluation form. The findings revealed that the PSTs exhibited a higher level of agreement with the SMs, particularly in the aspect of the teaching process as a sub-domain of the whole teaching and learning process which begins with lesson planning and covers two other key skills as classroom management and communication. Additionally, significant correlations were observed between the FMs and the SMs in all three areas, namely content knowledge, teaching process, and classroom management.

Consequently, as research indicates, there is a need for improvement in several areas to enhance the development of PSTs, including the provision of quality feedback, the utilization of objective evaluation criteria by both SMs and FMs, and improved coordination between these two groups. Addressing these factors is crucial in ensuring the optimal growth and development of PSTs during their teaching practicum experiences (Celen & Akcan, 2017). However, given the discrepancies between mentors' understanding and utilization of the evaluation criteria in PSTs' teaching practicum, examining the degree of importance that PSTs, and their FMs and SMs attach to the evaluation criteria becomes even more critical to promote a more consistent and effective evaluation process. To the best of our knowledge, the current study is a pioneering attempt in this area.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, we carried out multi-perspective research (Paltridge, 2020) and elicited the perceptions held by multiple parties regarding the significance of the evaluation criteria set by the MoNE for the evaluation of preservice English teachers' teaching practice and performance at teaching practicum schools. With this in mind, we explored the perceptions of preservice teachers enrolled in an English language teaching (ELT) program at a state university in northeastern Türkiye, as well as the school and faculty mentors who supervised them during their teaching practicum at practicum schools. Approval from Trabzon University's Board of Research and Publication Ethics (Report no: 2022-3/1.10) was secured before commencing data collection.

We sought answers to the following main and sub-research questions:

1.   What are the perceptions of preservice English language teachers, school mentors, and faculty mentors regarding the significance of evaluation criteria used in teaching practicum?

   a.   Do the degrees of significance attributed to the evaluation criteria align or differ among the preservice English language teachers, school mentors, and faculty mentors?

Data Collection and Instrumentation

To answer the questions above, we used the evaluation criteria that the MoNE officially requires faculty and school mentors to use in their evaluations of preservice teachers after each of their teaching practices. The evaluation criteria can be accessed by faculty and school mentors at

. The guidelines for PSTs' evaluation were published by the MoNE in 2021 (see Table 1).

Table 1. Evaluation criteria used by school mentors and faculty mentors

Evaluation criteria	Party of evaluation	Sub-criteria	Number of items
Content and pedagogical content knowledge	School and Faculty mentors	Content knowledge	4
		Pedagogical content knowledge	5
Teaching and learning process	School mentors	Teaching process	11
		Classroom management	At the start of the lesson: 2 items
			Throughout the lesson: 4 items
			At the end of the lesson: 3 items
		Communication	6
	Faculty mentors	Planning	6

There are 35 evaluation items under two main domains and five sub-evaluation domains to be used by SMs. The items are put on a 3-point rubric as *not adequately developed, acceptable,* and *well-developed.* The FMs are given 15 items under three sub-evaluation criteria. To gather the perceptions of all parties involved, namely PSTs, SMs, and FMs, regarding the importance attributed to each evaluation criterion, a 5-point Likert scale was utilized. The scale ranged from *"very insignificant" (1)* to *"very significant" (5)*. The intermediate options were defined as follows: *"insignificant" (2)*, *"neither significant nor insignificant" (3)*, and *"significant" (4)*.

We also developed a demographic information form for each party. The demographic questions for the PSTs included age, gender, perceived language competence, perceived level of preparedness to teach, whether they received feedback from their school mentors and faculty mentors, and the frequency and means of receiving such feedback. As for the mentors, in addition to basic demographic information such as age and gender, we included additional items to elicit more detailed information about their professional profiles. The questions included the length of their teaching experience, education, whether they had master's and/or doctoral degrees, and their majors for all the degrees held. The length of experience in supervising PSTs was another question. Some other questions directly addressing their feedback practices included whether they provided the PSTs with any feedback, as well as the frequency and means of delivering feedback.

Before collecting data, we conducted a pre-piloting of the questionnaire for PSTs with five PSTs in their 3rd year of studies. We asked them to read each item carefully and evaluate their comprehensibility. As for the questionnaire form targeting mentors, we sought feedback on its comprehensibility from two departmental members who were not involved in the data collection process since they did not hold any mentoring roles or responsibilities. For the piloting, we contacted the PSTs (*N*=62) studying at a nearby university. During the pilot analysis, we tested the reliability of items that were turned into a scale format. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency score for the 15 items used by FMs' was found to be .94, while it was .98 for the 35 items used by SMs, both indicating excellent reliability.

The data collection took place in the fall semester of 2022 from the PSTs enrolled in an English language teacher education program and from their FMs and SMs mentoring and supervising them during their practicum. This study attempts to offer a unique perspective on evaluation and feedback practices during the teaching practicum within an ELT program in Türkiye, making it a

noteworthy case. Ethical consent for conducting the study was obtained from the authors' university's Ethics Committee under reference number E-81614018-000-2200011460, granted on 14th March 2022.

Participants

The participants included the senior PSTs (*N*=25) studying at the ELT program at a state university in northeastern Türkiye and the SMs (*N*=11) and FMs (*N*=7) supervising the PSTs as they were doing their teaching practicum at schools in center city schools.

The great majority of the PSTs were females (*n*=20), while the rest were males (*n*=5). Their ages ranged from 21 to 25 with an average of 22. They perceived their language competences as competent and themselves as almost prepared to teach (*M*=3.92). The great majority (*n*=23) reported that they received feedback from their SMs, while two said they did not receive feedback or any regular evaluation. Some of those (*n*=13) who said they received feedback reported receiving it after each teaching practice, while some others (*n*=10) reported receiving occasional feedback. As for how they received the feedback, some reported that their SMs used the checklist (*n*=6) while a great majority (*n*=27) reported that their SMs provided written and spoken feedback without a checklist. Regarding if, how, and how often they received feedback from their SMs, 12 PSTs who reported that they received feedback from their mentors reported receiving feedback after each of their teaching practices (*n*=12), while the other 12 received feedback occasionally either through a checklist (*n*=7) or written and spoken feedback without the checklist (*n*=17). One PST reported never receiving feedback, a circumstance that deviated from the established roles and responsibilities expected of both parties of mentors.

Four FMs were females, while the rest were males. The ages of the participants ranged between 32 and 43, with a mean of 37. Their teaching experience ranged from 10 to 22 with an average of 14. On average, they have been supervising PSTs for a period ranging between two to seven years, with an average of four years. Out of the seven, five had earned doctoral degrees in ELT, one had a master's in applied linguistics and one was in the process of obtaining her doctoral in a non-language related field. All reported providing the PSTs with feedback after each of their teaching practices using the checklist (*n*=2), written notes without the checklist (n=3), and verbal feedback without notes and the checklist (*n*=1).

Similar to the FMS, the great majority of the SMs were females (*n*=9), while the rest (*n*=2) were males. The participants varied in age from 33 to 54, with an average of 41. They have been teaching for 14 years on average and have been supervising PSTs for six years on average with the most experienced one having 20 and the least experienced one with one year experience. The majority (*n*=9) were graduates of English language teaching programs and two were graduates of English Language and Literature. Very few of them (*n*=3) had MA degrees in education-related programs other than English language teaching. All reported giving feedback to PSTs after each of their teaching practices using the checklist (*n*=5), or written notes without the checklist (*n*=6).

Data analysis

The data were initially analyzed through descriptive statistics. To find the significance attached to each evaluation criterion by each party, we first ran an item-based analysis and then analyzed each subdomain and the overall domain. To further examine the likely differences between the levels of significance they attached to the evaluation criteria, we also ran inferential statistics. Before this, we ran a normality test for each of the subdomains and the overall evaluation domains. The results showed that the data were non-normally distributed in all sets (*p*<.05). Therefore, we employed the Kruskal-Wallis test, the non-parametric version of the ANOVA test (see Lalanne & Mesbah, 2016) to compare the independent scores (Field, 2018). For the evaluation subdomains in which the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated statistically significant differences, we carried out the Mann-

Whitney U test which is a non-parametric test to compare unrelated samples to find out which one of the parties differ statistically significantly from each other in their perceptions of the evaluation criteria.

FINDINGS

In the table below, we provide a comprehensive overview of PSTs', SMs', and FMs' perceptions regarding the significance of evaluation criteria, encompassing a total of 35 items utilized by SMs. We bring all parties to the same table (Table 2) for an easier interpretation of the findings and the likely comparisons that the readers will make.

Table 2. Parties' perceptions of the significance of the evaluation criteria used by SMs

Domains & Subdomains of Evaluation		No	Item	PSTs		SMs		FMs	
				M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Content and pedagogical content knowledge	**Content knowledge**	1	Knowing the basic principles and concepts related to the subject	4.40	.58	4.64	.67	4.86	.38
		2	Being able to relate the basic principles and concepts in the subject with a logical consistency	4.24	.60	4.36	.67	5.00	.00
		3	Being able to use verbal and visual language (figures, diagrams, graphics, formulas, etc.) appropriately	4.44	.51	4.45	.69	5.00	.00
		4	Being able to associate the subject with other subjects in the field	4.20	.58	4.45	.69	4.57	.53
	Pedagogical content knowledge	5	Knowing special teaching approaches, methods, and techniques	4.12	.73	4.36	.67	4.86	.38
		6	Being able to utilize instructional technologies	4.60	.58	4.73	.47	4.86	.38

		7	Being able to identify incorrectly-developed concepts in students	4.24	.88	4.64	.50	4.86	.38
		8	Being able to give appropriate and adequate responses to student questions	4.68	.48	4.73	.47	5.00	.00
		9	Being able to ensure the safety of the learning environment	4.24	.88	4.64	.50	5.00	.00
Teaching and learning process	**Teaching process**	10	Being able to relate the subject to previous and subsequent lessons	4.24	.66	4.73	.47	4.86	.38
		11	Being able to determine methods and techniques appropriate for achieving the learning outcomes	4.44	.71	4.64	.50	4.86	.38
		12	Being able to use time effectively	4.52	.59	4.73	.47	5.00	.00
		13	Being able to design activities for students' active participation	4.48	.71	4.73	.65	5.00	.00
		14	Being able to continue teaching according to individual differences	4.32	.85	4.45	.69	4.86	.38
		15	Being able to select and prepare appropriate tools and materials	4.48	.71	4.45	.52	4.86	.38
		16	Being able to use teaching tools and materials in accordance with the class level	4.56	.58	4.55	.52	5.00	.00

	17	Being able to summarize during the lesson	3.68	.85	4.36	.67	4.29	.95
	18	Being able to give feedback according to students' level of understanding	4.56	.58	4.73	.47	4.86	.38
	19	Being able to relate the subject to life	4.40	.87	4.36	.50	4.71	.76
	20	Being able to use evaluation techniques in accordance with the learning outcomes	4.32	.85	4.55	.52	4.71	.76
Classroom management	21	Being able to make an appropriate introduction to the lesson	4.48	.71	4.45	.52	4.86	.38
	22	Being able to attract student interest and attention to the lesson	4.52	.71	4.64	.67	5.00	.00
	23	Being able to provide a democratic learning environment	4.52	.59	4.45	.69	4.71	.76
	24	Being able to ensure the continuity of interest and motivation in the lesson	4.56	.77	4.36	.67	4.86	.38
	25	Being able to take appropriate precautions against interruptions and blockages	4.28	.79	4.45	.69	4.86	.38
	26	Being able to benefit from praise and sanctions	4.08	.81	4.27	.79	4.86	.38
	27	Being able to summarize the lesson	4.44	.51	4.36	.67	5.00	.00

	28	Being able to give information about assignments for the next lesson	4.16	.75	4.09	.30	4.57	.53
	29	Being able to prepare the students to leave the classroom	3.80	.76	4.00	.45	4.29	1.11
Communication	30	Being able to communicate effectively with students	4.72	.54	4.82	.40	5.00	.00
	31	Being able to give clear explanations and instructions	4.80	.41	4.82	.40	5.00	.00
	32	Being able to ask thought-provoking questions in accordance with the topic	4.44	.58	4.64	.50	4.86	.38
	33	Being able to use the voice effectively	4.60	.71	4.64	.67	5.00	.00
	34	Being able to listen to the students with care	4.68	.48	4.45	.69	4.57	.79
	35	Being able to use verbal and non-verbal language effectively	4.64	.70	4.82	.40	4.86	.38

A closer look at the PSTs' evaluation of each evaluation criterion shows that except for item 17 (Being able to summarize during the lesson) and item 29 (Being able to prepare the students to leave the class) that they perceived neither significant nor insignificant (*M*=3.68), they considered all other items significant with varying degrees. *Being able to give clear explanations and instructions* was the item to which they attached the highest degree of significance (*M*=4.80). They also attached a similar degree of significance to *being able to communicate effectively with students* (*M*=4.72), which was followed by *being able to give appropriate and adequate responses to student questions* and *being able to listen to the students with care*.

The SMs perceived the entire evaluation criteria as significant with varying degrees. Some of the items were attached with greater significance, but three of the six communication items were given the greatest importance. They perceived *being able to communicate effectively with students*, *being able to give clear explanations and instructio*n, and *being able to use verbal and non-verbal language effectively* as the most significant teacher skills and competencies to be performed by PSTs. Similar to the PSTs, the SMs perceived *being able to prepare students to leave the class* as the relatively least significant skill. There are some items (#19, 21, 23, 24, 27, 28, and 34) that the SMs attached relatively lower levels of significance compared to the PSTs. SMs and PSTs seemed to almost agree

on the significance of *being able to use teaching tools and materials in accordance with the class level*. For the rest of the items, the SMs attached higher degrees of significance.

The FMs, compared to the PSTs and SMs, attached higher degrees of significance to all evaluation criteria, except for item 17 where they were found to perceive *being able to summarize the lesson* as less important compared to the SMs, but not the PSTs. There are some items (#2, 3, 8, 9, 12, 13, 16, 22, 27, 30, 31, and 33) that they perceived as very significant, although such a degree of significance was not observed in the PSTs' and SMs' responses.

We also examined how each of these parties perceived the overall significance of each of the subdomains of evaluation criteria besides the whole set of evaluation criteria (see Table 3).

Table 3. Parties' perceptions of the significance of subdomains of the evaluation criteria used by SMs

Subdomain	PSTs		SMs		FMs	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Content knowledge	4.32	.42	4.50	.62	4.86	.20
Pedagogical content knowledge	4.38	.55	4.62	.34	4.91	.11
Teaching process	4.36	.51	4.57	.42	4.82	.37
Classroom management	4.32	.53	4.34	.47	4.78	.29
Communication	4.65	.44	4.67	.43	4.88	.25
Overall	**4.40**	**.43**	**4.53**	**.42**	**4.84**	**.25**

As seen, all perceived the whole set of evaluation criteria used by the SMs as significant. FMs reported an evidently higher level of significance for all the subdomains of evaluation. The overall level of significance that they attached to the evaluation criteria was higher compared to PSTs and who were found to attach higher levels of significance to both sub and overall criteria compared to PSTs. The PSTs evaluated *communication* as the most significant domain, while the other domains revealed almost equal degrees of significance. The SMs also perceived *communication* as the most significant domain of the evaluation, while *classroom management* revealed the lowest level of significance. The FMs, on the other hand, were found to perceive *pedagogical content knowledge* as the most significant domain, followed by *communication* and *content knowledge*.

We ran the Kruskal-Wallis test to examine any likely statistically significant differences between their evaluations of the overall evaluation criteria and subdomains. Based on the differences between the rank totals of the PSTs (17.84), SMs (24.82), and FMs (32.43), there was a statistically significant difference $H(2, n=43)=8.52$, $p= .014$ between their perceptions of the significance of *content knowledge*. Therefore, we conducted post hoc comparisons using the Mann-Whitney U test which showed that the difference between PSTs and FMs was statistically significant ($p=.000$). Besides, the differences between the rank totals of the PSTs (18.24), SMs (23.09), and FMs (33.71) revealed that the level of significance that they attached to the evaluation of PSTs' *pedagogical content knowledge* was statistically significant $H(2, n=43)=8.71$, $p= .013$. The Mann-Whitney U post hoc comparison revealed that the SMs and FMs ($p=.019$) and PSTs and FMs hold statistically significant levels of perceptions ($p=.000$). Additionally, their (PSTs=18.40, SMs=24.18, FMs=31.43) perceived level of significance regarding the evaluation of *teaching process* was also found as statistically significant $H(2, n=43)=6.47$, $p= .039$. The post hoc comparisons showed that the PSTs and FMs hold statistically significant levels of perceptions ($p=.020$). Moreover, the differences between the total ranks of PSTs (19.80), SMs (20.27), and FMs (32.57) also revealed statistically significant differences in their evaluations of *classroom management* $H(2, n=43)=6.02$, $p= .049$. The post hoc comparisons showed that the SMs and FMs statistically significantly differed ($p=.027$). The difference between PSTs and the FMs was also statistically significant ($p=.007$).

On the other hand, the PSTs (19.70), SMs (22.91), and FMs (28.79) did not differ significantly in the level of significance that they attached to communication $H(2, n=43)=3.21$, $p= .201$. However, the PSTs (18.38), SMs (23.18), and FMs (33.07) were found to differ statistically significantly from each other in their overall evaluations of the whole set of evaluation criteria used by the SMs $H(2, n=43)=7.64$, $p= 022$. The post hoc comparison also confirmed that the overall level of significance that the FMs attached to the evaluation criteria used by the SMs was higher than those of the PSTs.

Table 4. Parties' perceptions of the significance of the evaluation criteria used by FMs

Domains & Subdomains of Evaluation		No	Item	PSTs		SMs		FMs	
				M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Content and pedagogical content knowledge	**Content knowledge**	1	Knowing the basic principles and concepts related to the subject	4.56	.58	4.45	.93	4.71	.49
		2	Being able to relate the basic principles and concepts in the subject with a logical consistency	4.28	.74	4.36	.92	4.86	.38
		3	Being able to use verbal and visual language (figures, diagrams, graphics, formulas, etc.) appropriately	4.40	.58	4.63	.67	4.86	.38
		4	Being able to associate the subject with other subjects in the field	4.24	.88	4.54	.69	4.58	.53
	Pedagogical content knowledge	5	Knowing special teaching approaches, methods, and techniques	4.20	.87	4.64	.67	4.71	.76
		6	Being able to utilize instructional technologies	4.68	.69	4.64	.67	5.00	.00
		7	Being able to identify incorrectly-developed concepts in students	4.32	.95	4.64	.67	4.71	.49
		8	Being able to give appropriate and adequate responses to student questions	4.60	.71	4.55	.93	4.86	.38
		9	Being able to ensure the safety of the learning environment	4.32	1.0	4.45	.93	4.86	.38
Teaching and learning process	**Planning**	10	Being able to devise clear, comprehensible, and well-organized lesson plans	4.36	.91	4.45	.93	4.71	.76

11	Being able to write clear aims and learning outcomes	4.36	.70	4.55	.69	5.00	.00
12	Being able to determine methods and techniques appropriate for achieving the learning outcomes	4.44	.71	4.64	.67	4.86	.38
13	Being able to select and prepare appropriate tools and materials	4.68	.56	4.55	.69	5.00	.00
14	Being able to determine evaluation methods appropriate for learning outcomes	4.40	.76	4.55	.69	4.71	.76
15	Being able to relate the topic to preceding and proceeding ones	4.56	.71	4.55	.69	4.86	.38

Compared to the PSTs and SMs, the FMs have reported a clearly higher level of significance of the evaluation criteria in their own evaluations of the PSTs at teaching practicum schools. All parties were found to perceive the evaluation criteria as significant (item means are over 4.00 for each).

A closer look into each party's perceived significance of the evaluation criteria reveals the details and differences. For instance, the PSTs attached the highest degree of significance to being evaluated on their *being able to select and prepare appropriate tools and materials* and *being able to utilize instructional technologies* (*M*=4.68 for both). *Being able to give appropriate and adequate responses to student questions* was perceived as almost equally significant (*M*=4.60). *Knowing the basic principles and concepts related to the subjec*t, and *being able to relate the topic to preceding and proceeding topics* (*M*= 4.56 for both) were also perceived among other significant evaluation criteria. *Knowing special teaching approaches, methods, and technique*s, which was considered the least important evaluation criterion for the PSTs (*M*=4.20), was, in fact, perceived as more important by the SMs and FMs. Some other items such as *being able to associate the subject with other subjects in the field* (*M*=4.24) and *being able to relate the basic principles and concepts in the subject with a logical consistency* (*M*=4.28) were also perceived as relatively less significant by the PSTs. Similar to the PSTs, the SMs attached higher levels of significance to the utilization of instructional technologies (*M*=4.64) but with slightly less significance. *Being able to identify incorrectly developed concepts in students* and *being able to determine methods and techniques appropriate for achieving the learning outcomes* (*M*=4.64 for both) were also perceived as significant by the SMs. However, compared to the PSTs, the SMs were found to hold lower levels of significance attached to some other items (#1, 6, 8, 13, and 15). As for the FMs, some items (#6, 11, and 13) were revealed to be perceived as very significant, while the rest were also perceived to be significant with relatively lower levels of significance.

To make a clearer interpretation of the levels of significance that the PSTs, SMs, and FMs attached to the sub-evaluation criteria besides the whole set of criteria used by the SMs, we calculated the means and standard deviations (see Table 5).

Table 5. Parties' perceptions of the significance of subdomains of the evaluation criteria used by FMs

Subdomain	PSTs		SMs		FMs	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*

Content knowledge	4.37	.42	4.50	.77	4.75	.38
Pedagogical content knowledge	4.42	.55	4.58	.73	4.83	.29
Planning	4.47	.51	4.55	.68	4.86	.38
Overall	**4.43**	**.62**	**4.55**	**.71**	**4.82**	**.34**

As seen, the SMs attach a distinctively higher level of significance to all the sub-evaluation criteria; thus the whole set of criteria. *Planning was* the most significantly perceived evaluation criterion by the PSTs and FMs which was *pedagogical content knowledge* for the SMs. *Content knowledge* was the least significant evaluation criterion for all parties. To determine the extent of the differences in the levels of significance attached by all parties, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. The results did not indicate any statistically significant differences in the overall evaluation of the entire set of criteria, as well as in any of the sub-evaluation criteria ($p > .05$).

DISCUSSION

As per our information, this study is the first to examine the degree of significance attributed to the evaluation criteria established by the MoNE for assessing PSTs' teaching practice and performance during their practicum by their school and faculty mentors in the Turkish context. This study has revealed several key issues. First and foremost, despite the scarcity of research examining the evaluation criteria used in the teaching practicum, the findings confirm the critical role that mentors and their feedback play in PSTs' education as depicted by many other studies focusing on mentors' evaluation in the teaching practicum (see Aydın, 2016; İlya, 2022; Kablan et al., 2015; Karaman et al., 2019; Orsdemir & Yıldırım, 2020; Rakicioglu-Soylemez & Eroz-Tuga, 2014; Tüfekçi Can & Baştürk, 2018).

The findings highlight the importance attributed to the different evaluation criteria, subdomains, and overall assessments by each group. All parties acknowledged the value of the evaluation criteria, yet their views on the significance of each criterion varied. For instance, while the PSTs and SMs attached greater importance to more practical skills of teaching such as communication in the teaching and learning process as the sub-evaluation domain used by the SMs, the FMs regarded pedagogical content knowledge as the most significant skill which they expect PSTs to perform and SMs to evaluate. As for the evaluation criteria used by FMs, PSTs and FMs attributed greater significance to planning, while SMs valued the evaluation of PSTs' pedagogical content knowledge by their FMs. Such disparities between PSTs and mentors regarding EFL teaching have been reported in the international context (Li et al., 2023).

These findings demonstrate that all parties have distinct perceptions, priorities, and ideas regarding the value of diverse evaluation criteria which may lead to greater attention to the different dimensions of the implementation while neglecting others, and, in such a context, there may be deficiencies in the advancement of teachers' skills and competencies and the development of their professional identities. The result of the study aligns closely with the findings of Merç's (2015) research which also concluded that variations in the significance attached to different dimensions of assessment by assessors lead to diverse outcomes in grading. This suggests that there exists a disparity in the evaluation of PSTs indicating a lack of understanding in well-prepared teachers.

Moreover, considering the sub-categories of the assessment criteria, each party recognized their importance. Significant differences were observed in their approach to subject matter knowledge, teaching process, and classroom management. This underscores the necessity for tailored evaluation criteria that align with the desires and expectations of all stakeholders. It further emphasizes the importance of involving all parties in the development of these criteria to ensure they accurately reflect the needs and perspectives of everyone involved. This finding supports the results of Ak Başoğul's (2023) study that teacher training and evaluation procedures must be enhanced in faculty-school cooperation, and the evaluation forms should be adjusted accordingly.

Lastly, one of the most important findings of the study is the statistical significance in PSTs', SMs', and FMs' perceptions regarding the importance of the criteria used by SMs. Such sub-evaluation domains as content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, teaching process, and classroom management were attached to greater degrees of importance. This suggests the key role that all parties attributed to SMs' role in teaching practicum as such a statistical significance was not found in the evaluation criteria used by FMs. A recent study in the same context also revealed that PSTs put more emphasis on SMs and their mentoring for their preparedness to teach compared to FMs (Çelik & Zehir Topkaya, 2023).

CONCLUSION

Consequently, this study provides valuable insights into how PSTs, SMs, and FMS, as key parties in PSTs' teaching practicum, perceive the significance of the evaluation criteria used by SMs and FMs to evaluate PSTs' teaching performance in teaching practicum. First and foremost, the findings highlight the complexity and intricacy of PSTs' evaluation when they are closest to the profession and where the feedback and evaluation they receive from their mentors play an important role in their preparedness for the profession.

As we delve deeper into the findings, it becomes evident that the perspectives of PSTs, FMs, and SMs offer a unique lens into the complexities of practicum evaluation. Despite the availability of standardized sets of criteria for FMs and SMs, the findings highlight the disparities in evaluation criteria between them and emphasize the need for alignment, as effective dissemination of standardized criteria is seen as key to establishing a common ground. This not only fosters consistency and fairness in evaluations but also ensures the readiness of PSTs as they near the completion of their preservice education. Moreover, while cooperation between faculty and school is frequently cited, the practicum phase—where the two parties come together and work closely the most—necessitates specific initiatives to enhance collaboration between FMs and SMs in understanding and applying these evaluation criteria.

Accordingly, conducting research in various English language teaching program contexts in Türkiye would help mitigate the potential limitations associated with examining a single case as a sample. Exploring additional factors such as feedback provision, mentoring approaches, and the role of self-assessment can significantly enrich our understanding of the evaluation process in teaching practicum. This study makes a substantial contribution to the ongoing discourse on practicum evaluation practices in preservice English language teacher education, offering valuable insights to enhance the quality of teaching practicum experiences for PSTs. It is worth noting, however, that given the exclusive use of quantitative data in this study, research employing qualitative and/or mixed methods designs could provide further nuanced insights.

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An Investigation into the Relationship Between Metacognitive Knowledge and Writing Achievement of Turkish EFL Learners

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Abstract: Writing poses a substantial yet demanding challenge for individuals learning English as a foreign language (EFL). In contemporary frameworks, this skill is characterized as a complex, recursive, strategic, and multifaceted process that engages both cognitive and metacognitive faculties. Consequently, recent decades have witnessed a burgeoning body of research spotlighting the pivotal role of metacognition in EFL writing. This study, employing an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach, set out to delve into the depth of metacognitive awareness among Turkish EFL students concerning English writing. The study encompassed a cohort of 120 Turkish EFL students at the B2 level. To gauge the participants' metacognitive understanding concerning the variables of person, task, and strategy, a questionnaire was administered. Additionally, interviews were conducted with 35 participants to augment and elucidate the quantitative findings. Analyzing the data disclosed that participants exhibited an average level of knowledge with respect to person and strategy dimensions, but they demonstrated a robust understanding of the task dimension. Further scrutiny through correlation analysis, which explored the link between students' writing achievement and their metacognitive awareness, revealed a weak positive relationship between students' writing proficiency and their comprehension of both person-related and strategy-related aspects. In contrast, there was no statistically significant correlation between task-related knowledge and writing achievement. Content analysis of the findings shed light on noteworthy disparities among high-achieving, average-achieving, and low-achieving EFL writers concerning their grasp of metacognitive knowledge. In alignment with their writing performance, high-achieving writers outperformed their counterparts in all the metacognitive subcategories.

Keywords: *Metacognition, metacognitive knowledge, EFL writing, person knowledge, task knowledge, strategy knowledge*

INTRODUCTION

Writing stands as a vital skill in the realm of EFL education, offering an array of advantages for individuals both in their academic pursuits and professional endeavors. Nonetheless, it is a cognitively intricate undertaking that demands specialized skills (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Nunan, 1989). Consequently, writing remains one of the most formidable challenges for educators to impart and for learners to master (Richards & Renandya, 2003).

In the shift from a product-oriented to a process-oriented approach to writing instruction, scholars have highlighted the pivotal role of higher-order cognitive processes in guiding and regulating the writing process. Many have emphasized the crucial influence of metacognition in shaping the writing process. Previous research has unveiled that proficient writers engage in processes characterized by substantial self-regulation and metacognitive awareness (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower, 1990; Flower & Hayes, 1980; Harris, Santangelo, & Graham, 2010; Ruan, 2005). In

fact, some scholars have gone as far as defining writing as a manifestation of applied metacognition (Hacker, Keener & Kircher, 2009). Kasper (1997) posits that a majority of second language (L2) learners struggle with writing because they lack awareness of their own writing processes, the specific activities they engage in, and the means they employ to regulate these processes, primarily due to their lack of metacognitive writing skills.

However, investigations into metacognition within the domain of language learning and teaching have primarily centered on receptive skills, such as reading and listening, highlighting its substantial benefits (Devine, 1993; Vandergrift, 2002; Vandergrift & Goh, 2011). In contrast, the impact of metacognition on productive language skills, namely speaking and writing, has received relatively scant attention from scholars. Therefore, more comprehensive research is needed to address this gap.

This study gives its focus to writing for two main reasons. First, there is a growing interest among tertiary-level Turkish EFL students in enhancing their writing skill. However, many of them feel inadequately prepared for academic writing and perceive it as a formidable challenge to overcome. Their motivation for engaging in writing tasks often stems from a desire to evade potential failure or to increase their prospects of success in English exams. Second, while prior research points to the manifold benefits of metacognitive knowledge and strategies in relation to EFL writing achievement, there is a paucity of research exploring metacognition in the context of EFL writing in Türkiye. In this regard, the present study endeavors to bridge this gap and contribute to the existing body of literature on EFL writing and metacognition within the Turkish context.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Metacognition

The term "metacognition" was initially coined by American developmental psychologist John Flavell, who used it to describe an individual's "knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena" (Flavell, 1979, p. 906). Various scholars in the field of cognitive psychology have proposed slightly different definitions of metacognition, focusing on its various aspects. Flavell (1976) provided a straightforward definition, stating that metacognition encompasses "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them" (p. 232). He further explained that metacognition involves actively monitoring, regulating, and coordinating these processes in relation to the cognitive information they pertain to, typically in pursuit of specific goals or objectives.

Flavell (1979) was the first to establish a connection between metacognition and the learning process. Over the past nearly four decades, extensive research has been conducted across various contexts and subject areas to investigate Flavell's proposition. The exploration of metacognition holds great significance in the field of educational psychology because it offers valuable insights into the intricate cognitive processes that individuals engage in during the learning process (Devine, 1993). Metacognition has been recognized for its multifaceted benefits in facilitating individual learning. As Öz (2014) notes, metacognition stands out as one of the most reliable predictors of learning, promoting successful learning outcomes, improved academic performance, and enhanced problem-solving abilities in individuals (Öz, 2014; Schraw & Dennison, 1994; Vandergrift, 2002).

Metacognitive skills also have the potential to bolster an individual's thinking capacity (Anderson, 2002), enhance achievement in novel learning tasks (Vann & Abraham, 1990), improve overall learning outcomes (Anderson, 2002; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994), and compensate for certain cognitive limitations or deficits in general intelligence and prior knowledge on a subject (Veenman, Wilhelm, & Beishuizen, 2004).

Wenden (1987) can be credited with introducing the concept of metacognition to the realm of language learning. She argued that metacognition played a pivotal role in language learning by fostering learner autonomy and distinguishing cognitive processes among language learners. Following her pioneering work, the role of metacognition in the development of language skills has

been extensively examined by other researchers and scholars. Furthermore, Anderson (2002) proposed that "strong metacognitive skills empower second language learners," suggesting that through metacognitive instruction, L2 learners can reflect on their learning processes, cultivate autonomy, and thus develop more robust learning skills.

Flavell's Model of Cognitive Monitoring

Flavell's Model of Cognitive Monitoring holds a pivotal place in the development of the metacognition theory, as it lays the groundwork for understanding the components and interactions within metacognition. In his model, Flavell (1979) was among the first to delineate these components and elucidate their interplay. He proposed that the monitoring of cognitive processes arises from "actions or interactions" among four key elements: (1) metacognitive knowledge, (2) metacognitive experiences, (3) goals (or tasks), and (4) actions (or strategies) (p. 906).

Metacognitive knowledge, as defined by Flavell (1979, p. 906), constitutes "that segment of your (a child's, an adult's) stored world knowledge that has to do with people as cognitive creatures and with their diverse cognitive tasks, goals, actions, and experiences". Flavell considered metacognitive knowledge to be akin to other forms of knowledge stored in long-term memory in terms of its structure and quality. Therefore, it can be learned, enriched, revised, or discarded. He further divided metacognitive knowledge into three distinct yet highly interconnected variables: person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategy knowledge. Successful learning requires individuals to possess profound insights into themselves as learners, the nature of the task at hand, and effective strategies to achieve predetermined cognitive objectives (Devine, 1993; Flavell, 1979; Kasper, 1997).The person variable pertains to individuals' self-awareness and beliefs concerning their abilities, strengths, and weaknesses in accomplishing a particular task, as well as their general understanding of human learning and information processing (Flavell, 1979; Wenden, 1998). In contrast, the task variable encompasses knowledge about the characteristics, complexity, and requirements of a given task (Flavell, 1979; Wenden, 1998). Learners equipped with task knowledge can more effectively engage with the mental, emotional, and social aspects of a task and analyze factors that impact their task performance. They can approach the task with precision, often excelling in defining their objectives and allocating the appropriate cognitive effort to fulfill those goals. Lastly, the strategy variable involves knowledge of cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective strategies that can be employed to efficiently complete a specific type of task. Individuals possessing strategy knowledge are adept at identifying strategies that are suitable or unsuitable for particular tasks and employing them accordingly (Flavell, 1979).

Another fundamental component in Flavell's metacognitive framework is metacognitive experiences. Flavell (1979, p. 906) characterized metacognitive experiences as "any conscious cognitive or affective experiences that accompany and pertain to any intellectual enterprise. These experiences encompass the actions individuals undertake to regulate and control their cognitive processes during learning. Metacognitive experiences provide learners with insights into their progress within a task, their current position, and potential future developments. They guide individuals in setting new goals or adjusting existing ones. In Flavell's model (1979), goals or tasks represent the actual objectives of a cognitive endeavor that may trigger the application of metacognitive knowledge and lead to metacognitive experiences. Finally, actions or strategies are specific steps or behaviors employed to achieve these goals.

Metacognitive Knowledge About Writing

Advancements in cognitive psychology have paved the way for exploring the valuable and pivotal role of metacognition in writing performance (Harris et al., 2010). These developments have also offered scholars and writing instructors a fresh perspective on writing instruction, offering innovative ways to address the challenges of composing.

As previously discussed, metacognitive knowledge encompasses three fundamental components: person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategy knowledge (Flavell, 1979). In the

context of writing, an understanding of the person relates to the various thoughts and emotions individuals harbor about themselves as writers throughout the cognitive writing process. It also encompasses perceptions of the writing environment, one's self-efficacy in writing, and motivation (Ruan, 2005, p. 182). This self-awareness plays a crucial role in enabling EFL writers to monitor their writing process effectively and develop compensatory skills when necessary (You & Joe, 2001).

Regarding writing, task knowledge pertains to one's understanding of the writing topic, familiarity with common writing conventions and rhetorical structures, coherence, awareness of the target audience, and comprehension of the purpose of the writing task. A heightened awareness of task requirements and various factors related to task knowledge significantly influences the quality and content of written work by EFL learners.

In the realm of writing, strategy knowledge involves metacognitive awareness of effective writing strategies that can be employed to achieve predetermined writing goals. Proficiency in knowing when and how to use certain writing strategies (e.g., planning, pre-writing, error monitoring, post-writing, or rereading) empowers EFL writers to enhance their skills and manage writing tasks more efficiently.

An Overview of Studies on Metacognition and ESL/EFL Writing

Metacognition has garnered significant attention from scholars in the field of L2 due to its recognized role in the learning process (Anderson, 2012; Devine, 1993). Wenden (1987) was a pioneer in highlighting the potential of metacognition in understanding the EFL learning process, setting the stage for further research. Over recent decades, research on metacognition has revealed its positive impact on language use and acquisition.

Devine, Railey, and Boshoff's (1993) study holds particular significance as one of the early attempts to delve into the cognitive models of L2 writers and assess the influence of these models on their writing achievement. Their research involved 20 first-year college students from diverse language backgrounds, with 10 students being native (L1) English speakers and the other 10 being English as a second language (ESL) writers. The study aimed to gather insights into the subjects' conceptions regarding the person, task, and strategy variables in writing. The findings indicated that L1 and L2 writers possessed different cognitive models, suggesting a potential link between these models and the actual writing performance of ESL learners.

To further clarify the relationship between metacognition and ESL writing performance, Kasper (1997) conducted a survey involving 120 ESL students from various ethnic, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds. Students were divided into two groups based on their proficiency levels, with 53 in the advanced group and 67 in the intermediate group, as determined by their TOEFL scores. Over six consecutive semesters, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Kasper's study not only confirmed a significant positive correlation between metacognitive variables (i.e., person, task, and strategy) and the actual writing performance of ESL students but also illuminated the varying effects of these variables at different levels of linguistic proficiency. In both groups, students who performed better in the final assessment also received higher ratings in the person, task, and strategy variables. Kasper also noted that while students' knowledge of the person and task variables did not undergo fundamental changes as they became more proficient in the language, their strategy knowledge exhibited significant growth as they progressed from the intermediate to the advanced level.

Ruan (2005) emphasized the strong connection between EFL writers' metacognitive knowledge and their writing behaviors and performance. His study examined the role of an empirically based instructional approach in developing metacognitive knowledge and skills among Chinese students for English writing. The approach incorporated self-regulatory mechanisms into the course framework, allowing students to apply goal-setting, planning, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and revising to their writing process. Ruan's findings demonstrated that engaging EFL writers in self-regulated writing practices facilitated the development of metacognitive knowledge and skills. For instance, students' person knowledge progressed positively, leading to improved self-efficacy beliefs

and confidence as EFL writers. Task knowledge led to a better understanding of the target audience, task purposes, and cross-language differences between their L1 and L2 writing. Strategic knowledge, while not drastically altering students' planning habits, significantly improved their skills in evaluating and revising their work.

Additionally, some studies have explored the relationship between L2 writers' writing performance and the metacognitive strategies they employ in their writing processes, focusing on the regulation of cognition. For example, Panahandeh and Esfandiari Asl (2014) investigated the effects of monitoring and planning skills as metacognitive strategies on argumentative writing performance among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Their findings demonstrated that instruction on metacognitive strategies substantially benefited these learners in their argumentative writing skills.

In an action research project, Göy (2017) examined the effectiveness of strategy instruction on EFL learners' writing achievement and self-regulation. While students were taught specific strategies, the findings revealed that they employed only a limited number of strategies and demonstrated only modest improvement in their writing.

In summary, an overview of research on metacognition in writing highlights a positive correlation between ESL/EFL learners' writing performance and their knowledge about cognition and regulation of cognition. However, there is a relatively small body of research on metacognition within the context of writing instruction, indicating a need for further investigation into the extent to which metacognition contributes to success in ESL/EFL writing.

METHODOLOGY

The present study adopted an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, following the guidelines recommended by Creswell (2014). Initially, quantitative data were collected using an inventory and subsequently subjected to analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS). Qualitative data, on the other hand, were obtained through semi-structured interviews and underwent thematic content analysis, allowing for a deeper comprehension and interpretation of the quantitative findings.

The primary aim of this research was to investigate the extent of metacognitive knowledge regarding writing among Turkish EFL students and to explore its relationship with their writing achievement. To accomplish this objective, the study aimed to ascertain whether metacognitive knowledge played a role in influencing writing achievement.

To address these objectives, the study posed three specific research questions:

1. What is the breadth and depth of metacognitive knowledge about writing among Turkish EFL learners, with a particular focus on the person, task, and strategy variables?

2. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the writing achievements of EFL learners and their metacognitive knowledge about writing?

3. What are the specific constituents that make up the understanding of Turkish EFL writers concerning the person, task, and strategy variables in the context of writing?

Participants and Setting

The study involved a participant group consisting of 120 university students at the B2 level who were enrolled in the Intensive English Preparatory Program at a state university in Türkiye. Among these students, 69 (57.5%) were female, while 51 (42.5%) were male students, with ages spanning from 18 to 24 years old. To further delve into the research, 35 volunteers, constituting nearly 30% of the total survey respondents, were chosen to participate in interviews among the participants.

Table 1. Frequency distribution for the ages and departments of students

	Frequency	%

Gender		
Male	51	42.5
Female	69	57.5
Department		
Computer Engineering	27	22.5
Industrial Engineering	23	19.2
Energy Systems Engineering	11	9.2
Chemical and Process Engineering	5	4.2
Polymer Engineering	3	2.5
Transportation Engineering	26	21.6
Economics	8	6.7
Business Administration	15	12.5
Others	2	1.7

Instruments and Data Collection Procedure

Before the implementation of the study, ethics approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Bursa Uludağ University on 27th April 2018 (Number of the session: 2018-4). The current study employed an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative approaches for data collection. The data were sourced from three primary channels: an argumentative essay writing task, the Metacognitive Knowledge about Writing Survey (MKWS), and retrospective interviews. The MKWS and interview questions were adapted from the instruments developed by Xiao (2016) and underwent refinement through a pilot testing phase.

To gauge the participants' writing prowess, the study assessed their performance in argumentative essays. To delve into the metacognitive knowledge possessed by the participants regarding writing, the researchers used the MKWS. This survey utilized a 6-point Likert scale and comprised 50 items organized into three sections: person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategy knowledge. A reliability analysis conducted for each of these three sections revealed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .767 for person knowledge, .354 for task knowledge, and .756 for strategy knowledge. While person and strategy variables demonstrated relatively high internal reliability, the task variable exhibited lower reliability. To enhance the reliability of the task knowledge section, two items were removed, resulting in a revised questionnaire with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .575 for task knowledge. Although the alpha value in this case may not be considered highly satisfactory, it was deemed acceptable and sufficient, as for Taber (2018).

Furthermore, retrospective interviews were carried out to glean additional insights from the respondents regarding their perceptions of their EFL writing processes. These interviews were conducted in the native language (Turkish) of the participants to mitigate the potential confounding influence of their English proficiency on the interview results. The interview sessions consisted of nine questions categorized into three subgroups: Self-Knowledge as a Writer, Metacognitive Awareness of Writing Tasks, and Metacognitive Awareness of Strategies.

Data Analysis

To address the first research question, which sought to determine the extent of metacognitive knowledge about writing among Turkish EFL learners concerning the person, task, and strategy variables, the study employed descriptive analyses. Mean scores for the three subscales of the MKWS - specifically, the person, task, and strategy variables - were calculated and reported for all participants collectively.

Furthermore, the students were categorized into three performance groups: high-performing (HP), average-performing (AP), and low-performing (LP) writers based on their scores in the argumentative writing task. Specifically, students who scored 18 or higher were classified as belonging to the HP group (n=36), those scoring between 14 and 17.5 were assigned to the AP group (n=44), and students with scores of 13.5 or lower were designated as part of the LP group (n=40). This categorization allowed for a more detailed examination of metacognitive knowledge within different performance levels.

Table 2. Grading criteria of EFL learners' writing proficiency

Level	Mean
High	18-25
Average	14-17.5
Low	0-13.5

Additionally, mean scores for the three subscales of the Metacognitive Knowledge about Writing Survey (MKWS) were analyzed separately for each performance group to assess whether the extent of students' metacognitive knowledge differed among the high-performing (HP), average-performing (AP), and low-performing (LP) groups. The study utilized specific criteria, as presented in Table 3, to determine the level of participants' metacognitive knowledge.

Table 3. Grading criteria of metacognitive knowledge

Level	Mean	Options
High	4.40 – 6	Always true of me
		Usually true of me
Average	2.70 – 4.39	Somewhat true of me
		Somewhat not true of me
Low	1– 2.69	Usually not true of me
		Never true of me

Research question 2 aimed to investigate whether there was a significant correlation between Turkish EFL learners' writing achievement and their metacognitive knowledge about writing. To address this question, the study conducted correlation analyses.

To assess students' writing tasks, the study developed an analytic scoring rubric, which was created by the researchers. The rubric allowed for a maximum score of 25 and a minimum score of 0 for the argumentative essay tasks. Two experienced English instructors independently evaluated the participants' essays based on this rubric. Before commencing the rating process, the instructors conducted a rater norming session to establish a consensus on the use of the rubric and to ensure inter-rater reliability. The final grade for each essay was determined as the mean of the two scores assigned by the instructors and was utilized in the subsequent analyses. In cases where the two raters disagreed by three points or more on a given essay, they collaboratively re-evaluated the paper and reached a final consensus. The inter-rater reliability between the two raters was assessed using the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient, yielding a strong positive relationship between the two raters, as evidenced by the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient of .967 (see Table 4).

Participants' performances on the argumentative writing task and their responses to each item in the MKWS were scored and entered into the IBM SPSS 25.0 software package for conducting the

correlation analyses. This statistical analysis aimed to determine whether a significant relationship existed between writing achievement and metacognitive knowledge about writing.

Table 4. Inter-rater reliability

	Correlation Coefficient	%95 Confidence interval	p
Raters	0.967	0.953-0.977	<0.001**

**Correlation is significant at 0.001.

     The third and final research question sought to explore the components of Turkish EFL writers' knowledge regarding the three facets of metacognitive knowledge. To gain deeper insights into students' metacognition related to writing, qualitative data were collected through retrospective interviews. A content analysis approach was employed to elucidate and interpret the qualitative data.

     In the content analysis process, data from each interview were meticulously examined using a bottom-up approach. Transcriptions of the interviews were initially coded, and these codes were linked to predetermined categories, primarily based on the metacognitive framework proposed by previous researchers (including Flavell, 1985; Brown, 1987; Schraw & Moshman, 1995). The central category, metacognitive knowledge, encompassed references to the subcategories of person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategy knowledge.

Table 5. The relations between research questions and data collection instruments

Research Questions	Data Collection Instruments	Data Analyses
RQ1. What is the breadth and depth of metacognitive knowledge about writing among Turkish EFL learners, with a particular focus on the person, task, and strategy variables?	Metacognitive Knowledge about Writing Survey (MKWS)	A descriptive analysis of each of the variables concerning metacognitive knowledge about writing
RQ2. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the writing achievements of EFL learners and their metacognitive knowledge about writing?	Argumentative essay writing tasks Metacognitive Knowledge about Writing Survey (MKWS)	A correlation analysis
RQ3. What are the specific constituents that make up the understanding of Turkish EFL writers concerning the person, task, and strategy variables in the context of writing?	Retrospective interviews	A content analysis

     Subsequently, a comprehensive list comprising all coded data was compiled, and codes with similar characteristics were grouped into broader units, forming the main themes. To assess the reliability of the content analysis process in consistently placing codes into themes and categories, another experienced EFL instructor from the same institution analyzed the codes within four randomly selected student transcriptions. The inter-rater agreement on the classification of references for the categories of metacognitive knowledge was determined to be 94%. Any disparities in the classification were reviewed, and the two raters reached a final consensus.

     This rigorous content analysis approach allowed for a systematic examination of the qualitative data, ensuring that the themes and categories accurately represented the participants' metacognitive knowledge about writing.

FINDINGS

The study's findings are presented in alignment with the specific research questions that were posed in the study. This organized approach allows for a clear and systematic presentation of the research outcomes.

Quantitative Results

Research question 1

Table 6 provides an overview of the participants' metacognitive knowledge across three dimensions: person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategy knowledge. The analysis begins with an examination of the mean scores for all participants collectively.

The average level of metacognitive knowledge for the person variables subscale was found to be 3.8501, with a standard deviation of 0.68750. Similarly, the participants exhibited an average level of metacognitive knowledge for the strategy variables subscale, with a mean score of 3.8376 and a standard deviation of 0.51088. In contrast, the participants demonstrated a high level of metacognitive knowledge for the task variables subscale, with a mean score of 4.4506 and a standard deviation of 0.5304.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics of mean scores of MKWS subscales

			MKWS Subscales				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Grouped Median
High-performing group							
Person Knowledge	36	4.1667	.53080	4.2083	2.58	5.33	4.1944
Task Knowledge	36	4.6068	.4589	4.6000	3.70	5.40	4.600
Strategy Knowledge	36	4.0866	.46010	4.0192	2.96	5.27	4.0192
Average-Performing Group							
Person Knowledge	44	3.7361	.77190	3.8333	1.67	5.42	3.8333
Task Knowledge	44	4.3576	.4956	4.3667	3.40	5.20	4.3667
Strategy Knowledge	44	3.8471	.48900	3.8189	2.68	4.88	3.8098
Low-Performing Group							
Person Knowledge	40	3.6905	.63176	3.7083	2.33	5.00	3.7083
Task Knowledge	40	4.4123	.6041	4.4500	3.00	6.00	4.4667
Strategy Knowledge	40	3.6031	.47858	3.5769	2.62	4.65	3.5769
Total							
Person Knowledge	120	3.8501	.68750	3.9167	1.67	5.42	3.9524
Task Knowledge	120	4.4506	.5304	4.5000	3.00	6.00	4.5056
Strategy Knowledge	120	3.8376	.51088	3.8462	2.62	5.27	3.8654

These findings offer a comprehensive picture of the participants' metacognitive knowledge across the three dimensions, highlighting their relative strengths and weaknesses in each area.

The study's findings provide support for the notion that instruction in any aspect of metacognitive knowledge can have a positive impact on the writing performance of L2 learners, as suggested by Kasper (1997). It is worth noting that the participants in this study did not receive explicit instruction on self-knowledge as writers or knowledge about appropriate writing strategies.

However, they did receive instruction on the conventions and organizational rules of English written discourse and were guided on what they should do when writing in specific genres, which implies that they received instruction on certain dimensions of task knowledge. Based on these findings, it can be argued that while the participants' writing practices and experiences as EFL writers contributed to their moderate level of self-awareness as writers and their familiarity with self-regulatory strategies, the instruction on task knowledge may have heightened their awareness of this particular aspect of metacognition.

To explore whether the extent of participants' metacognitive knowledge varied across writing proficiency groups, the mean scores of the three MKWS subscales were analyzed for high-performing, average-performing, and low-performing writers individually. The results revealed slight differences among these groups in terms of their metacognitive knowledge, supporting the claims made by Harris et al. (2010) and Kasper (1997) that students with higher proficiency in writing tend to possess a greater level of metacognitive awareness about writing.

Specifically, high-performing writers exhibited higher mean scores across all three subscales, with a mean score of 4.1667 for person variables (SD = 0.53080), 4.6068 for task variables (SD = 0.4589), and 4.0866 for strategy variables (SD = 0.46010). This indicates that they were more aware of the person, task, and strategy aspects of their writing compared to their AP and LP peers. Average-performing writers displayed mean scores of 3.7361 (SD = 0.77190) for person variables, 4.3576 (SD = 0.4956) for task variables, and 3.8471 (SD = 0.48900) for strategy variables. Their metacognitive knowledge fell in between that of high-performing and low-performing writers, demonstrating a moderate level of awareness within the three subscales.

Low-performing writers had mean scores of 3.6905 (SD = 0.63176) for person variables, 4.4123 (SD = 0.6041) for task variables, and 3.6031 (SD = 0.47858) for strategy variables. Their metacognitive knowledge was generally similar to that of average-performing writers, indicating a comparable level of awareness across the three subscales.

These findings provide valuable insights into how writing proficiency levels relate to metacognitive knowledge, suggesting that higher proficiency in writing is associated with greater metacognitive awareness across multiple dimensions of writing.

Research question 2

To address the second research question regarding the relationship between Turkish EFL learners' writing achievement and their metacognitive knowledge about writing, a correlation analysis was conducted. This analysis aimed to determine the strength of the relationship between students' performance in argumentative writing tasks and their responses on the MKWS. The participants' writing achievement was assessed by averaging the scores provided by two independent raters. Table 7 presents an overview of the participants' overall writing achievement.

Table 7. Participants' English writing achievement

N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Grouped Median
120	15.1479	4.04199	15.0000	5.00	23.50	15.0385

The results of the correlation analysis, as shown in Table 8, revealed several key findings regarding the relationship between students' writing achievement (average scores on argumentative writing tasks) and their metacognitive knowledge about writing as measured by the MKWS. The analysis aimed to determine whether there were statistically significant correlations between these variables and to what extent they were related.

There was a weak positive correlation (r = 0.307) between students' writing achievement and their person knowledge. However, this correlation was not statistically significant (p > 0.05), indicating that there was no conclusive evidence of a relationship between person knowledge and writing achievement. The Pearson correlation coefficient for task knowledge was 0.157, suggesting a very weak positive correlation. Similar to person knowledge, this correlation was not statistically significant (p > 0.05), indicating that task knowledge did not show a significant relationship with writing achievement. There was a weak positive correlation (r = 0.373) between students' writing

achievement and their strategy knowledge. However, like the other dimensions, this correlation was not statistically significant (p > 0.05), suggesting that strategy knowledge did not have a significant relationship with writing achievement.

Table 8. Correlations between writing achievement and MKWS subscales

	Writing Achievement		
	r	p	N
Person Variables	0.307	>0.05*	120
Task Variables	0.157	>0.05*	120
Strategy Variables	0.373	>0.05*	120

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

In summary, the correlation analysis indicated that there were weak positive correlations between students' writing achievement and their person knowledge and strategy knowledge, but these correlations were not statistically significant. Additionally, there was no statistically significant relationship between task knowledge and writing achievement. These findings suggest that, in this study, metacognitive knowledge about writing (in terms of person, task, and strategy knowledge) did not significantly impact students' writing achievement.

In summary, these findings suggest a positive but relatively modest relationship between the writing achievement of EFL students and their awareness of both the person and strategy variables. However, this relationship did not demonstrate the strength typically found in prior research, which often indicated a robust connection between students' writing performance and their metacognitive knowledge, including its various components (Devine et al., 1993; Kasper, 1997; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). It is worth noting that assessing participants' writing achievement solely through their argumentative essays, within a limited timeframe, may have introduced unexpected variables into the research results. Previous studies have revealed that writing skills can vary significantly depending on the genre, and a single form of writing may not adequately represent a writer's overall proficiency. In other words, participants' performance in argumentative essays might not accurately reflect their true writing abilities, potentially leading to misconceptions about their writing skills and, consequently, the strength of the relationship between metacognitive knowledge and writing achievement.

Qualitative Results

Research question 3

An in-depth analysis of students' perceptions regarding their identity as writers, the writing tasks they engaged in, and the strategies they were familiar with provided valuable insights into potential improvements in their writing processes and addressing their needs as EFL writers. Table 9 offers an overview of the themes that emerged within each category for high-performing, average-performing, and low-performing writers.

Upon a detailed examination of the interview data from high-performing and average-performing writers, seven themes emerged under the category of person knowledge, four themes under the category of task knowledge, and six themes under the category of strategy knowledge (see Table 9). The themes derived from the low-performing group's data were consistent with those of the high-performing and average-performing groups concerning the task and strategy variables. Regarding the person variable, six themes were common to all groups, but the theme related to person-related factors positively affecting writing performance did not appear in the data from low-performing writers.

These themes identified from the interview discussions for each component of metacognitive knowledge align with descriptions provided by previous scholars and researchers (Ruan, 2005; You & Joe, 2001). In essence, interviewees' person knowledge encompassed their awareness of factors, both

positive and negative, related to themselves that influenced their writing performance, their self-efficacy beliefs and self-concepts, as well as their goals and efforts aimed at enhancing their English writing skills. Their task knowledge included their awareness of factors tied to the writing task that impacted their performance, the challenges they encountered during writing, and the criteria and attributes of well-crafted texts. Lastly, their strategy knowledge involved their awareness of their goal objectives, their planning, monitoring, revising, and editing strategies, as well as the criteria they used for self-evaluation.

Table 9. Themes for the core category of metacognitive knowledge about writing

Categories	Themes for HP writers (n=11)	Themes for AP writers (n=15)	Themes for LP writers (n=9)
Person Knowledge	1.Person-related factors affecting writing performance negatively	1. Person-related factors affecting writing performance negatively	1.Person-related factors affecting writing performance negatively
	2.Person-related factors affecting writing performance positively	2. Person-related factors affecting writing performance positively	-
	3.Self-efficacy beliefs regarding writing performance	3. Self-efficacy beliefs regarding writing performance	2.Self-efficacy beliefs regarding writing performance
	4. Awareness of strengths	4. Awareness of strengths	3. Awareness of strengths
	5. Awareness of weaknesses	5. Awareness of weaknesses	4. Awareness of weaknesses
	6. Endeavours to improve English writing	6. Endeavours to improve English writing	5. Endeavours to improve English writing
	7. Goals to learn English writing	7. Goals to learn English writing	6. Goals to learn English writing
Task Knowledge	1.Task-related factors affecting writing performance	1. Task-related factors affecting writing performance	1. Task-related factors affecting writing performance
	2. Challenges in completing a writing task	2. Challenges in completing a writing task	2. Challenges in completing a writing task
	3.Awareness of task requirements	3. Awareness of task requirements	3. Awareness of task requirements
	4. Features of a good piece of writing	4. Features of a good piece of writing	4. Features of a good piece of writing
Strategy Knowledge	1. Objectives of writing goals	1. Objectives of writing goals	1. Objectives of writing goals
	2. Planning ahead of writing	2. Planning ahead of writing	2. Planning ahead of writing
	3. Monitoring while writing	3. Monitoring while writing	3. Monitoring while writing
	4. Revising	4. Revising	4. Revising
	5. Editing	5. Editing	5. Editing
	6. Criteria for self-evaluation	6. Criteria for self-evaluation	6. Criteria for self-evaluation

The findings from the content analyses align with the results of the descriptive analysis, highlighting differences in the extent of participants' person and strategy knowledge, while indicating similarities in the extent of their task knowledge.

To provide more specific insights, trühe codes that emerged from the data of the high-performing and average-performing groups related to person knowledge were more numerous compared to those that emerged from the data of the low-performing group. This finding confirms a reciprocal relationship between students' writing achievement and their level of person knowledge. In other words, higher-achieving writers demonstrated a more comprehensive understanding of person-related factors influencing their writing performance.

Although the emerging codes related to strategy knowledge were relatively similar among all three groups of writers, there were notable differences in the frequency of occurrence. This discrepancy suggests distinct tendencies among writers with varying levels of writing competency when it comes to their awareness of writing strategies. However, it is important to note that regardless of their writing achievement scores, participants in all groups mentioned very similar aspects of task knowledge. This indicates that their understanding of task-related factors affecting writing performance was consistent across different proficiency levels.

In summary, these findings underline the significance of person knowledge and strategy knowledge in influencing writing achievement, with higher-achieving writers demonstrating a more developed understanding of these aspects. However, all participants, regardless of their proficiency, exhibited a similar level of awareness when it came to task knowledge.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Concluding Remarks and Pedagogical Implications

The present study utilized an explanatory sequential mixed methods methodology to explore the extent of metacognitive awareness among Turkish students learning English as a foreign language, particularly in the context of English writing. The study involved 120 Turkish EFL students at the B2 proficiency level. To assess the participants' metacognitive comprehension regarding aspects such as individual attributes, task characteristics, and strategic approaches, a questionnaire was distributed. Furthermore, in-depth interviews were carried out with 35 participants to enhance and provide deeper insights into the quantitative results. The instruments employed in this study provided valuable insights and significantly contributed to our understanding of the EFL writing process among Turkish tertiary-level students. The quantitative findings demonstrated that proficient writers possessed higher levels of person, task, and strategy knowledge compared to their average or lower-performing counterparts. The qualitative content analysis, predominantly favoring the high-performing group, further substantiated these results. Consequently, it can be concluded that there exists a significant relationship between students' writing performance and their metacognitive knowledge, particularly in terms of person and strategy knowledge.

One of the study's most noteworthy findings was that Turkish EFL students exhibited an average level of person and strategy knowledge even in the absence of explicit metacognitive instruction. The content analysis results aligned with these findings, highlighting differences in the extent of person and strategy knowledge among high-performing, average-performing, and low-performing writers, while showing similarities in their task knowledge. This suggests that the content covered in their writing classes primarily contributed to their strong task knowledge. These findings imply that when students are exposed to direct or indirect metacognitive instruction, their person and strategy knowledge may also improve.

Considering the study's outcomes, several pedagogical implications for EFL writing instruction can be drawn, along with suggestions for integrating metacognition into EFL writing courses. Metacognition can be imparted to students through various techniques and activities, including teacher modeling, thinking aloud, maintaining reflective journals, planning and self-regulation, debriefing the thinking process, self-evaluation, self-questioning, and self-reflection (Blakey & Spence, 1990; Hartman, 2001b; Öz, 2005; Schraw, 1998; Wong & Storey, 2006). Cooperative learning opportunities, such as peer interaction, peer consultation, group work, and discussions, play an essential role in cultivating metacognition (Schraw, 1998).

In conclusion, a versatile approach that encompasses a range of activities is recommended to cater to diverse writer needs and learning styles in different educational contexts. To promote self-regulation and autonomy among EFL writers, instructors should assist them in acquiring new metacognitive skills and engage them in a wide array of metacognitive activities.

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What is up with English: A Needs Analysis for Music Students

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Abstract: The use of English throughout the world as an international language and English as a lingua franca (ELF) make it necessary to learn English at a level competent enough to build effective and appropriate communication. In this respect, this research aims to investigate the needs of Turkish music students in English courses at a state university in Türkiye. The study was designed as a descriptive study, and the participants were chosen by using convenience sampling. The needs analysis questionnaire was administered to the students, and focus group interviews were conducted with the students and the instructor. The qualitative data from the questionnaire and interview were analyzed by using a constant-comparative method derived from grounded theory with coding procedures. The quantitative data in the questionnaires were presented with the frequencies. The findings indicate that the learners seem eager to learn English and need English for communication and academic purposes. Nevertheless, they may not have the necessary qualifications and strategies as a language learner. Some pedagogical suggestions will be presented for language instructors and policymakers.
Keywords: *Needs analysis, EFL learners, Music students, Language learning, ELF*

INTRODUCTION

The rising importance of English as a foreign language all around the world seems very obvious. Harmer (2007, p. 13) clarifies that at the conclusion of the twentieth century "English was already well on its way to becoming a genuine *lingua franca,* that is a language used widely for communication between people who do not share the same first (or even second) language". The education field has its share of this trend and it will not come as a surprise for both learners and educators to have a desire for proficiency in English language. The situation is the same in our country and the Turkish educators and learners need to communicate appropriately and effectively on an international level in order to keep up with today's world. In the classrooms, there are many students with a variety of expectations for learning English. It should not be neglected that these students have different backgrounds related to learning English in addition to learning styles and motivation. Therefore, it is essential to look into the needs of the learners in order to provide a rich learning environment for them.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a lingua franca (ELF)

Second language acquisition (SLA) process has undergone many changes since the 1980s. Previously, the focus was put on accuracy and language usage to a great extent. However, with the development of communicative language teaching, a moment of perspective shift towards language,

activities, teacher and learner roles was experienced. Unlike grammatical competence which emphasizes "the knowledge we have of a language that accounts for our ability to produce sentences in a language", communicative competence is composed of such language knowledge (Richards, 2006, p. 3):

- Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions
- Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication)
- Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations)
- Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies)

With respect to different aspects of language knowledge, communicative language teaching (CLT) focuses on the use of language for communication and interaction in alliance with communicative competence. Dörnyei (2009, p. 276) highlights with a regard to CLT that "the central theme of the approach is to underscore the importance of meaningful communication and usable communicative skills in L2 instruction". Therefore, we as educators need to "explore pedagogical means for "real-life" communication in the classroom" (Brown, 2001, p. 42). Common European Framework of References (CEFR) sheds light on an important need for students to turn their learning into real-life practice to become fluent and proficient language users (CoE, 2001).But how? Harris (1969, p. 9) indicates "language includes four skills, or complexes of skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It is perhaps in this order that we originally learned our native language, and it is in that order that foreign languages are now frequently taught". According to Dörnyei (2009, p. 20), "naturalistic SLA is embedded in authentic, real-life situations, whose language-specific characteristics have been described in the past by theories of acculturation and intergroup contact".

On the other hand, the situation gets complicated when it comes to education in schools since many variables occur during language learning. Dörnyei (2009, p. 20) emphasizes that "the educational setting of instructed SLA has been described by means of a completely different set of factors such as teacher and student roles, classroom management, inter-student relations and interaction patterns, group norms, classroom goal structures, and group cohesiveness …". From another point of view, it may not be always feasible to have experience to use language outside the classroom due to English as a second language (ESL) and EFL issues. Regarding this, according to Kachru (1985), there are three concentric circles of World Englishes: the inner circle, the outer circle, and the expanding circle. Kachru (2008, p. 522) reveals that the characterization of world Englishes is primarily based on the following factors:

. the history of the types of spread and motivation for the location of the language
. patterns of acquisition
. societal depth of the language in terms of its users, and the range of functions that are assigned to the English medium at various levels in the language policies of a nation (e.g., in administration, education, and literacy)

He adds that "the three circles are not static, but dynamic and changing" (Kachru, 2008, p. 522). The inner circle involves mainly but not merely "the L1 speakers of varieties of English: Britain, United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand" (Kachru, 2008, p. 522). The outer circle comprises "the major Anglophone countries of Africa and Asia, including India, Nigeria, the Philippines, Singapore, and South Africa" (Kachru, 2008, p. 522). Lastly, the expanding circle contains "China, Taiwan, Korea, and Saudi Arabia" (Kachru, 2008, p. 522). Kachru (1985) comments that the inner, outer, and expanding circles represent English as the primary language, an official or widely-used second language, and a foreign language. In respect to this situation, Türkiye can be listed under the expanding circle because English is taught in Türkiye as an EFL. Nevertheless, the distinction between English "as a second language or foreign language may not be so easy to define

because many communities are multilingual and English is a language of communication" (Harmer, 2007, p. 19).

Moving on to consider motivation, it has been found to affect the rate and success of language learning and is considered the main incentive to start language learning and maintain the language learning process (Dörnyei, 1998). According to Dörnyei (1998, p. 131), "motivation is indeed a multifaceted rather than a uniform factor". As was pointed out above, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 4) indicate that motivation is a complex term to define, nonetheless, "the only thing about motivation most researchers would agree on is that it, by definition, concerns the *direction* and *magnitude* of human behavior". In addition, they add that "motivation is responsible for *why* people decide to do something, *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, and *how hard* they are going to pursue it" (2011, p. 4). What is more, it should be noted that some differences in people's inclinations may occur in terms of attributing their success outcomes to ability and/ or effort (Weiner, 1972). Considering the fact that the attribution process emerges to be a prominent stimulant of learning and performance in the classes, there should be attempts to create appropriate (achievement-enhancing) attributions for students (Weiner, 1972). Furthermore, it is highly important to create a pleasant and supportive class environment because language learning is quite a challenging process and might cause anxiety among learners (Dörnyei, 2001).

Needs Analysis of Music Students in English Courses

In such a multivariable and delicate process as language learning, conducting a needs analysis becomes necessary for teachers and learners. According to Nunan (1988, p. 75), needs analysis is composed of "a family of procedures for gathering information about learners and about communication tasks for use in syllabus design". West (1997, p. 68) brings our attention to the fact that the concept of 'analysis of needs' emerged while Michael West was" trying to establish *why* learners should learn English (answer: in order to read) and *how* they should learn English (answer: through reading)".According to West (1997), a good needs analysis procedure should involve such requirements as transparency (thoroughness, accuracy, involvement, and transparency), being repeatable during the course (regular revision of the analysis to take account of evolving needs), being learner-centered (learners' stated preferences in terms of both language and learning styles), taking account of both target situation needs and learners' present deficiencies (present language proficiency and target needs), establishing a syllabus by indicating learning/teaching priorities (an indication of syllabus content giving an estimate of learning/teaching priorities), being related to the target situation/real world rather than linguistic categories, and being credible to learners and sponsors (transparency and common language).

Up to now, there have been some investigations into the needs of music students in English courses. Dai, Wu, and Dai (2015) investigate the relationship among motivation, learning styles, and English proficiency by collecting data from three hundred and eight students studying English as EFL at Xinghai Conservatory of Music in China. The results indicate that music students do not differ statistically in motivation to learn English, unlike learning styles and English proficiency. The researchers advise to reform College English courses in Chinese conservatories with regard to grouping methods and course content, which is, a shift towards English for specific purposes from general purposes.

Dewi (2017) designs a qualitative study to investigate students' needs and develop ESP learning materials for students of music department and found out that general English material is less specific for music students. Hence, the researcher develops an ESP learning material as a supplementary material so that music students can experience a more effective language learning process by taking into account task based language instruction approach.

Hapsari (2015) conducts a needs analysis for music students and decides to carry out a project-based approach which is to write English song lyrics. The researcher chooses this project due to being

more learner-centered and promoting active learning. Hapsari (2015, p. 140) adds that proficiency in English for music students is highly important because music students "need English as their active support to communicate with overseas partners and to get the International links as musicians". The study uses a qualitative method, and the data are collected from thirty students via observation, questionnaires, video recording, and student writing. Music students think that English is important for them because it is an international language used worldwide. Additionally, they state that they can transmit and distribute their activities with others and create more opportunities for improving their abilities and expertise thanks to English since it is one of the most prominent communication methods. Furthermore, they think that it is a need for musicians to have English proficiency so that they can enhance and reinforce their knowledge and understanding related to music. They also express that they need English in order to be able to get knowledgeable about music literatures, and its development. As a result, the project can be found beneficial in improving music students' free writing and brainstorming; supporting students to be actively involved in language use; becoming active learners; practicing such language skills and areas as reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, vocabulary; promoting cooperative learning.

Wakeland (2013) demonstrates the development of English for specific academic purposes with a needs analysis comprised of consultations with subject specialists from the Department of Music, research into writing about music, a collaborative teaching project and analysis of seventeen music students' writing. Wakeland (2013) mentions the difficulty of designing this course due to the fact that there is a scarcity of research for English language needs of music students. As a result of the needs analysis, there are such key observations from the needs analysis as (Wakeland, 2013, pp. 55-56):

"a lack of transfer of academic writing concepts taught in a first-year general academic writing course" and "the highly technical and abstract nature of writing about music and the careful balancing of technicality and figurative language in a good piece of writing about music".

After examining the results of this needs analysis, the researcher develops a course of which center is "the English registers and genres used in the field of music and the language that students will need as music majors" by contributing to students' communication efficiently about music via various written and spoken formats (Wakeland, 2013, p. 56).

Wolfe (2006) mentions the difficulties for international students coming to Australia to study music from the perspective of proficiency in English language. The students must pass audition either live or via recording to get access to a music program. Following this, the students have to get English language proficiency made a requirement by the university, which comprises General English, English for Academic Purposes courses.

Taking all these into consideration, it can be easily recognized that English has become the lingua franca for travel, tourism, international communication, academic discourse, conferences, journal articles (Harmer, 2007). Nonetheless, it is not clear whether the learners' and the faculty members' opinions are taken into consideration during language learning and teaching process, which should be seen crucial since there may be individual differences and different objective for language learning among students. There is a paucity of research investigating the needs of music students in English language (Wakeland, 2013). In regard to this, the aim of this study is to find out the needs of Turkish music students in English courses. The research question is as below:

- What are the needs of Turkish music students in English courses at a state university in Türkiye?

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study aims to determine Turkish music students' needs in English courses. The study was designed as a cross-sectional survey because the purpose of the study is "to collect information from a sample that has been drawn from a predetermined population" (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011, p. 394). The pre-determined population is the instructor and freshman students of a state university in Türkiye.

Context and Participants

The present study was conducted at a state university in Türkiye in 2019. It is mandatory to take Foreign Language I and II during the first year of the bachelor education according to Council of Higher Education (CoHE) in its Higher Education Law published in 1991. In Foreign Language I course, the students are expected to gain knowledge towards such skills of language as talking about general events, repeated actions and what people do regularly and are doing right now (to introduce themselves, to give the directions of a place, to ask and answer personal questions, etc.) in addition to reading (to read timetables, shopping labels, etc.), writing (to write a short message, to design a poster, to fill a form, etc.), and listening (to give directions, to introduce a person/a place, etc). In the second term, the students are to take Foreign Language Course II. During this course, the students should practice speaking (to ask and answer questions at the restaurants, to order food, to make predictions, to express abilities and necessities, to make requests, etc.), writing (to write a short message, to describe a location in a written form, to write e-mail/invitation letter, etc.), reading (Internet weather forecasts, recipe, poster information), and listening (weather forecast, recipe, etc.) about past and future events.

The study participants are composed of one instructor and five freshman students studying at a state university in Türkiye using convenience sampling. "A convenience sample is a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study" (Fraenkel et al. 2011, p. 99). The participants were chosen based on the willingness principles. The researcher gave detailed information about the scope of the study and asked the participants to sign a consent form prior to the study. The participants were assured that they can withdraw from the study any time they want and their names will be kept anonymous. The researcher adhered to the Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Statements for Higher Education Institutions, and none of the actions listed under the section titled "Actions Contrary to Scientific Research and Publication Ethics" were carried out during the research.

Data Collection Tools

Data were collected via a questionnaire and interview questions. The questionnaire was adapted from Nunan (1988). The questionnaire is composed of questions requiring objective and subjective data towards the learner along with questions of tasks. Objective and subjective data are utilized in order to recognize the learner, also called learner analysis. Objective data is about "factual information which does not require the attitudes and views of the learners to be taken into account" while subjective data involves "the perceptions, goals, and priorities of the learners" (Nunan, 1988, p. 18). Task analysis on the other hand is carried out to "specify and categorize the language skills required to carry out real-world communicative tasks" (Nunan, 1988, p. 18). Interview questions were designed by taking into consideration the points in Nunan (1988) in order to obtain more in depth data from the participants. The interview is composed of two parts: needs analysis towards the learner and the task. Both the interview and the questionnaire were presented to the experts and expert opinions were taken. After this process, the researcher collected data from the participants.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data collected in the questionnaires and interviews were analyzed by using content analysis. Fraenkel et al. (2011, p. 436) clarify content analysis as "extremely useful as a means of analysing interview and observational data". The procedure followed in analyzing the data was to use coding procedures. Some pre-determined themes were used to categorize the learners' needs based on Nunan's (1988) schema for needs analysis as towards the learner and the task. For the learner, (1) learner profile and (2) learner goals were used. For the task, (1) views toward (SLA), (2) learning environment, (3) teaching program, and (4) measurement and evaluation were applied. For the quantitative data in the questionnaires, the answers were categorized based on their frequency.

In the analysis of the interviews, some pre-determined themes were utilized in order to categorize music students' needs in their English courses. These themes were (1) learner profile, (2) learner goals, (3) SLA, (4) learning environment, (5) out of class activities, (6) teaching program, and (7) measurement and evaluation.

According to Fraenkel et al. (2011) credibility is often used in qualitative studies to explain both instrument validity and reliability and internal validity. Two different data collection instruments were applied in order to triangulate the data. The researcher asked one of the participants to review the accuracy of the research report in order to enhance the validity and reliability of the data.

FINDINGS

Findings from the Questionnaire

The questionnaire starts with the personal information towards the learner (department, age, gender, native language, proficiency in English, year of experience and institution in learning English). It is clear from the answers that three students are studying in the Music Theory department and two in the Musicology department. Their age ranges from eighteen to twenty-two: two is eighteen, one is nineteen, one is twenty-one, and one is twenty-two. While three of the learners are male, two are female. Everybody's native language is Turkish. They see their proficiency in English as A1 (two of them), A2 (two of them), and B1 (one of them). The learner with B1 clarifies that it is the learner's second university and the participant had preparatory class at the first university. They have experienced learning English for quite a long time. One of them tells that it has been ten years while the other two explains that it has been twelve years. Two of the participants clarify that they have been learning English since secondary school. Lastly, they all agree that they have been learning English in the school.

The following part is about their preferences in learning English via reading, writing, listening, and speaking and the reasons for their favorite choices. All four participants prefer reading, writing, listening, and speaking practice in learning English. When it comes to choosing their favorites, one of them clarifies that *"all of them. Because they are all useful"*. Three participants prefer listening and speaking *"because this is the most useful and easiest way to communicate with other people using this language"* and *"because I think that is more practical and useful"*. One learner prefers writing *"because I think that writing makes my learning more long-lasting"*.

Commenting on whether the learners like studying grammar, learning new words, and practicing sounds and pronunciation and again their favorite ones with the reasons in the second part, three participants like studying grammar and learning new words as their favorite *"because this is the easiest way to describe an object or event that I want"* and *"because I believe that it increases curiosity"*. One participant chooses learning new words and practicing sounds and pronunciation as a favorite activity *"because I believe that they teach me by having me love English"*. Another learner likes all of them equally *"because I think that they are all necessary for learning a language"*.

Another question is whether they like learning English through cassettes, games, talking to English speakers, studying English books, and watching TV and to talk about which is the most important for them. Two of them circle cassettes and games. Three of them prefer speaking to English speakers and watching TV. One of them chooses studying English books. For the most important ones, three of them agree upon talking to English speakers because *"I think it is easier and faster"* and *"I think that this is the most useful and fun way to learn English"*. One of the participants chooses watching TV because *"it is more memorable"* and one of them thinks that studying English books and watching TV are the favorites because *"we can turn learning into a pleasure"*.

Following this, the participants' opinions towards four skills in English language learning are gathered. For reading skill, they are asked whether they can use a dictionary. Two of them answer as a little while one of them answers as neither a little nor very well but something like average. The researcher wants them to answer what the participants can read in English like simple stories, newspapers, forms (bank, post office, and consumer electronics show), advertisements (shopping, housing, employment), bus timetables, maps/directories, and school notes. Additionally, they are asked which ones are the most important to learn at the moment. One of them answers newspaper while another says it is articles, which is not on the list. One clarifies all are important. Another chooses newspaper as the most important because *"I think that the newspaper has both daily and academic language and concepts"*. One participant mentions the materials used during the course which is not on the list, either.

For writing skills, the participants are asked whether they ever write letters, notes to teachers and fill in forms and which one is the most important to learn now. One of them answers that it is writing notes to teachers while another says filling in forms. Again, one of them says that it is articles which are not on the list. Another's answer is letters and filling in forms. One of the participants prefers none as the most important.

In the next part, the participants are asked with whom they speak English such as shop assistants, neighbors and friends, bus drivers, medical people, teachers, employers, and others along with the reasons indicating which one is the most important for the participants at the moment. Furthermore, the participants talk about the percentage with a regard to how much English they understand. Three participants comment that they talk to neighbors and friends. Four of them talk to teachers in English and two of them indicate their choice as others. Three of them clarify that they understand a little while two of them understand a lot during their English speaking. Two of the participants prefer teachers to talk English because *"we may not have the chance to learn in a principled way from other people"* and *"this will be much easier if the teachers are open to chat and affectionate. True and false answers can be detected and it becomes a fast process"*. One of the participants' choice is *"to make a dialogue with people speaking a foreign language or to learn grammar from a book"*. Another participant highlights that *"I would like to learn from someone whose native language is English. I think that it is going to be more superficial and understandable"* and another comments that *"maybe, I can do a presentation abroad"*. Commenting on whether they watch TV, four say *"yes"* and one of them adds *"with subtitles"*. When it comes to listening to radio, two say *"yes"* whereas one says *"no"*. In their accounts of the percentage with a regard to how much they understand, three participants' answer is *"a little"*, one participant gives a percentage of 65, 75%. Another emphasizes that it may *"a little"* or *"a lot"* because *"it depends on the simplicity of the dialogue"*.

In the following part, the question is about how they learn best, namely, alone, pairs, small group, class, and outside the class with a range of answers varying never, a little, good and best. For learning alone, two answers are never and best for each of them while one answer is a little. When it comes to pairs, four answers are good and one answer is best. For small group preference, one answer is a little and good for each of them and two answers are best. With a regard to learning as a class, one answer is never, three answers are a little. Lastly, for outside the class preference, one answer is a little and best for each of them and two answers are good.

In the final part of the questionnaire, the participants are asked about the most important things for them to learn in the short term and long term. They do not want to write by one by here and prefer talking about this topic in the interview. Following is about the time they spend for studying English with an answer range from per day to per week. One answers per day while another spends three days in a week. Three participants clarify that they spend per week. The final part pertains to where they would like to study: independent learning centers and homes. Three participants for each would like to study English at independent learning centers and homes.

Findings from the Interview

Learner profile

All five participants acknowledge that they have had English courses in their formal education for years ranging from secondary school to university: *"I have been having English courses since secondary school but never took it seriously. Maybe, the education system was wrong. Except that I know a few things, it is not well (Par1)"*; *"I started taking English courses in the fourth grade and it continued during high school. Also, I was at a different university beforehand and had a preparatory class there and was successful at finishing the program (Par3)"*; *"I have been taking English courses since secondary school. The courses were not generally taken seriously so they were mostly scarcely taught and studied. We did not take the course seriously because our high school was a fine arts school. Hence, I can say that it is bad (Par2)"*. It can be clearly seen from the remarks that except a student with an English preparatory class experience, their history with learning English and the ability to use English is not satisfying for the students. Additionally, the instructor clarifies that the learners are not very aware of language learning process and their level is not high: *"Their motivation was satisfying. They think that they need to learn English, they have this awareness. On the other hand, what they are not aware of is what needs to be done to learn. They do not have that much conscious to take steps for language learning process. They have the motivation nevertheless they do not know how to study and succeed. Their level is mostly elementary except one or two students with a preparatory class experience"*.

Learner goals

When the students are asked about their goals for language learning, they emphasize that they need English for academic purposes, communication, and international exchange programs like Erasmus mostly: *"It is very important academically because department of musicology is connected to abroad not Türkiye. And we have to be certainly in communication with people. We need to be able to write articles like essays (Par5)"*; *"I would like to analyze a sentence and understand what the teacher says. We do not know what is going to happen in the future maybe an opportunity for abroad. After all, this is what we do. Maybe, we will never go abroad but if we do, it can be necessary everywhere because ours is a social job (Par5)"*; *"I want to learn English for Erasmus the most. I can never find any book sources in Turkish. All of them are in English and I encounter them at various occasions. Actually, I think that I will need English when I go to any place (Par1)"*. The instructor explains clearly that though the students are very aware of ELF, there are some departmental differences in their perspective: *"Not only our students but also everyone knows that learning English is a global need. Some are aware of the fact that their needs related to education are based on the foreign sources at some point. We have students of music technologies and there are few books in Turkish about music technologies. They are the studies of particular teachers and mostly translations from English. As a result, the resources are abroad and to great extent in English. Students of music technologies are highly aware of that. We have two musicology students at present and they certainly know that they are going to need something like discourse analysis from foreign sources. Students of music theory are a bit behind this awareness because there are some core performers in this department and they give their full concentration on that instrument, which puts foreign language behind. The awareness occurs among technology students the most, musicology the second, and theory the third (Ins)"*. The instructor adds that the students are going to need English for international

exchange programs and academical life though they may not have that awareness right now: *"When we come to talk about graduate programs, the need urges more and more. For now, due to the fact that they are freshman, they do not hold the capability what kind of texts they are going to have to decipher and write. There is going to be that kind of necessity and we have a course for this, Vocational English. Besides this, they may have opportunities for Erasmus. Our university does not have international students right now. However, in the following years I think that students from different nationalities are going to come. I believe that this is going to be a tremendous source of motivation since somehow they are going to be friends and share things, which, I believe, is going to be motivating a lot. For Erasmus, they are also going to need English because there are some interviews conducted for the application and there are some authorities coming directly from Turkish National Agency"*.

Second Language Acquisition

The students are knowledgeable and aware enough about SLA concept and think that learning a language is not only about the language and is like a new world: *"I think that learning a language is a very nice and useful thing. According to me, learning a language is not just fixed to the language. When you master a language, we can learn everything about the society in connection with that language like culture, songs, history, stories, everything. The language is not a concept that can be oversimplified (Par3)"*; *"Actually, I see learning a language as a new world (Par1)"*; *"Language learning is like something towards more understanding and speaking (Par2)"*. The instructor thinks that SLA is not entirely covered in language classes for the time being: *"SLA is a concept coming from the childhood. It is not something we can bring up for the education system at the university right now. We are performing teaching based education here"*.

Learning environment

All the participants mention the importance of a class division based on the language levels: *"We must select our sections based on our levels (All)"*. The participants emphasize developing positive attitudes towards the course during learning process: *"Both the student and the learner are responsible for language learning. A teacher who endeared himself/herself very much to his/her students. For example, I used to hate my university but I was going to prep school because I liked my teacher. We had a really good communication because the teaching methods were not just 'okay friends, we are now opening that book and you are going to make these exercises'. It was more social, namely, 'game-based like a child' and it was very beneficial (Par3)"*; *"While teaching, the teacher needs us to love English and the courses should flow. I have to take pleasure (Par4)"*. The participants desire to have productive and receptive skills focused course with a perspective towards different contents: *"I would like to have different contents from different cultures, music histories or famous artists (Par3)"*; *"I would rather learn by speaking and listening than phrases or structures (Par1)"*; *"My biggest fear is pronunciation so we should learn by speaking, listening, and seeing (Par2)"*. Learners neither prefer individual work nor crowded class activities: *"I would prefer pairs or small groups (Par3)"; "We should work with small groups (Par1&2)"*. The instructor emphasizes that there should be class divisions based on the language levels: *"Division based on students' language levels and a class of fifteen students would be better"*. In addition to this, the instructor explains that they may not be so voluntary to attend the course: *"They are not very voluntary to attend the course. They underestimate foreign language and Turkish course when compared to main courses in their department. That is the truth. I mean some are indifferent to the course due to the fact that some have upper language levels compared to what we present. Some remain disconnected because their levels are lower than what we present. Those at the level we present make little of the course. I could not achieve to do interactive activities like speaking, listening to a dialogue, writing a dialogue or a paragraph, etc. they are not very participatory at that point"*.

Out-of-class activities

Learners think that out of class activities are beneficial: *"I think that out of class activities may be effective (Par1&2)"*. Participants would like to have listening and speaking activities out of the class: *"You can give us listening activities out of the class, I mean online. We can write down what we hear and send it to you (Par2)"*; *"We would like to watch movie (Par1&2&4&5)"*; *"I think that language develops as long as you speak and make listening activities for sure. Reading and writing are fine but I think that speaking is at most importance. We must gather together and practice speaking because the people have the fear of talking. Even if they know, they can express what they would like to convey and have the language experience, they have fear in their hearts. According to me, we must first overcome this. We must absolutely perform speaking activities all the time (Par3)"*; *"We can participate in chat hours for practicing speaking (Par1&2&3)"*. The instructor thinks that there can be some progress in students if the teacher checks out of class activities: *"If you check out of class activities, there can be these kinds of activities for them. My expectations are not that high but I think that it can get better. It is common knowledge that every course has ECTS and it is a must that there be out of class activities for this course though it is not the same as the others"*.

Teaching program

The participants give credit to language for communication principle and would like to focus on daily life English and speaking followed by reading and writing: *"We have grammar in our courses now but it does not get our attention a lot. If we can have more topics about daily life, we like more and the more we like, the more we would like to learn grammar (Par1)"*; *"I need writing. I have difficulty in writing because it is very different from speaking. I would like to think about it the most (Par2)"*; *"I want both articles and speaking (Par5)"*; *"There have to be speaking activities in every course because the language improves as long as you speak and listen. Reading and writing are fine but speaking comes at first according to me (Par3)"*. The instructor thinks that the syllabus in parallel with the real life and music-related topics would get the attention of the learners: *"The course time is restraining me with a regard to choosing content for this course because it is very short time. There are situations in parallel with the life, simulations and models in those books I gave to you. I assume that it is logical. On the other hand, I feel that creating music related context may trigger their attention towards the course"*.

Measurement and evaluation

When the learners are asked whether they would like weekly homework like gathering portfolio, the learners seem voluntary to do homework weekly or twice a week but some mention their busy schedule: *"We would like these kinds of homework every week (Par3&5)"*; *"We have a lot of homework from other courses but we would like to do as long as we can. Even if it is not for every week, we would love to do it often(Par4)"*; *"I think that twice a week is much better (Par3)"*; *"You can give us homework every week in order to be active (Par1)"*; *"If there is homework on the same day with the course, we can both practice the topic and get more active and it will be good (Par2)"*. They prefer homework that gets their attention and allies with their learning goals: *"The homework must be interesting not an ordinary one like going to British culture museum and tell what they wear. The homework should be both informing and contributing to our language along with getting our attention (Par5)"*; *"We can write texts (Par1)"*; *"The homework certainly must be in accord with our goals. It would be logical for us to write an essay due to the fact that we want academic career, these kinds of things, namely, in alliance with everyone's goals (Par5)"*. Some learners would like to have their homework marked and multidimensional exam: *"I think that the homework can be graded (Par1&2)"*; *"If you grade the homework, everyone will pay more attention. They do not tire you. The exam maybe a normal written exam, listening or talking to you about something, I mean, multidimensional (Par1)"*; *"There should be speaking, listening, and normal grammar but please do not give us a single grammar exam and tell us to solve them. I want it to be multidimensional (Par5)"*. The instructor is not in favor of giving classical homework and prefers using technology at this point:

"Giving classical homework to the students can limitedly contribute to students' progress. When you ask them to write something and bring it, five from thirty students write it down. On the other hand, if there can be a follow up for this by using technology and by creating an online classroom, I assume that the laziness can be avoided. They can do it with their phones, tablets, and computers. There has to be such a shadow apart from the course. For me, two hours is nothing". The instructor clarifies that the students study their course exam-focused and they are not focusing on the process: *"They are studying exam-based. Even if they do not care a lot about midterm, they study really hard for the final exam. They are not focusing on the process but the product. The product for them is whether to pass or fail the exam. However, when asked, they talk like 'we want very much, we need English very much'. This is a skill like playing violin. I would like to play violin a lot but I sleep and in the morning, I will be playing violin. They are similar. You have to give time"*.

DISCUSSION

This study sets out with the aim of finding out the needs of music students in English courses. It is very promising to see that music students in this study are highly aware of EFL and its importance (Brown, 2001; Dai et al., 2015; Dewi, 2017; Hapsari, 2015; Harmer, 2007, Wakeland, 2013, Wolfe, 2006). In addition, music students are going to have Vocational English course, which promotes many benefits as suggested in other studies (Dewi, 2017; Wakeland, 2013) for English for specific purposes course. The findings reveal that music students in this study value all skills, pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar due to being very beneficial and useful in language learning (Brown, 2001; Harmer, 2007; Harris, 1969; Richards, 2006). They favor using games, English songs, and speaking to English speakers, which presents many benefits in language learning (Cakir, 1999; Kara, 2009; Salcedo, 2010). The participants seem to keep in touch with the authentic materials of the language like newspaper, stories, music and it can be said that they value authenticity, real-life communication, and meaningful materials (Brown, 2001; Harmer, 2007). Additionally, music students would like to have different contents for language learning (Hapsari, 2015; Wakeland, 2013). It can be understood from their comments that they would like to do meaningful activities with the language instead of focusing on just the forms and usage of the language. Harmer (2007) highlights the importance of creating a context for adolescents so that they can actively participate in the courses with their own thoughts and experiences instead of simple ask and answer questions and abstract learning activities. According to Long (1991), there is a distinction between focus on form and focus on formS. Focus on formS is about discrete language units. It takes the language items separately and the accumulation of those discrete units forms the language. On the other hand, focus on form is about the use of the language in a meaningful and contextualized way. It is not about not giving the language forms but giving them in a meaningful way so that the focus can be on the meaning. In this meaning-making process, it can be said that the learners would like to have interaction and collaboration with their friends. With a regard to this, Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) is that through focused negotiation of meaning and negative feedback obtained through negotiation may be facilitative of L2 development. Through interaction, the learner can notice what is missing in her/his language faculty (noticing the gap) and correct herself/himself. Through this way, learners are somehow pushed to produce output, which leads to Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985). People have both competence and performance. Output is a process from semantic to syntactic processing. Swain (1985) also labels this output comprehensible or pushed output in that learners are pushed in their production to make themselves understood: they either modify a previous utterance or try out forms that they had not used before. The learners can notice the gap with the help of negotiation of meaning and test their hypotheses. Additionally, social constructivism developed by Vygotsky (1962) sees language as a tool for meaning-making and this should be done through collaboration and interaction. Therefore, the language classes should encourage opportunities for interaction and collaboration among the students.

In the current study, the students do not seem to take English courses seriously and it can be said that they are not aware enough to take responsibility for their language learning process. Therefore, language teachers should take into consideration Harmer's (2007, p. 33) expression that "perhaps our greatest responsibility, therefore, is to help students develop their language awareness,

that is their ability to spot grammatical patterns and behaviour for themselves". On the other hand, the students' motivation based on their statements is very encouraging, which is a prominent factor in language learning process (Dai et al. 2015; Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). They motivate themselves for learning English so that they can accomplish academic purposes, communicate with the globe, reach different sources, and take part in international exchange programs as in the studies of Hapsari (2015),Wakeland (2013), and Wolfe (2006). Surprisingly, it can be observed from the statements of the music students in this study that they would like to extend their study from in-class activities by showing interest for out of class activities unlike in class activities based on the expressions in the findings. It is highly important to see students volunteer to take responsibility for their own learning, which will promote their learner autonomy in language learning process. Holec (1981, p. 3) defines autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". According to Benson (2013, p. 840), "autonomy is manifested in the form of autonomous language learning, which here refers to learning practices involving learners' control over aspects of their learning or, more broadly, learning that takes place outside the context of formal instruction". Therefore, opportunities for out of class activities should be provided for music students.

Though the students do not seem to be aware enough for language learning process, they value language learning and see it like a new world. This finding is really meaningful since "one powerful reason for encouraging language students to discover things for themselves is the complex nature of language itself" (Harmer, 2007, p. 57). Hence, it is highly important to offer opportunities to the learners to explore the language through the appropriate contexts created by the human in such a formal curricula (Dörnyei, 2009). Furthermore, it can be understood from the remarks that they would like to hold positive attitudes towards the course. This kind of affective status is also important for motivation because Dörnyei (2009, p. 182) sees motivation as "the affective characteristics of the learner, referring to the direction and magnitude of learning behaviour in terms of the learner's choice, intensity, and duration of learning". In accordance with this, affective filter hypothesis developed by Krashen (1982), is about the relationship between affective factors and SLA. The more anxious a learner feels during language learning process, the higher the filter is. Therefore, language teachers need to come up with ideas to lower the learners' affective filter while providing comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). Similarly, Rogers (1983) values human emotion and sees language class as a dynamic group interacting through threat-free and caring manners. Furthermore, music students would like to have pairs or small groups. According to Harmer (2007), pair work presents some advantages like promoting learner independence, sharing responsibility by providing them a friendly and relaxed environment. Similarly, group work is good for learners from such aspects as rising talking opportunities, broader cooperation and negotiation skills (Harmer, 2007).

As mentioned above, the students would like to have out of class activities and value portfolio. Brown (2001) explains that with the new developments in testing, formative assessment highlights to observe the process of learning in contrast to product. "Most informal assessment is what testing experts call formative evaluation: assessing students in the process of 'forming' their competencies and skills in order to help them continue that growth process" (Brown, 2001, p. 402). Portfolio is one of the alternative assessment ways in CLT (Brown, 2001). Though it was previously regarded as only for younger children's art and written work, learners of various ages and disciplines make use of the portfolios (Brown,2001). Nevertheless, it is explained in the comments that the students may put behind progress and focus on passing the exam.

It can be understood from the comments of the music students that they wish the teacher to check the homework preferably with a grade and to prepare an exam not focusing on a single dimension. It is really promising to see that music students expect instructor feedback. Previous studies have explored the benefits of corrective feedback (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Chen, Nassaji, & Liu, 2016; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Russell & Spada, 2006, Schulz, 2001). It should be paid attention to give feedback to the learners' studies. From another perspective, participants may prefer the use of technology for their homework and may not favor the classic pen and pencil homework. Considering the fact that these students are digital natives and born into this technological world (Prensky, 2001),

this finding is not very surprising. Additionally, 21st century learning demands from the students such skills as collaboration, communication, creativity, and critical thinking skills. Integration of technology into the 21st century classrooms is very important (Darling-Hammond et al. 2005; Ward & Overall, 2013).

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This study aims to explore the needs of Turkish music students in English courses. The researcher used questionnaire and interviews to collect data from five music students and one instructor at a state university in Türkiye. The findings indicate that music students in this study seem motivated to learn English and find it crucial to learn English in today's world with the increasing demand for English as a global language. Nevertheless, they seem to have trouble figuring out how to study a language and do not take English courses seriously. Additionally, they would like to have varying English course contents and real-life, authentic, and meaningful activities in the course. Music students seem to favor the use of technology for their homework and demand feedback from the instructor. They suggest a class division based on language levels and practice all language skills and areas in the class. In light of these, there will be some recommendations for for language instructors and policy makers:

- The students should be conscious that though valuing English learning is a big idea, turning English learning into action by actively participating and taking it seriously in the courses is another prominent issue.
- There should be class divisions based on students' English language levels.
- The course materials should cover all language skills and areas in varying contents designed as pairs or small groups.
- The teachers should create a stress-free learning environment so that the learners can feel positive towards language learning process.
- The students should be given aid to develop their awareness towards how to study a language.
- The course should meet the demands of 21st century education.
- Information and communication technology integration should be practiced in language classes.
- The material developers and instructors should integrate technological outcomes and activities into the language learning process.

As in every study, this research has some limitations. The number of the participants may be increased because it is small scale research and lacks generalizable data as the nature of the qualitative study. What is more, classroom observation and document analysis (student & teacher book) can be added to the study in order to delve into a broader perspective towards language learner needs.

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A Discourse-Oriented Approach to Interpreter's Non-Rendition Behaviour: A Case Study of An Interpreted Parent-Teacher Talk

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Abstract: This article explores the types and functions of dialogue interpreter's non-rendition behaviour in a corpus of transcriptions of a recorded parent-teacher meeting. Following the distinction between justified and unjustified renditions, it seeks to contribute to the discussion of the interpreter's use of non-renditions in a relatively under-searched mediated communicative environment. Non-renditions, interpreter-generated original utterances that do not have corresponding counterparts in the preceding source utterance, are considered a part of "talk as activity". Thus, as a theoretical framework, the study adopts a dialogic view to discuss interactional non-renditions as a discourse practice. The analysis of extracts drawn from a naturally occurring parent-teacher encounter revealed that the interpreter's non-renditions are substantially self-prompted when they ask for clarification or confirmation. There are instances of talk that lead to the exclusion of the interpreter from the ongoing dialogue in monolingual sequences. The study also provides significant data on the use of reactive tokens as a listener's response.

Keywords: *Discourse analysis, Dialogic, Interpreting, Non-renditions, Educational Setting*

INTRODUCTION

This study aims to contribute to the discussion of dialogue interpreter's non-rendition behaviour as a discourse practice in interpreter-mediated parent-teacher talk. Non-rendition, an analytical concept first suggested by Wadensjö (1998), can be defined as interpreters' responses that have no corresponding counterpart as translation in the original utterance. Despite several previous studies on non-renditions in various interpreter-mediated interactions, such as medical, courtroom, and sign language interpreting settings (Cirillo, 2012; Cheung, 2017; Metzger, 1999), the interpreters' use of non-renditions in parent-teacher talk is not well-researched.

Previously labeled as interpreters' "interventions" (Todorova, 2014, p. 229) and "interruptions" (Hale, 2004, p. 201), non-renditions have been evaluated as interpreter-induced utterances against an idealized practice. Wadensjö's (1998) term "nonrendition", however, tries to understand the interpreters' work "as they do their job" (Roy, 2001, p. 31), with a focus on the dynamics of interaction as it unfolds. What is problematic with this neutral term is that it is referred to as "interpreters initiative" (Wadensjö, 1998, p. 108), implying that the production of non-renditions is only at the interpreters' discretion. You will find in this study that there can be rare cases in which non-renditions are initiated in monolingual sequences by one of the primary participants other than the interpreter. In such sequences of talk, the interpreter can entirely be excluded from the participatory framework.

In multilingual encounters, the interpreters' task is not to be reduced to simply rendering the original utterances produced by one of the parties to the interaction. As ratified participants, interpreters perform a range of other actions to manage the discourse flow of the exchange. To comprehend all aspects of interaction and the interactional constraints on interpreters' actions, the study adopts Wadensjö's (1998) "dialogic view", in which all interlocutors are actively involved in the co-construction of meaning. The interpreters' non-rendition behaviour can be adequately examined in this joint activity, through the dialogue of the participants.

In observing how interpreters' and other interlocutors' non-renditions actively contribute to the dialogue, analysts resort to the recordings of naturally occurring interpreter-mediated settings. Designed as a case study, the exchanges discussed in this paper are excerpts from a parent-teacher meeting, recorded in a private middle school in Istanbul, Türkiye. To fully grasp the complex nature of an interpreter-mediated setting in parent-teacher talk, a detailed description of the key structural features of similar monolingual events can be useful. The following section is devoted to this purpose.

MONOLINGUAL PARENT-TEACHER TALK

The encounter analyzed in this study represents instances of a semi-formal educational institution, which takes place between two interlocutors who come from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The fact that the interaction occurs in the presence of an interpreter adds an extra layer of complexity. Discourse and conversation analysts who adopt a micro-analytical approach to the study of authentic data obtained from interpreter-mediated settings can facilitate their work by examining first the structural complexity of unmediated communication in similar environments. An overview of the defining features of monolingual parent-teacher interviews can support us in this regard.

Despite the parties having different expectations about the meeting, the overall purpose is generally to inform the parents of the student's academic performance as well as the problems they face in school. Hanhan (1998, p. 116) suggests that a parent-teacher meeting is the only occasion where parents and teachers can engage in face-to-face interaction in an institutionalized manner. Pillet-Shore (2001, p.15) asserts that the meeting is an intersection point of two social institutions- the school and the family. Therefore, the talk being inherently institutional, the interlocutors can be expected to play certain roles in the coordination and the structural organization of the interaction. However sequentially organized, it is also worth noting that the contribution of each party is not pre-negotiated and the talk is dynamically shaped and reshaped between the teacher and the parent.

In the absence of the individual who is assessed, teachers mostly report on the student's progress, share opinions and concerns, and offer solutions on their part to guide parents about how they can help their children. Parents bring the interview their knowledge about the child to show their willingness to establish a close relationship with the institutional party. That is not to say that interviews are not sensitive in nature. For instance, while addressing a problematic behaviour of the child at school, the shared goal between the teacher and the parent may disappear, although both parties tend to avoid directly confronting each other (Davitti, 2012, p. 46). When such instances of talk occur, the parent may initiate independent sequences to question the teacher's competence and the effectiveness of the school system to deal with problematic situations. Frustrating exchanges that result in disagreements do not generally last for too long, though. Parents refrain from contradicting teachers for fear that the bond between the teacher and the child might be damaged.

These issues provide an opportunity to recognize problems for which interpreters need to be prepared. The following part deals with how the flow of discourse and the interactional organization of talk is managed by the interpreter.

DISCOURSE MANAGEMENT IN DIALOGUE INTERPRETING

"Discourse management" in interpreting studies is an overarching term coined to define the activities taken by the interpreter in the organization of multi-party and multi-lingual encounters. The definition indicates that it is not used only to refer to the interpreters' actions to render the original utterances of one of the primary participants but to refer to the interpreters' responsibility for managing the discourse flow of the interaction.

Wadensjö (1998) is the first to model discourse management in interpreting, in which he offers a twofold typology in terms of interpreters' involvement- "renditions" and "coordinating moves". While the former is related to the production of a target text, the latter is viewed as the interpreters' explicit and implicit actions to coordinate the encounter. Explicit coordinating moves are of particular importance for this study and are either text-oriented or interaction-oriented. The interpreter's utterances that do not directly relate to other participants' immediately preceding utterances -non-renditions- are designed to coordinate the interaction and are regarded as the interpreter's explicit coordinating moves. Roy (2000) and Davidson (2000) are two other researchers who sought to describe the term discourse management in terms of the interpreter's role performance and responsibility in interaction. Dimitrova's (1997) study differs from others in that it addresses how the involvement of other participants influences the translator's actions. Davitti (2013), who studied the video recordings of parent-teacher encounters from a multimodal perspective, demonstrated how interpreters perform coordinating moves not just verbally but also via nonverbal resources, such as gaze behaviour.

It can thus be suggested that explicit coordination does not necessarily address only the interpreter's renditions and may include non-renditions, such as "requests for clarification, requests for time to translate, comments on translations, requests to observe the turn-taking order, and invitations to start or continue talking" (Wadensjö, 1998, pp. 108–110). In the next section, non-renditions will be discussed in detail.

NON-RENDITIONS AS A DISCOURSE PRACTICE IN MEDIATED ENCOUNTERS

In an interpreting activity, there are two main types of utterances generated by the interpreters -renditions and non-renditions. Unlike renditions of the other participants' original utterances, non-renditions are interpreter-generated original utterances. In other words, non-renditions are the autonomous utterances of the interpreters. They are the interpreters' interactional moves to coordinate the ongoing interaction. Non-renditions, according to Wadensjö's (1998) distinction, are a part of "talk as activity" rather than "talk as text". Vargas-Urpi (2019) offers a different classification of non-renditions as "justified" and "unjustified", and "reactive tokens". Justified non-renditions, for the most part, are the interpreter's coordination strategies and are defined in four types: pauses, clarification, confirmation, and retrieval (Vargas-Urpi, 2019, p. 478). Temporary interruptions may occur during the conversation when the interpreter asks for a pause as a non-rendition behaviour before beginning to render the talk. The interpreter may also ask for clarification when comprehension is not achieved or may produce a non-rendition when seeking to check whether the information is heard. When the interpreter realises that there is an information gap, he/she may ask to retrieve it from the source utterance producer. Unjustified non-renditions, however, are classified into three categories: instructions, advice, or warnings, interpreter-generated responses like answers, and extra information. The interpreter may warn the primary parties or give instructions and advice about how they should verbally and nonverbally behave during the conversation. The interpreter may tend to provide an answer on behalf of any of the participants or may supply information not found in the original utterance. Reactive tokens, as Varga-Urpi suggests (2019, p. 486), refer to interactional non-renditions where the interpreter acknowledges that the information in the original utterance is received before providing the rendition. However, he does not focus in this study on reactive tokens and only provides a short definition in a footnote.

Cheung (2017) addresses the non-renditions with a different typological analysis. He categorizes non-renditions as either self-initiated or other-prompted. "When non-renditions are self-initiated, the interpreter may become an active conversation initiator, but when non-renditions are other-prompted, the interpreter may be a passive conversation respondent" (Cheung, 2017, p. 179). This means that not all non-renditions are initiated by the interpreter but prompted by some other participants other than the interpreter.

This study seeks to examine the types of interpreter-generated and, if any, other-prompted non-renditions in a mediated parent-teacher interview to question what purposes they may serve in interpreted discourse. Before the analysis of non-renditions used by the participants in a mediated dialogue, the analytical perspective and corpus of the study will be elaborated on below.

METHOD

Laypeople, even interpreters may tend to think that the interpreter's task is to repeat in concise form the source utterances and thus perform a verbatim rendition of the original utterances voiced by primary parties to the interaction. This "conduit model of communication" (Reddy, 1979) has been abandoned in today's interpreting studies because the interpreter's renditions, despite relating in some way to the original utterance, are considered as the new versions of the original. That is to say, "interpreters do not function as mere transporters of other people's words" (Jacobsen, 2008, p. 239). In mediated encounters, interpreters are both hearers and speakers. As hearers, interpreters enter into a negotiation of meaning with other participants to clarify meaning or check comprehension. As speakers, they not only produce reformulations of prior original utterances but perform other coordinating functions. They play an active role in the communication process, which will be discussed in this study in terms of the interpreter's non-rendition behaviour within the framework of the "dialogic discourse-based interactionist paradigm", an analytical approach to interpreting supplied by Wadensjö (1998). What is particularly emphasized in this paradigm is the interdependence of each party in a three-way exchange, where the contributions of the interpreter, whether translational or conversational, are shaped by other agents in the co-construction of meaning. To refer to Mason's (2015) words on Wadensjö's interactional approach to mediated encounters, "each participant's moves affect the others', in a constant process of negotiation of meaning" (p. 113).

Research that adopts the interactionist approach mostly relies on data gathered from naturalistic interpreting situations. The corpus of the study is based on a 15-minute video recording of a mediated parent-teacher encounter at a private school in Istanbul. Ethics being a crucial part of responsible research, an ethical clearance was obtained from the ethics committee at an institute within a public university. The procedure began after a comprehensive report providing a detailed explanation of the data and methodology was submitted to the committee for evaluation. The researcher's commitment to present the results obtained truthfully and accurately was clearly indicated in the report. Before the interview, each participant was asked to sign a typical consent form to give their permission to be part of the study, which was also submitted to the committee along with the video recording of the interaction to ensure transparency and integrity. Providing brief information about the participants, the institutional party is an English teacher of African origin, who studied Business Administration in his home country Nigeria, and has been teaching young learners in Türkiye for nearly 5 years. The other primary party, the mother of a 4th-grade primary school student, has a limited command of English at an elementary level. The interpreter who also teaches English at the same school for a year is an in-house interpreter and a translation and interpreting department graduate. The seating arrangement was not pre-negotiated.

The recording was converted into a text document using a word processor and basic transcription conventions developed for the written representations of Turkish spoken discourse (see Appendix). The selected conventions account for the interactional aspects of oral communication, such as non-verbal vocalizations and prosodic features that may affect the quality of the verbal component. Only the initials of the participants' names were used in the transcription to protect their privacy. The

extracts chosen involve sequences of talk where a non-rendition was used by one of the participants. The utterances in Turkish were translated back into English through faithful rendition.

FINDINGS

Interpreter's Non-rendition Behaviour

The following extracts, drawing on Varga-Urpi's taxonomy (2019), present instances of the interpreter's non-rendition behaviour, without disregarding other participants' use of non-renditions. Some extracts analysed will also look at instances of non-renditions that cannot be studied in this triadic classification. Not all reactive tokens will be examined in separate sequences of talk because they do not in themselves claim the floor in conversational use to disrupt the primary speaker's turn and are mostly embedded in instances of talk where justified and unjustified non-renditions are used.

Justified Non-renditions

Justified non-renditions are mostly related to the interpreters' conversation management problems to ensure the accuracy of the output when they want to confirm or clarify information in the original utterance.

Abbreviations: GY- The Parent / **SO-** The English Teacher / **DE-** The Interpreter

Extract 1.

GY13- ayakta geziyor {falan} %demek ki% acaba İngilizce dersinde mi geziyor {sadece}(?)

he stands around and stuff I mean I wonder if in English lessons he walks around only

yoksa <u>acaba</u> ## kontrol mü kuramıyor {sınıf üzerinde} (?) hakimiyet eksikliği mi var (?)

or is it that   he fails to control the class   is there a lack of control

diğer öğretmenlerinden böyle bi(r) şey almadık biraz önce de görüştüm {sınıf öğretmeniyle}

we did not hear such a thing from other teachers a little while ago I talked to the class teacher

evde de çok söz dinlemeyen bir çocuk d(eğ)iil (!) # derste mi ee öğretmenine mi <yapıyo(r)

when at home he is not a disobedient child   is it in the class uhh he does that to his teacher

DE14-   <S…> teacherda mı
bir eksiklik görüyorsunuz (?)

with the teacher do you see something wrong

GY14- %yani% belki sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili bir sıkıntısı olabilir

well may be he may have a problem with classroom management

By successively asking 3 rhetorical questions that do not expect an answer from the interpreter (GY13), the parent implies that the problem may not be with the child but with the institution or the institutional party, as she does not want to make a direct statement that accuses the teacher of the child's negative behaviour in the class. The interpreter interferes to clarify the parent's utterances to ensure whether it is the teacher's teaching skills that are being questioned (DE14). This request for clarification is the interpreter's using her voice (Metzger, 1999) as an active co-participant.

Extract 2.

GY15- bilmiyorum # biz de bi(r) şekilde uyarırız {evet ama} # tek şu an sizden duyuyorum

I do not know   we also in a way warn him   yes but   I only hear this from you

sınıf öğretmeni öyle bi(r)şey söylemedi

class teacher did not mention such a thing

DE15- yes uhhhm so S… [looking down at the notebook] ## she says that uhhm she met with the classroom teacher annnd she never heard that %there is a problem% # annnd she kind of questions your control your classroom management skills #

SO6- ohh (!)

The interpreter initiates a sequence that does not involve translation of the previous talk uttered by the parent (DE15). The word "yes", often used in talk-in-interaction as a token of acknowledgment when it is someone else's turn to speak, is used by the interpreter to signify that comprehension has been successfully achieved and that she is ready to render the preceding original utterance. She then uses a gap filler that signals a pause in the speech. The gap filler is followed by a transition word. Mentioning the teacher's name, the interpreter seeks to attract the teacher's attention with his name mentioned. That the interpreter averts her gaze from the institutional party supports the fact that these interpreter-generated non-renditions are visibly designed to ask for a pause to interpret.

Extract 3.

DE27- uhhh so S… # she says that may %be% you can change M… A…'s %seating position% # that would help

SO13- yeah # I do <that

DE28-   <she> (.) yeah (?) ohh (!) you already <did that (?)

SO14-   <yea yea> yea

DE29- okay # it did not <help (?)

SO15-   <yeah> yeah it did not help

DE30- okay (!) [disappointed]

The monolingual sequences above specify two different types of justified non-renditions-confirmation and retrieval. The interpreter renders the parent's utterances suggesting that the teacher might change the student seating arrangement to maximize their engagement (DE27). A dyadic sequence is initiated when the teacher interferes without hesitation to state that he tried that already (SO13). The interpreter repeats the teacher's utterance to confirm understanding (DE28). The interpreter then poses a question to retrieve some part of the information that he believes to be missing (DE29). The teacher's quick response causes an overlapping talk (SO15). This dyadic interaction leads to the temporary exclusion of the parent from the engagement framework.

Extract 4.

SO16- I think uhm first (…) uhm you uhm I am thinking should be the solution to the problem is # I think I will need %her% help to talk to the child and this uhm

DE31- you want her to warn M… (?)

SO17- # %yes% like to talk to uhm the child since she is the <u>mother</u> she knows how to get across to the child # that is one # and two uhhhm I am also looking at the fact that if we can get this child in a one on one uhm state of teaching like have him in a private class

DE32- you want to teach %private% to M… (?)

SO18- %yeah% (!) if # we can get a private uhm (.)

DE33- private lessons (?)

       The teacher expresses opinions on how to solve the child's inappropriate behaviour in the classroom (SO16). The interpreter, due to a lack of clarity in the source utterance, interferes to request clarification (DE31). In Tebble's terms (2012), this is a 'side clarification sequence'. Another interpreter-prompted side sequence occurs (DE32) to clarify the teacher's contribution to the child's progress out of the classroom. A momentary pause by the teacher causes the interpreter to initiate another side sequence to repair the teacher's speech (DE33).

Unjustified Non-renditions

       Unjustified non-renditions include moments of interaction where the interpreter often violates the principle of neutrality, though it is unlikely that there is a golden standard. In such instances of talk, the interpreter cannot afford to abstain from interfering interactional orientation of the conversation.

Extract 5.

GY3- ya aslında biliyorum {birazcık} lisede biz ee İngilizceyi gördük ## böyle çat pat

    well in fact I know a little   back in high school uhm we learnt English   very little

biliyorum belki bi(r) ee A1 mi oluyo(r) (?)

I know   may be like it is A1 level

DE4- <hıhı

GY4- <öyle> olabilir {ama} çok eee anlıyorum %ama% pek konuşamıyorum(!)

    it may be so but   I understand much but cannot really speak it

DE5- hıhı

GY5- arada siz böyle yardımcı olursanız

    from time to time if you could help

DE6- <u>isminiz</u> neydi (?)

    your name again

GY6- e G …

DE6- G … # okay sooo ahhh miss G… can speak some English # she learned in high school

SO3- okay

       The parent expresses that she has a basic knowledge of English and utters in a questioning manner that she may have achieved an elementary level of English which she believes to correspond

to A1 level (GY3). The interpreter uses a 'minimal response' (Gavioli, 2012) which only signifies her active attention to what is being uttered, without confirming it (DE4). This minimal response can be considered a non-rendition, which does not disrupt the parent's turn to speak. The interpreter addresses the parent directly and asks her name (DE6), which the parent had already mentioned when the parties engaged in small talk at the beginning of the speech event. The additional information requested on this question is the interpreter's initiative that does not correspond to a preceding utterance produced by one of the primary participants.

Extract 6.

GY7- biz şimdi okul başlayalı {benim gözlemlediğim} bilmiyorum hani %tabiyki ben%

we now since the beginning of school as I see it   I do not know of course I am

İngilizce öğretmeni değilim e bu konuda uzman değilim %ama% biraz az çok tabi başka

not an English teacher   I am not an expert on this   but   of course in other

okullara giden ee arkadaşları var # biraz bakıyoruz birbirimize de # konuşuyoruz # yani okul

schools he has friends   we look at each other   talk to each other   I mean school

açılalı bi(r) ay oldu ama hiç konuşmuyo(r) (!) # [clears throat] evde bi(r)şey söylemiyo(r)

opened a month ago but he does not speak   when at home he says nothing

hiç İngilizce gelmiyo(r) eve # eee biz böyle işte İngilizce çizgi filmler açıyoruz şarkılar

he brings home no English   uhm we are like   English cartoons we watch   songs

açıyoruz #

we play

DE7- hıhı

GY8- %babası% biliyo(r) {İngilizce} on(un)la falan da böyle pratik şansı var ama # hiç

his father knows English   with him also he has a chance of practice but does not

konuşmuyo(r) başka arkadaşları var {başka okullarda} bayaa [nods head from side to side]

speak at all   other friends he has in other schools   quite a lot of

sohbet falan %ediyo(r)larmış # öyle diyo(r)lar # acaba ders saati %mi % yeterli d(eğ)iil

words they exchange   or so they say   I wonder if the course hours are not enough

ee okulun İngilizce sisteminde mi sıkıntı var # biz biraz açıkçası endişeliyiz

or the school's English system is problematic   we are obviously a little concerned

DE8- ah miss G … is actually worried # because ah [turns to the mother] what is (.) um

oğlunuzun ismi neydi acaba (?)

what was your son's name

GY9- M… A…

DE9- %M…A…% [gazing at the teacher] ahh M… A… does not speak English at home and she is really worried about this # ahhh %because% they have some other friends who goes to other schools and *they can speak English* (!) and she says it has been a month # <u>and</u> she wants to see some progress # %she wants% # her son to speak English aaand she says that may be there is a problem with the lessons # the hours of the lessons # %may be% there is some %problems% with the system # we have in our school # what do you want to say (?)

SO4- ummm it is okay I # I really liked the uh %to% (…) uh decided to uh (…) the approach uh the school umm you should uhh know that the school has um curriculum which the teachers umm had to follow and uuuh to (.) concerning the uuh *child* he is uuh a little of uuuh %naughty% in the class # o<key (?)

DE10-   <hıhı

SO5- heee (…) he really sits to take the lessons # hee goes about uhh playing in the class {during the lesson} # and uh this is actually uhh problem # so uhh the first thing we have to do is to find a way to (.) like control him ensure that he %takes% his lesson which is uhh very uh important to me *and uh* (…) to take a step {by informing the psychology teacher} *I mean there is* <uh problem that (.)

GY10-   <bayaa bi(r)şey söy>ledi # <ne dedi {acaba }(?) [laıghter]

        a lot of things he said   *I wonder what he said*

DE11-   <merak etmeyin

        no worries

      The parent expresses concern that the child has not yet made sufficient progress in English, even though the school has been open for quite a long period (GY7-8). After a long stretch of talk by the parent, the interpreter begins to render her utterances (DE8). When the interpreter pauses to ask the parent the child's name, she fails to alternate between two languages, which ends in a 'self-initiated self-repair' (Schegloff et al., 1977). Because of the length of the teacher's response (SO4-5), the parent requests a translation to find out what was said (GY10). Unlike those generated by the interpreter, this is a parent-generated non-rendition that interferes with the orientation of the conversational interaction. The parent's non-rendition behaviour causes the interpreter to generate another unjustified non-rendition, where the interpreter in a sense warns the parent how to act (DE11).

Extract 7.

DE16- she *says that* maybe there is problem with the way you teach # because %the other teachers% (.) they say that everything is great # and there is no problem # but when you say your child is naughty [gazing at the mother] she is really concerned (!) and she is concerned about your teaching skills # your teaching ways so what do you want me to say (?)

SO7- uhhm soo uhm the child is not (…) in the class there are other students in the same class and other students (.) %they% appropriately (.) when they (.) I have full reports for them %but% for her child # uhm she uhm (.) he does not really sit to take his <lessons

DE17-   <is it only> M… A… # {who is naughty in the class} (?)

SO8- yeah # and a couple of his friends # the boy has some friends and uhm when there is uhm disturbance during the lesson he is usually among <those who (.)

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DE18-   <but there is> a group <and M… A…

SO9-   <there is a group

DE19- is in this <group

SO10-   <yes there is a group <and>

DE20-   <okay

SO11- when you have uhm disturbance (…) during the lesson you always find him there # so uhhm that is a problem %to me% # probably uhhm uhm other teachers (.) they # they speak Turkish <and they are> able to uhm control uhm the child using the language %but% I am not

DE21- <%aa% okay> so you say the problem *is the language barrier* because you do not speak <Turkish

SO12- <may be> may be # may be

Rather than acting as the voice of the other interlocutors, the interpreter enters the conversation with her own voice and asks the teacher how she should respond (DE16). In interpreting activities, there may be situations in which the interpreters need to refer to themselves in the third person in an attempt to make sure that their interpretation is correct and understood by all parties to the interaction. However, this interpreter-initiated unjustified rendition cannot be considered one of the interpreter's tools to ensure that the intended message is understood.

The teacher says that she keeps reports on the classroom behaviour and progress of other children in the class (SO7). The interpreter interferes to request additional information not provided in the teacher's original utterance (DE17). This unjustified rendition is followed by a justified rendition (DE21) when the interpreter needs clarification on the subject.

Extract 8.

DE34- bireysel bi(r) şekilde çalışırlarsa ee daha iyi gelişeceğini *ve sizin* evde daha hızlı

    if they work individually uhm he would better develop and at home you could much faster

 sonuç alabileceğinizi söylüyo

get results   he says

GY21- o zaman ee # bi(r) süreci beklemek gereki(e)cek her(h)alde # bi(r) de öyle deneyelim #

    well then   for a period we will have to wait   I suppose   let us try it then this way

%biz de% bi(r) görüşelim #

let us also discuss it

DE35- hıhı # sormak istediğiniz bi(r) soru var mı (?) başka bi(r) problem (?)

    uh-uhh do you have other questions you want to ask   another problem

GY22- ee şu an yok ee ama süreç içinde baktığımızda hani %bu ders%de de şey olursa sıkıntı

    at the moment none but in the process   you know   should a problem in this lesson

olursa (.) olduğu zaman onun üzerinden konuşuruz diye düşünüyorum

arises   when it arises   we can talk over it   I believe

The interpreter's decision not to render the parent's response (GY21) may indicate that she tends not to pursue the talk. Instead, she interjects into the conversation (DE35) to find out if there are any other questions the parent would like to ask. The interpreter's non-rendition behaviour is intended to manipulate the parent's verbal behaviour and thus can be regarded as an unjustified rendition.

Reactive Tokens

Reactive tokens refer to non-renditions where the interpreter acknowledges that the information contained in the original statement is received. They can be used to evaluate the contributions of non-primary speakers when another party in interaction holds the floor.

Extract 9.

GY16- bizim koleje gönder#{me} sebebimiz yabancı dil *yabancı dile çok önem veriyoruz* #

our purpose to send him to college is foreign language   we care about it a lot

dil öğrensin istiyoruz # bir d(eğ)iil iki dil öğrensin istiyoruz # ona göre zaten buraya geldik

we want him to learn language not one but two languages   it is why we have come here

DE22- hıhı

GY17- ## o yüzden yabancı dilden beklentimiz çok # en çok %bu %# yabancı dili

for that reason we expect much from the foreign language   the most   this foreign language

sorguluyoruz {bu durumda}

we question   in that case

DE23- hıhı

GY18- eee benim için diğer dersleri başka bir okulda da alabilir # ana dilini de öğrenebilir

uhhm for me he can learn other lessons in other schools   he can also learn his mother tongue

%ama% ## dediğim gibi koleje gönderme sebebimiz tamamen yabancı dil

but   as I said our purpose for sending him to college is completely foreign language

DE24- anlıyorum

I see

GY19- bi(r) de bize hani hep söylendi %çok% # yoğun yabancı dil (.) İngilizce var

also we were always told   very much   there is intensive foreign language   English

şu var bu var # (…) etkilerini de görmek istiyoruz {tabi} evdeki yansımalarını (…) istiyoruz

there is this and that its effects we want to see   of course its reflections at home   we want

DE25- anlıyo<rum [nodding the head]

I see

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GY20-   <hiç> anlatmıyo(r)

    he is not talking at all

DE26- anladım

    I got it

During the parent's extended turn as the primary speaker (GY16-20), the interpreter produces two consecutive non-lexical vocal behaviour (DE22-23). They are 'listener responses' Oreström (1983) indicating that the message has been successfully received and understood. The interpreter's short lexical phrases (DE24-25) "anlıyorum" (I see) are reactive expressions typically produced in one or two words. Widely known as backchannels (Tolins & Fox Tree, 2014) in communication, such utterances inform the speaker of the listener's comprehension. The interpreter's final reactive token (DE26), however, differs from the previous ones in that it signals the listener's readiness to move out of the topic being talked about.

Extract 10.

GY1- mer(h)aba hocam

    hello teacher

DE1- mer(h)abaaa

    hello

GY2- hello

SO1- yeah # hi ## you (a)re welcome

GY3- me (.) my name is G …

DE2-   <benim adım G …

    my name is

SO2- okay # <and # my name> is S …

DE3- ben de S …

    and I am S...

GY3- ah # tamam

    okay

The sequence begins with the parent greeting both the interpreter and the teacher separately in their own language (GY1- SO1). In both exchanges, a greeting-greeting sequence occurs and neither subconversation is rendered into the target language. However, the interpreter translates the parent's following utterance in which she continues to introduce herself (DE2), despite the recipiency being displayed by the teacher through the articulation of a reactive token- "okay" (SO2). The parent's reactive expression (GY3) "tamam" (okay) indicates that she shows a neutral stance, rather than active involvement.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Through the analysis of 10 individual extracts drawn from the video recordings of a mediated parent-teacher encounter in Turkish and English, the paper mainly focuses on occasions which do not involve translations of the previous talk. The study follows Vargas-Urpi's (2019) triadic classification of non-renditions, where the interpreter does not provide a rendition of the original utterance. While justified non-renditions cover the interpreter's challenges in conversation management and coordinating strategies, unjustified non-renditions cover the interpreter's interventions in interactional orientation. Reactive tokens, however, are interactional non-renditions that refer to the listener's responses signifying that the speaker's message has been received and understood. In another study by Cheung (2017), non-renditions were categorized as either self-initiated or other-prompted to distinguish non-renditions initiated by the interpreter from those prompted by other participants.

In this study, the conveyed utterance is not originally voiced by the other primary participants when the interpreter generates a non-rendition. She uses her own voice and acts as a *co-conversant* to initiate a conversation. The interpreter-initiated non-renditions, the most frequently encountered type in the study, has led to dyadic exchanges in which one of the interlocutors is temporarily excluded from the exchange. In such instances of talk, the interpreter's impartiality can be undermined, which is compatible with Cheung's (2017) findings. The study, unlike previous ones, also revealed that the interpreter's perceived role can be questioned in other-prompted non-renditions. During the teacher's extended turn, for instance, the parent's request for translation manipulates interpreter's verbal behaviour. Unlike Vargas-Urpi's (2019) evaluations of unjustified non-renditions, it is not the interpreter warning the other conversants but one of the parties to the interaction giving a warning to the interpreter on how to behave on the verbal dimension.

As a rare and unexpected result, situations where the interpreter is completely left out of the exchange are also encountered in the study. These are monolingual exchanges that lead to the exclusion of the interpreter from the participation framework but not from the engagement framework. The parent greeting the teacher in the target language may illustrate such instances of talk, where the interpreter is not involved. One other rare exchange is when the interpreter asks the parent to wait for her rendition, which indicates her will to be recognized as a ratified participant who also coordinates the interaction. In this exchange, unlike other intentional interferences by the interpreter, she enters the conversation with her own voice. It is also revealed that reactive tokens, which were only treated superficially in Vargas-Urpi's (2019) study, reflect the active involvement of all parties in the interaction and that they can be embedded in speech exchange situations where either justified or unjustified non-renditions occur. Future studies on non-renditions that adopt a dialogic discourse-based analytic approach should focus more on the behaviour of other primary parties and their interactional consequences rather than those of the interpreter.

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APPENDIX

Transcription Conventions.

"aaa/ooo" vowel length indicating exclamative construction

"-" indicating the speaker's turn

"#" pauses

"(.)" unfulfilled sentences

"(…)" incomprehensible sentence fragments

"eee" hesitation

"{…..}" post-rhematic structures

"[…..]" extra-linguistic features

"< ….. >" overlapping talk

"% ….. %" stressed syllables or words

"_____" pronounced with emphasis on underlined words or parts of words

"*……* pronounced more quickly

An Evaluation of Reading Text Questions Based on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy in the 7th Grade English Coursebook by Turkish Ministry of National Education

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Abstract: The goal of the current research is to reflect critical thinking levels of reading activities in the 7th grade English coursebook. Moreover, it also aims to propose extra activities to complete the missing cognitive levels of the reading passages. Within this perspective, a couple of questions are forwarded. Firstly, the extent of the reading activities was evaluated, so each level was described with an example from the coursebook. What is more, the homogeneity of the total activities was elaborated. Second question deals with the significance between the lower and higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy. To answer these questions, content analysis was applied as a part of qualitative analysis. Also, Bloom's revised taxonomy was utilized in the coding process as a criterion to match the activities with the right cognitive level. The results showed that a very high percentage of the activities (95%) support lower levels with the predominance of the remembering level. Thus, it was not a homogeneous distribution. Also, a significant difference was found between lower and higher levels as a result of SPSS. Therefore, teachers need to make some adaptations in their lessons. They need to prepare extra materials to cover the missing levels. On the other side, coursebook developers need to make regular adaptations to keep up with the current needs.

Keywords: *Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, critical thinking, coursebook evaluation, critical reading, 21st century skills*

INTRODUCTION

The new era of the 21st century is named as the digital age in which people do not spend a huge amount of time searching for information. Rather, every bit of information is there so that people can get any data with a click. However, it is not certain whether the data found in one second is valid and trustworthy. At this point, being capable of differentiating right from wrong, valid from invalid, true from fake is highly significant in modern times. In another wording, having critical thinking (CT) skills enables people to have key possessions in today's world. These CT skills are the ones that should be practiced and developed systematically till they are transferred to real life situations. Human beings are not born fully equipped with CT skills (Synder & Synder, 2018), but they can be proficient in time with practice. At this juncture, schools step forward with their planned and systematic nature, so they can equip people to advance in CT skills. Care, Kim, Vista, and Anderson (2018) assert that the necessities of the societies are required to be corresponded with educational objectives. Today's modern world demands people to criticize, to chase after valid information, to evaluate and judge the phenomenon effectively because of the information pollution which is beyond measure.

When these problems are considered, there are precautions that need to be taken in English language education like any other field because CT comprises not only one discipline but also all the fields. Brown (2004) clarifies that linguistics factors are not enough by themselves; critical thinking should also be included in English language teaching courses. From the perspectives of English language education, the Ministry of National Education in Türkiye (2018) updated the English curriculum considering the latest trends. Even though the components of the educational systems are expected to be complementary to each other, there are some problems that prevent the successful application of CT. Curriculum, as one of the broadest elements of education, lacks in providing an effective source. OECD (2018) report shows that seventeen member countries do not carry out critical thinking skills efficiently in their curriculum and educational programs. As these countries are one of the most developed ones in the world, the findings are disappointing for the evolution of critical thinking because these countries are to be the pioneers of the implementation of CT. However, there is a gap between the expectation and the reality. On the other hand, teachers are not diligent enough in preparing extra materials as the active participants of educational systems and they are mostly too dependent on ready-made materials such as coursebooks. When the fallacies of coursebooks are considered, this situation is highly underwhelming because it is time consuming and burdensome to make adaptations on the printed sources like coursebooks. Therefore, it is often neglected to consider the coursebooks' usefulness or efficiency by teachers during the delivery of the courses. Thus, coursebook evaluation needs to be conducted primarily in order to raise the validity and success of the coursebooks in CT development. The necessary steps and considerations need to be taken into account as a result of these studies. However, there are very few studies on the English coursebooks' evaluation considering CT when compared to other studies in Türkiye (Savaş, 2014; Ulum, 2016). Among many studies conducted in English language teaching in Türkiye, the rarity of coursebook evaluation studies in terms of CT stands out because there are many coursebooks from 2nd to 12th grade and there are countless subcategories of CT. On the contrary, the number of studies within this perspective is insufficient. Since the significance of CT is emphasized in the new era, the evaluation of coursebooks considering CT skills should be far more than the present situation. Therefore, the current study aims to evaluate the activities related to reading skill in accordance with Bloom's taxonomy and to uncover whether the critical thinking levels are implemented in the activities homogeneously by equally considering the lower (remembering, understanding, applying) and higher (analyzing, evaluating, creating) cognitive levels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Critical Thinking (CT)

Critical thinking is a long-standing idea even though it may be thought of as a modern term. Its root goes back to Socratic thinking, and it has been developed and elaborated by numerous scholars since then. Therefore, it is not easy to give a certain and single definition comprising all the sub-skills of critical thinking. However, the definition of CT introduced by Facoine (1990) in the Delphi Project has a comprehensive description of the term. According to Facoine (1990, p. 3), CT is a "*purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based*". Whereas numerous features of critical thinking are gathered to reflect on the term as extensively as possible in this definition, there are many other characteristics of critical thinkers such as (Sternberg, 1986; Douglas, 2000; Ruggerio, 2011):

- Reasoning ideas on a well-grounded support
- Being honest and tolerant
- Feeling thrilled in case of a problem
- Being incredulous
- Being curious in the learning process
- Being aware of learning processes
- Being more concentrated and focused.

Significance of Critical Thinking

As mentioned above, the history of CT was rooted in the times of Socrates. Since then, countless scholars have thought over this idea and they contributed to the literature. Therefore, there is no doubt that critical thinking plays a significant role in human life, especially in the field of education where future citizens are raised by deliberate curriculum. Education plays a crucial role in the development of critical thinkers because it enables people to receive pre-planned training. By implementing CT skills in schools, people can develop themselves as active users of those skills in their daily lives, as well. Since CT is a collection of various core skills, human beings could take advantage of them not only in their education but also in their daily lives. For instance, CT enables people to raise their attention (Cotrell, 2005). This sub-skill is incredibly useful both in education and in life. Concentration in education helps learners grasp ideas easier and faster without being distracted and disengaged. On the other hand, paying high attention in life may prevent people from many fallacious or misleading ways such as entering a wrong way or distinguishing biased and nonobjective information. Therefore, it is highly crucial to develop CT skills to take advantage of high quality of life.

Teaching Critical Thinking

Critical thinking comprises a set of skills that can be developed through systematic and dedicated training. Therefore, school environments are the best places to meet these demands with their pre-planned programming. CT is a skill which needs to be integrated not only in language learning but also in any other branch. What is more, the literature affirms that the current debate is not about whether to teach CT or not. It is about how to teach and which methods to use while developing CT in the classrooms. This indicates the absolute necessity of including CT skills into school subjects. To achieve the best practice of CT skills, some scholars proposed certain methods and techniques.

Ennis (1989) contributed four approaches to teach CT skills. The first one is teaching CT as a separate subject. Here, CT is regarded as an independent school subject such as English, math, or science. The skills and sub-skills of CT are needed to be taught one by one. The infusion approach, as the second one, enables learners to attain CT skills within the existing subjects in an explicit way. The immersion approach is similar to the second one apart from the way of presenting it. This time, these skills are implemented in the subjects implicitly and learners will not be aware of practicing CT. The last one as a mixed approach is the combination of one of the two approaches above along with teaching CT as a separate subject. At this point, learners will have a new school subject only for CT and they will be trained either implicitly or explicitly within their existing curriculum. Lipman (1994) offers two terms named skill-oriented and content oriented. These terms are respectively related to Ennis's infusion and immersion approaches. From a different point of view, Beyer (2008) signifies the importance of continuum in CT training till transferring it to their daily lives and the teachers' aid as scaffolding. Teachers are the main sources for learners in terms of helping and encouraging them. Lastly, Carr (1990) indicates the effect of critical reading on the achievement of critical thinking. Learners are not passive in the phase of reading. On the contrary, they apply numerous techniques such as guessing the meaning, making predictions, questioning etc. In this point of view, they communicate with the text rather than being a simple reader. Therefore, critical reading is highly crucial for CT development, especially for foreign language learners. Besides, writing to learn is also a beneficial technique for language learners. Here, learners write in two phases and check themselves to improve both their structures and their reasoning skills. With classification games, they differentiate the similarities and differences among objects, terms, ideas etc. These techniques and approaches can be referred considering the content and objectives of the subjects. However, the point that is common for all is the significance of teachers and the necessity of implementing CT skill. Therefore, teachers need to have the competence and determination to maintain a continuum and to scaffold learners successfully.

Critical Reading

Since CT has complex processes, readers go through some strategies to develop their skills, to ease their reading activity and to conduct effective reading. One of these key strategies is schema theory (Norris & Philips, 1987). It triggers the foreknowledge before reading to facilitate their understanding. Making connections with prior knowledge especially helps learners in the lower order thinking levels. As one of the most known strategies, skimming is also useful for critical reading (CR) because learners apprise whether to proceed to reading or not thanks to this strategy (Sutherland & Incera, 2001). Questioning has another significance for the development of CR since asking sophisticated and complicated questions leads to higher-level thinking (Sutherland & Incera, 2001). By previewing (Kurland, 2000) the text, learners get general information about it before reading. Similar to skimming, learners may judge the worthiness of it. Annotating (Varaprasant, 2000) is another core strategy for CR because learners have an active role in the reading phase as they take notes of significant points. Summarizing (Varaprasant, 2000), on the other hand, promotes CR because learners discern the main ideas of the text and restate these points with their own words. Making predictions and inferences (Duke & Pearson, 2008) is another active reading phase because learners try to guess and speculate what will happen next. In this way they can discover the implied meaning of the text, as well. Learners may also find some similarities in the text such as similar characteristics or events (McWhorter, 2012; as cited in Harida, 2016). Realizing these similarities is related to making generalizations as another strategy of CR. Besides, learners may find similar experiences in their lives. Making these kinds of connections are also highly beneficial for promoting CR and CT. Critical thinkers recognize what is a fact and what is an opinion (McWhorter, 2012). Differentiating these two terms while reading eases their comprehension and helps them in the higher order thinking levels.

Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

Bloom's revised taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) is an edited version of the original one by Bloom's scholars as a result of the current demands and necessities. Even though both taxonomies resemble each other in main perspectives, there are some adaptations and differences. First of all, the taxonomy has been converted into two-dimensions as cognitive and knowledge dimensions whereas the original one only had cognitive aspects. This resulted in more flexibility in theory and practice. Besides, the levels in the cognitive processes were detailed with sub-levels and their format has changed from word to verb. In this way, the levels known as *knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis* and *evaluation* turned to *remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating* and *creating*. Here, it is also obvious that the last two levels had the biggest change because the highest level in the original taxonomy was replaced to the fifth order in the revised one, and the highest level was determined as the creation of original and new ideas or products. These levels are also categorized as lower and higher-order thinking levels. The remembering, understanding, and applying levels constitute the lower levels while the analyzing, evaluating, and creating levels belong to the higher order thinking levels in Bloom's taxonomy. These levels starting from remembering as the lowest one goes up to creating which is considered as the highest level is demonstrated below.
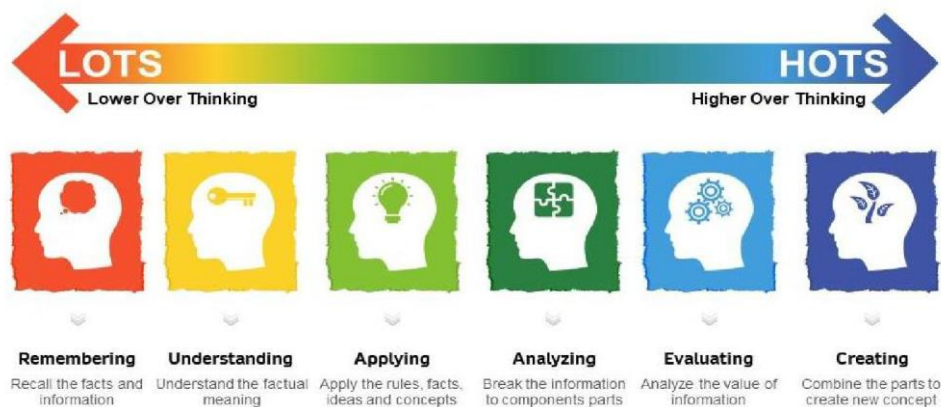
Figure 1. Bloom's Revised Taxonomy: The Cognitive Levels from LOTs to HOTs Retrieved from: https://www.slideteam.net/blooms-taxonomy-model-for-task-execution.html.

Coursebook Evaluation

Coursebooks are one of the language learning tools that are consulted nearly in each classroom. They are the incarnational versions of the curriculum objectives. There are many reasons for the high percentage of their usage as well as their disadvantages, so coursebook evaluation studies play a significant role in reflecting on these drawbacks and to increase the coursebooks' actuality and validity. It is necessary to be knowledgeable about the advantages of these commonly used coursebooks. Firstly, they provide suitable content (Demir & Ertaş, 2014) to reflect on the curriculum in the best way. Along with the coursebook itself, the CD, flashcards, activity books and posters are included as a pack of sources (Sucipto & Cahyo, 2019). Therefore, learners get exposed to various kinds of activities. Thanks to the richness of activities and sources, teachers do not need to spend too much time preparing materials, so this reduces their burden (Tsiplakides, 2011). Both teachers and learners get a chance to follow their progress (Tomlinson, 2003). By consulting the content page, they can look over how far they have advanced throughout the curriculum. Benefiting the same coursebook also enables the students to have equal content and material in education (Abdelwahab, 2013). Therefore, a student in a village will get the same material as a student in a city.

As well as the significantly beneficial sides of the coursebook, they contain substantial drawbacks. First of all, there is no human-made product without a flaw, so the mistakes are expected parts of the coursebooks. Since the coursebooks are pre-printed materials, it is not simple to make an adaptation and to print it again (Tsiplakides, 2011). Thus, making changes is a highly time-consuming process. When natural language acquisition is considered, coursebooks do not provide this kind of environment (Tsiplakides, 2011). On the contrary, coursebooks present an arbitrary way to learn a language. When it comes to the current educational notions such as individualized learning (O'Neill, 1982), coursebooks do not meet these demands. What is more, teachers who depend too much on the coursebooks tend not to prepare extra materials and so their creativity diminishes in time (O'Neill, 1982). For the reasons elaborated above, coursebook evaluation studies gain significance. Besides, the current demands of educational systems as a result of the technological age necessitate the coursebook evaluation studies and consider their results to keep up with those changes. In this way, the coursebooks suitable for the new generation will increase the quality of education.

Coursebook Evaluation Models

Coursebook evaluation is not a new term. Since the coursebooks are in use, their evaluation in different perspectives is regarded as a significant part of the educational studies and scholars proposed some models to carry out a successful evaluation.
Cunningsworth (1995) suggested two different models for coursebook (CB) evaluation. The most common one is the pre-use, in-use, and post-use of coursebook evaluation. This type of evaluation is

highly important especially for the teachers who will benefit from the coursebook throughout the school year. Therefore, teachers can evaluate the coursebook before using it whether the targeted CB is suitable for the target students or not. After selecting the CB, they can make in-use evaluation which is related to evaluation while actively using it. Thus, teachers can add some extra materials or skip some parts of the CB. When the CB is completed, teachers can analyze which worked well with their students. They can decide whether to use it for the next semester with some adaptations or to move on with another coursebook. The other model Cunningsworth (1995) described is the impressionist overview and in-depth evaluation. Thanks to the former, teachers can have a general idea of the coursebooks in a very short time by skimming through the content page, the images, and the design of the coursebook. However, the second one is related to analyzing every detail in depth as its name implies.

Ellis (1997) also signified predicted and retrospective evaluation. The first one demands making predictions about the coursebook without elaborating on it. On the contrary, the second is related to making decisions about its worthiness and usage of the CB in the future.
Similar to Cunningsworth (1995), Harmer (2001) proposed pre-use assessment and post-use evaluation. Therefore, teachers can appraise the coursebook before and after using it.
Lastly, McDonough and Shaw (2013) developed external, internal, and overall coursebook evaluation. The external evaluation demands a short check of the coursebooks by taking a glance at the coursebooks. Internal evaluation is related to considering the detailed review of the coursebook such as language use, gender issues, linguistic sides etc. Overall evaluation is about making a decision after examining the CB both externally and internally.

Research Questions

In accordance with the aim of the study, the following research questions were proposed.
1. What is the extent of the cognitive levels of the reading activities in the 7th grade English coursebook published by Ministry of National Education in Türkiye?
2. Is there a significant difference between the lower (remembering, understanding, applying) and higher (analyzing, evaluating, creating) thinking levels in the overall findings of the reading activities?

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The present study which evaluates the reading activities within the perspectives of critical thinking in the 7th grade English coursebook is an example of a qualitative method due to the evaluation of a written document. Seale (1999) describes qualitative methods as perceiving the problems which have not been realized and discussing them in a realistic and reliable way. Therefore, the critical thinking levels of the reading activities were aimed to be revealed by implementing a deep analysis throughout the coursebook.

The Material

The material of the current study has a significance as it is the main source of the analysis. Thus, the optimal coursebook was selected to represent the critical thinking levels in the reading activities. Covering reading skills twice in each unit repeatedly and containing various activities for the development of critical thinking skill were the main reasons for choosing the current coursebook. Besides, the length of the reading texts was long enough to enable the researcher to create supplementary materials since there were enough main and supporting ideas covered in the target texts. In this way, twenty reading texts were collected within ten units. Among these twenty texts, 91 activities were extracted to be evaluated. The target coursebook was one of the limitations of the current study because only 7th grade and its English coursebook were taken into account for the reasons elaborated above. Besides, the choice of reading texts among other skills was another

limitation due to their systematic occurrence in the coursebook when compared to other skills. Within these perspectives, Bloom's revised taxonomy was adopted as the measurement tool for evaluating the reading text questions because it provides a deep and structured background in critical thinking.

Data Collection and Analysis

Document analysis which is one of the techniques of qualitative methodology was adopted since the study comprises a coursebook as a target material which needs to be appreciated and comprehended in depth in terms of its critical thinking application (Bowen, 2009). Wach (2013) points out that document analysis helps researchers evaluate the documents meticulously and systematically. Some steps were taken to conduct the document analysis. After choosing the document and checking its originality, it was elaborated on the selected skill. Then, the selected data is analyzed with deductive content analysis because it enables researchers to construct the meaning of the documents in accordance with the cognitive skills in Bloom's taxonomy instead of counting the elements quantitatively (Seif, 2012). At this point, Bloom's revised taxonomy was used to achieve a systematic analysis from the beginning to the end and to harmonize the theoretical and practical points by referring to this comprehensive tool. The cognitive dimension in Bloom's revised taxonomy was selected as a coding unit, so the data collection and analysis processes were mainly based on the sub-categories of Bloom's revised taxonomy. The results were also interpreted considering the same categorization.

Validity and Reliability

Achieving validity and reliability in qualitative studies has a significant value because these studies are mainly under the influence of researchers. However, this does not mean that they have totally subjective results. Yıldırım and Şimşek (2018) state that qualitative studies rise in value when validity and reliability are attained. For validity, the data collection and analysis steps were elaborated, and the coding of each reading activity was clearly represented and explained. When it comes to reliability, two independent experienced English teachers were included in the coding process and the reliability formula of Miles and Huberman's (1994) (number of agreements/ number of agreements + disagreements) was implemented. With 83.5%, the reliability was gained.

RESULTS

The first research question is highly extensive and comprehensive since it aims to reflect the coding of the study as well as displaying the overall results. Therefore, the finding of each cognitive level is interpreted with the illustration from the coursebook in the beginning. Later, the overall findings are presented and clarified.

Figure 2. An Example for the Remembering Level

The activity above is an example of the remembering level in Bloom's revised taxonomy because learners are not required to comprehend the meaning of the text. Instead, they could simply detect the names from the text and select the option that is written both in the intended paragraph and in the answers.

Figure 3. An Example for the Understanding Level

This activity provides some numbers for each sportsperson and learners are aimed to find out what they stand for. Conducting this activity requires making sense of the numbers found in the text, so it promotes the understanding level.

Figure 4. An Example of the Applying Level

The third activity demands learners to make connections between what they have read with their personal lives. While learners are staying connected to the text in terms of the target vocabulary, sentence structures, and similar sentences, they are asked to express their choices. Therefore, this activity is a sample of the applying level.

In the fourth sample, the learners are asked the following question:
Think about what makes someone successful in her/his life and talk about it.
First of all, this is not a kind of question that could be found in the text explicitly. However, the learners are intended to grasp the sense of the text as a first step. Later, they are expected to give meaningful reasons for the question by summarizing their thoughts and the knowledge they gained thanks to the text. These exercises result in the analyzing level.

Figure 5. An Example of the Evaluating Level

The activity above demands learners to guess about future events. While predicting these events, they need to attribute sensible explanations and justifications by referring to the text. This kind of activity triggers higher thinking since it enables making connections with the unknown by grounding them for strong reasons. Thus, it is considered as the evaluating level.

Figure 6. An Example of the Creating Level

The last sample puts forward some original ideas such as underwater cities or chips in human beings' brains and learners are aimed to express their ideas on these unique themes. They need to pass through some stages to be able to conduct this activity such as being knowledgeable in the target topics, being aware of their outcomes etc. As the last step, they could be ready to give reasons to their thoughts in a meaningful and original way. Each answer will differ from each other, and they will base their ideas on strong evidence. Since this activity enables learners to produce original answers, it results in the creating level.
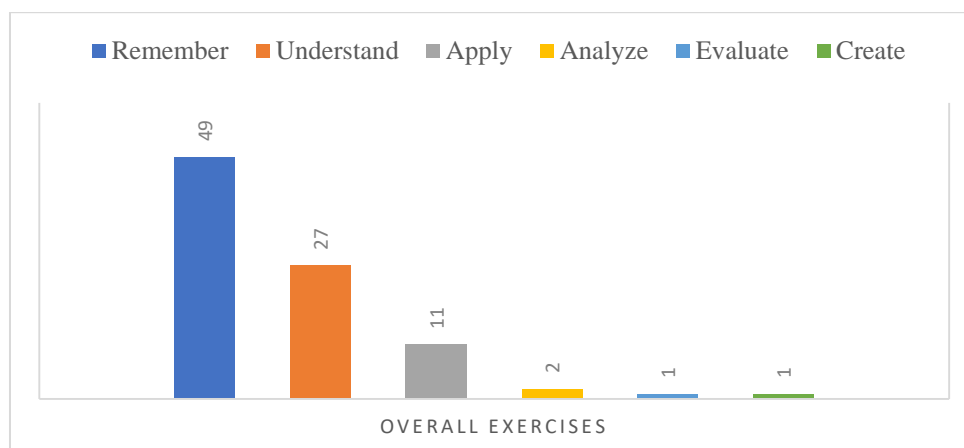

Figure 7. The Overall Findings of the Coding

Apart from reflecting on the activities one by one, reviewing the overall findings provides the answer to the first research question in a more evident way. The figure above displays the results of the coding according to the six cognitive levels. In the data collection process, 91 activities were gathered in twenty reading texts. Among these, 49 activities resulted in remembering which is the first cognitive level of the lower levels. Besides, it is obvious that more than half of the activities belong to this level. It can be stated that the remembering level had the biggest proportion in the reading activities of the coursebook. The understanding level followed it with a frequency of 27. Even though this is less frequent than the remembering level, the understanding level is relatively high. With 11 activities, the applying level was closer to the homogeneous result. However, the disproportion of the other levels suppressed its significance. When it comes to the higher-order thinking levels, there is a tremendous difference with the lower levels even at the first glance of Figure 8. The analyzing level had only two activities in the reading text while the evaluating and creating levels were presented in only one activity. Since these proportions are incomparably low, the practice of higher levels does not provide an intended result. Therefore, it can also be said that there is not a homogeneous distribution among the thinking levels, especially in the categories of higher and lower levels.

The second research question is related to the differentiation of two main categories as higher and lower order thinking levels in the cognitive development of Bloom's revised taxonomy. Thus, it

was considered whether a significant difference was encountered between higher and lower levels. To do so, the Chi-Square test was applied using SPSS Version 22. The results are displayed below.

			LOTS.HOTS		Total
			LOTs	HOTs	
activities	Remember	Count	49	0	**49**
		Expected Count	46,8	2,2	**49,0**
	Understand	Count	27	0	**27**
		Expected Count	25,8	1,2	**27,0**
	Apply	Count	11	0	**11**
		Expected Count	10,5	,5	**11,0**
	Analyze	Count	0	2	**2**
		Expected Count	1,9	,1	**2,0**
	Evaluate	Count	0	1	**1**
		Expected Count	1,0	,0	**1,0**
	Create	Count	0	1	**1**
		Expected Count	1,0	,0	**1,0**
Total		Count	87	4	**91**
		Expected Count	87,0	4,0	**91,0**

Table 1. The Results of SPSS Data for the General Findings

The table 1 introduces the content of the higher and lower-level categories as well as the frequencies of their occurrences in the activities. The first three levels as *remember*, *understand*, and *apply* constitute the lower levels while the last three levels as *analyze*, *evaluate*, and *create* form the higher levels.

|	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	91,000 [a]	5	,000
Likelihood Ratio	32,818	5	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	41,127	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	91		

a. 9 cells (75,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,04.

Table 2. The Results of SPSS Data for Significance

The answer to the second research question is uncovered with the table 2. According to the results, it could be asserted that there is a significant difference between the lower and higher levels since the value is below .05. Therefore, it could be understood that the results of the remembering, understanding, and applying levels highly differ from the analyzing, evaluating, and creating levels.

After finding the answers to the research questions, extra activities for the missing levels especially the analyzing, evaluating, and creating ones are needed to be practiced more. Therefore, a sample supplementary material as an adapted version of the reading activities is depicted below. In this way, the teachers also can take advantage of such materials to develop critical thinking skills of the learners. It is obvious that the coursebook is lacking in providing higher levels effectively, especially in terms of achieving homogeneity among levels. Therefore, it is inevitable to prepare supplementary materials for learners' development of CT skills. At this point, teachers play a significant role because they are expected to cover up the deficiencies of the coursebook. Below, a sample of supplementary activities for teachers is depicted. According to this sample, the lower levels in the coursebook are considered to be given. Thus, the higher levels are covered as an example.
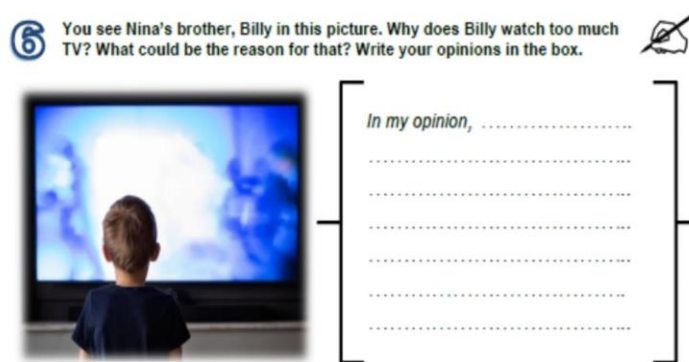
Figure 8. A Sample Activity for the Analysis Level

The reading text and its activities of the coursebook provided the remembering, understanding, and applying levels, so this sample activity above is an example of the analyzing level. Here, learners are asked to estimate the reason for the character's TV addiction by correlating the text. While doing this, they will give reasonable ideas to the current situation.
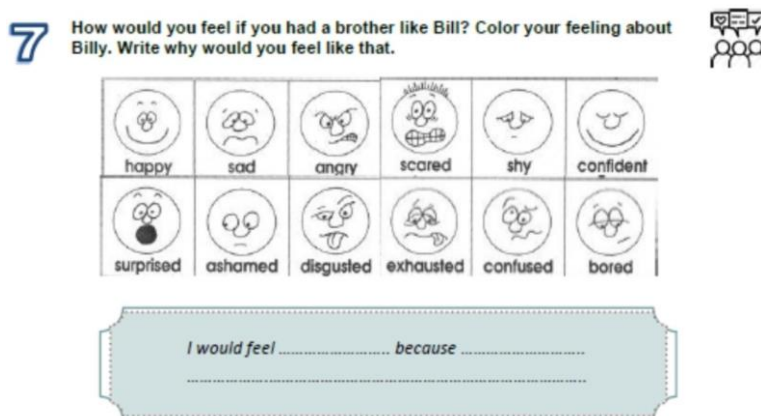
Figure 9. A Sample Activity for the Evaluation Level

The next activity supports the evaluating level. In this activity, learners are aimed to express their feelings towards a certain situation and to verbalize the reasons behind those feelings. Thus, they will justify their feelings by giving sensible reasons.
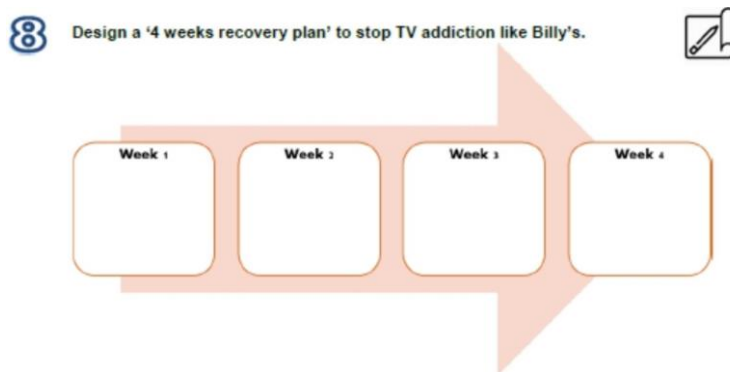
Figure 10. A sample Activity for the Creation Level

The last activity develops the highest level of Bloom's revised taxonomy, creating, because learners are expected to make their original plans to stop the TV addiction. Each child will come up with a unique design by considering the situation of the character and taking advantage of his/her real-life experiences.

DISCUSSION

The current study resulted in the high dominance of the lower levels in the reading activities of the English coursebook. The higher levels were too rare, and it was not enough for critical thinking development of the learners, so it can be said that the coursebook was not successful in terms of achieving CT. There is a lot more significant steps to be taken to achieve a successful coursebook to improve critical thinking skills because the percentages between the lower and higher cognitive levels in Bloom's taxonomy were extremely far from each other. Therefore, the coursebook cannot be taken as granted for CT. Thus, several implications may be provided for teachers and coursebook developers. As the inseparable parts of every educational context, teachers have direct access to each learner. Thus, they may use this advantage by asking intriguing questions in the classroom even though the coursebooks do not provide them. This could be an effective way to cover the deficiencies in terms of critical thinking development. In a more planned way, teachers could also conduct coursebook evaluation considering their students' levels and backgrounds. Then, they can prepare supplementary materials according to the students' needs and interests. Besides, coursebook developers need to consider the results of these studies and make immediate adaptations considering the new necessities of the world, especially critical thinking.

The situation of coursebooks in terms of reflecting critical thinking skills differ from coursebook to coursebook. While some provide a homogeneous distribution, other may be too focused on the lower levels like the current study. Since English is one of the most common foreign languages around the world, there are numerous research results.

Firstly and most surprisingly, the study conducted by Zaitturrahmi, Kasım and Zülfikar (2017) ended in the lack of higher levels in the activities. The coursebook published in Indonesia revealed the high dominance of the lower levels. These results are well behind the current study even if it does not have an expected outcome. It is clear that the higher levels are totally neglected. This means that critical thinking has no significance in the coursebook utilized in Indonesia.

Just like the current study asserting the dominance of the lower levels, many other coursebooks gathered similar findings. For example, Es-Salhi and ElFatihi (2019) assessed the Gateway English 2 coursebook by utilizing Bloom's taxonomy. They found a high percentage of the lower levels. The higher levels were not enough in number to promote CT. Sadighi, Yamini, Bagheri, and Zamanian (2018) conducted similar research by using a different coursebook in a university context. The high percentage (73%) of the lower levels stood out in the results. San (2018) analyzed Global English A2+ considering CT skills for university degree learners. Similarly, Raqqad and Ismail (2018) examined an English coursebook named Action Pack 12 in Jordan. The reading questions of

the coursebook were coded according to Bloom's taxonomy and the lower levels doubled the higher ones. Thus, the questions were not equally distributed among levels, and it did not promote critical thinking. Quite recently, Ariwan, Kholidi and Putro (2023) evaluated the reading comprehension questions of a national coursebook in India for the 10th graders. As a result of the coding with the help of Bloom's taxonomy, the knowledge and comprehension levels were the most frequent ones. Therefore, it was not a successful result for critical thinking development. Just like the current study, the lower levels showed in more activities and the higher levels were too little to be effective. Even though the coursebooks described above belong to different countries, the results are gathered in the same category that they represent the lower levels mostly and that they should provide more activities in higher levels to achieve homogeneity. This result is a very disappointing one because it is clearly understood that the problem is not just in some limited books or in some specific context. Rather, it is a universal problem. Even though critical thinking needs to be possessed universally, the most consulted materials in education are lack of providing a successful and effective practice of CT skills. Since the current study can be described in this category, there are many lessons to be drawn. First of all, the reading activities should include a variety of activities in terms of CT. They should include higher levels as well as providing lower levels. Even though the lower levels are the first steps of successful CT skills, their ever-repeating status is a failure for the CT development. Therefore, learners need more chances to practice at higher levels, so the coursebooks need to provide this chance by having more balance between higher and lower levels.

There are some other studies whose results were more successful and balanced when critical thinking is considered. For instance, the coursebook named Think English was evaluated by Wu and Pei (2018) and it was one of the representatives of a balanced coursebook. The coursebook reached 47% of the higher levels in the reading activities while 53% of them belonged to the lower levels. This result means that the activities could be planned considering the critical thinking development of the learners. However, the other two coursebooks examined in the same study did not attain the similar successful results and they highly supported the lower levels. Even though the study of San (2019) did not result in a perfect balance in the reading activities, the findings of the higher levels were promising and encouraging for the coursebook developers. According to his study, the higher levels were practiced in 32.06% of the reading exercises in the Global A2+ coursebook. Therefore, it can be more balanced with some slight adaptations by the teachers. Quite similar to this study, Febrina, Usman and Muslem (2019) examined a regional coursebook named *Bahasa Inggriss*. The reading activities of this coursebook resulted in 33.4% of HOTs and 66.6% of LOTs. A current study conducted by Stevani and Tarigan (2022) found similar findings with the previous ones. After examining three English coursebooks named Active Reading, English in Mind and Advanced Reading Power, they discovered close results among levels except the creating. It can be stated that these coursebooks could promote thinking skills evenly when the creating level is supplemented with adaptations. When compared with the previous study, they have a very close finding, so it can also be said that these results are highly inspiring for future coursebooks. What is more surprising was the result of Sucipto and Cahyo's (2019) evaluation in terms of balance because they found that the coursebook *Bright 2* was a perfect example of this. By having 51% of lower levels and 49% of the higher levels, this coursebook could promote learners' critical thinking development from the lower to higher levels successfully. Therefore, it can be one of the ideal coursebooks to improve learners' CT skills. Similarly, the study conducted by Nainggolan and Wirza (2021) evaluated the coursebook *English in Mind*. As a result of the content analysis and an interview with a teacher who uses the target coursebook, it was found that 102 of the 168 questions belong to the higher levels. Thus, it is clear that the higher levels were repeated and practiced more than the lower levels. As a result of the last two studies, it can be inferred that the coursebooks have the power to prove a perfect example to develop critical thinking. The homogeneity could be achieved among cognitive levels and learners could be provided rich materials in terms of CT skills. This could also be beneficial for teachers who are not aware enough in the implementation of these skills. It can be referred that there is a hope to achieve the target of developing more structured English coursebooks. Therefore, it is highly significant to consider the result of the coursebook evaluation studies and to make adaptations in the coursebooks from time to time considering these results. Besides, the studies may even be elaborated. For example, more than one coursebook may be included in the evaluation to conduct a comparative study. In this way, the relations among

coursebooks may be discovered rather than focusing deeply on one coursebook. Although the current study only focused on the reading text questions, the evaluation of four-skills can be considered to reflect on the differences among skills and to analyze the coursebook in unity. In this way, the coursebook could be understood more comprehensively with its each component and skill.

CONCLUSION

The current study aimed to evaluate the reading texts of the 7th grade English coursebook within the perspective of critical thinking. More specifically, the cognitive levels of each reading activity were intended to be revealed by coding them according to Bloom's revised taxonomy. Considering these aims, two research questions were answered. The findings of the first question had a highly comprehensive answer. The cognitive levels were elaborated as samples from the activities extracted from the coursebook. Each level was found at least once in the coursebook, so they all could be described. When it comes to the overall findings of the coding, the results were surprising. The findings revealed that high proportion of the activities support the first cognitive level. The understanding and applying levels took up the rest of the activities which was slightly described. These findings indicated that the homogeneity is not achieved in terms of critical thinking in the reading activities.

The findings of the second question presented the significance between the lower and higher levels. At this point, the levels stood out as two groups (lower and higher levels) and a significant difference was observed between the higher and lower levels. Therefore, it is stated that the results of lower-level activities substantially differ from the findings of the higher levels.

Since critical thinking is one of the trendiest issues in today's world, its application and improvement play a significant role in education. The evaluation of MoNE publications in accordance with critical thinking is rare even though thousands of students in Turkey utilize these sources as the main material in language learning. Therefore, this study provides a valuable contribution to the literature in terms of coursebook evaluation within critical thinking perspectives because there is a lack of coursebook evaluation studies considering the critical thinking applications.

Last but not least, the further studies may touch to coursebook evaluation from wider perspectives by combining four skills in CT teaching. They may also involve various coursebooks in the secondary education to make generalizations based on the grades and learner levels.

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Arap Dili Belağatında Tevcih Sanatı

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Öz: Arapça dil edebiyatının zenginlikleri, belagat alanında çeşitli sanatların geliştirilmesine olanak tanımıştır. Bu sanatlardan biri olan "*tevcih*" (توجيه) belagat literatüründe önemli bir konuma sahiptir. Bu kavram, muhataplarına çeşitli anlam ihtimalleri sunarak iletişimi zenginleştirme amacını gütmektedir. İslam öncesi dönemde Arapça şiir ve nesirde sıkça kullanılan tevcih, Kur'an-ı Kerim'de de önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. Kur'an-ı Kerim'in nazil olduğu dönemde, özellikle retorik açıdan güçlü olan elit bir topluluğa hitap edilmekteydi. Muhatap kişinin, sözü söyleyenin hangi anlamı kastettiğini net bir şekilde anlaması gerekmekteydi. Tevcih sanatı sayesinde dilin ifade gücünü artırarak anlamı muhataba kolaylıkla bırakıyordu. Bu sanat, Arapçada önemli bir yer tutmasına karşın, diğer bir belagat sanatı olan "*tevriye*" ile karıştırılmaktadır. Tevriye, yalnızca bir lafızla yapılabiliyorken, tevcih daha uzun cümleler ya da birkaç kelime ile çift anlama gelme olasılığı gerçekleştirilir. Ancak uzak anlamın yanı sıra hem olumlu hem de olumsuz ihtimaller bulunabilmektedir. Tevcih ve diğer belagat sanatları, Arap dilinin zenginliği ve esnekliğini yansıtan önemli örneklerdir. *İhâm*, *tahyîl*, *mugalata-i ma'neviyye*, *ibhâm* gibi diğer sanatlar da, bazen tevcih ile karıştırılabilmekte, temelde her biri kendi özgün yapılarına sahiptirler. Özellikle *tevcih* ve *ibhâm* gibi sanatlar, metinlerin anlamını çeşitlendirerek, muhatapları düşündürmek amacını hedeflemektedir. Bu nedenle, bu sanatların anlaşılması, Arapça metinlerin doğru bir şekilde çevrilmesi adına hayati öneme sahiptir. Bu makale, tevcih ve diğer belagat sanatlarının anlamını ve işleyişini daha da derinlemesine incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu sayede, Arap dilinin belagat açısından zenginliği ve etkisini daha iyi anlama fırsatı sunacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Arap Dili, Tevcih, Belağat, Sanat, Kur'ân-ı Kerim.*

The Art of Tawjih in Arabic Language Rhetoric

Abstract: *The richness of Arabic language literature has enabled the development of various arts in the field of eloquence. One of these arts, "tawjih" (توجيه), has an important position in rhetorical literature. This literary concept aims to enrich communication by offering its interlocutors various possibilities of meaning. Tawjih, which was frequently used in Arabic poetry and prose in the pre-Islamic period, also plays an important role in the Holy Qur'an. At the time of the Qur'an's revelation, it was addressed to an elite community that was particularly rhetorically strong. It was necessary for the addressee to clearly understand what the speaker meant. Thanks to the art of tawjih, it increased the expressive power of the language and left the meaning to the addressee easily. Although this art has an important place in Arabic rhetoric, it is often confused with another rhetorical art, "tawriya". While tawriya can be performed with only one word, tawjih is performed with longer sentences or a few words with the possibility of double meaning. In tawjih, however, there can be both positive and negative possibilities in addition to the distant meaning. Tawjih and other rhetorical arts are important examples that reflect the richness and flexibility of the Arabic language. Other arts such as ihām, tahyīl, mugalata-i ma'neviyya, and ibhām are sometimes confused with tawjih, and each of them has its own unique structure. Especially arts such as tawjih and ibhām are used to diversify the meaning of texts and to make the interlocutors think. Therefore, understanding these arts is of vital importance for the correct interpretation and translation of Arabic texts. This article aims to delve deeper into the meaning and functioning of tawjih and other rhetorical arts. In this way, it will provide an opportunity to better understand the richness and impact of the Arabic language in terms of eloquence.*

Keywords: *Arabic Language, Tawjih, Rhetoric, Art, Qur'an.*

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1. TEVCİH SANATI

1.1. Tevcih/ Ezdâd/ Muhtemilü'z-zıddeyn/ Zü'l-Vecheyn

Tevcih, "وجه", *tef'îl* vezninde türetilmiş(İbn Fâris, 1389/1969, s. 6/89) olup çoğul şekli " أوجه /وجوه" şeklindedir(Ebû Zeyd, 1433/2012) . "Yüz/yüzler, dönmek, yıldızların yönü, izlenilen yol, karşılanan her yön, yollamak, göndermek, nişan almak, yönlendirmek, rehberlik etmek" gibi anlamlara gelmektedir. "وَجْهُ الْكَلامِ" (*kelamın yüzü*) ifadesindeki "وَجْهُ" kelimesinden kasıt sözün anlatılmak istendiği şey demektir. "وَجِّهِ الْحَجَر وِجْهَةَ مَالِهِ" (*Taşı uygun tarafına yönlendirdi.*) ifadesi ile işi olması gerektiği gibi yönetemeyen birine söylenen sözdür. " "كِسَاءٌ مُوَجَّهٌ" (*Yüzü olan/yüzlü elbise*) 'den kasıt, iki tarafı olan ve iki tarafı da giyilen kıyafettir (İbn Manzûr, 1414/1994, s. 4/4775). Hz. Peygamber (s.a.s.), Ebü'd-Derdâ'dan rivayet edilen bir hadiste şöyle buyurmaktadır: "لا تَفْقَهُ حَتَّى تَرَى لِلْقُرْآنِ وُجُوهًا", *"Kur'an'ın birçok anlamını (ara yüzünü) görmeden onu anlamayacaksın"*(Medînî, 1406/1986, s. 3/390) ifadesindeki "وُجُوهَ" kelimesi, farklı ve çeşitli anlamlarında kullanılmıştır (İbn Manzûr, 1414/1994, s. 4/4775). Ehl-i Beyt'le ilgili şöyle bir sözde bulunmaktadır: "لا يُحِبُّنا الأَحْدَبُ الْمُوَجَّهُ" *İki kamburu olan bizi sevmez"* cümlesinden (الْمُوَجَّهُ) iki taraflı anlamında kullanılmıştır (ez-Zemahşeri, 1364/1945, s. 4/64) . "وَجَّهْتُ الشَّيْءَ" *Bir şeyi, bir yöne doğru çevirdim, yönlendirdim"*, "anlamına gelmektedir (İbn Fâris, 1389/1969, s. 6/89) . "الوَجْهُ" kelimesi, çeşit ve kısım anlamı da gelmektedir. Bu konuda konuşmanın *"Birkaç yönü veya kısmı vardır"*, denilir (ez-Zebîdî, 1385/1965, s. 36/543). *Ebû Hureyre'den gelen bir hadisi şerifte ise"*ذُوالوَجِهَيْنِ لا يكونُ عند الله وَجِيهًا" (Aynî, 1390/1970, s. 22/131), *"İki yüzlü olanın Allah katında yeri yoktur"*buyrulmuştur.

Şair Beşşâr b. Bürd (öl.167/784), Zeyd isimli (tek gözlü) bir terziye elbise diktirmek istemiş, bunun üzerine terzi ona şaka olsun diye şunu söylemiş: *"Ben bunu dikeceğim ama diktiğim bir cübbemi yoksa başka bir elbise mi olduğunu anlamayacaksın!"* deyince, Beşşâr'da ona: *"Eğer yaparsan hakkında öyle bir şiir söylerim ki, bunu duyan hiç kimse senin için dua ya da beddua edip etmediğimi anlamayacak"* demiş. Terzi dediğini yapınca ve Beşşâr'da şöyle bir şiir söylemiş:(Abbasî, 1367/1947, s. 3/138; Bürd, 1393/1973, s. 4/9)

1.خَـــــــاطَ لِـــــي "زَيْـــــدٌ" قَبَـــــاءٌ   أَيْـــــــــتَ عَيْنَيْـــــــهِ سَـــــــــوَاءْ

2.فُـــــــلْ لِمـــــــنْ يَعْـــــرِفُ هَـــــذَا   أَمْـــــــدِيحٌ أَمْ هِجَـــــــــــاءْ

1. Zeyd bana bir cübbe dikti, keşke gözleri bir olsaydı

2. Bunu duyanlara sor, bu övgü mü, hiciv mi?

Bu şiirde tevcih, tam olarak görebilmek için kör gözünün iyileşmesi için dua mı, yoksa diğer gözünün de kör olması için beddua mı ettiği anlaşılmamaktadır. Şair Ebu't-Tayyib el-Mütenebbî (ö.354/965), Kâfûr el-İhşîdî[2] (ö. 357/968) hakkında şöyle bir şiir söylemiştir:(Mütenebbî, 1380/1961, s. 1/672)

ولله ســـــرٌّ فـــــي عُـــــلاكَ وإنّمَـــــا   كـــــلامُ العـــــدى ضربٌ مـــنَ الهَـــذَيَانِ

Yüksek mertebeye varmanızda, Allah'ın bir sırrı (hikmeti) vardır, düşmanlarınızın sözleri hezeyandan/saçmalıktan mı? ibarettir.

Mütenebbî bu şiirinde, yüce Allah'ın sana verdiği yücelik ve sadelikte bir sır var. Düşmanların bu sırrı bilmeyip Kâfûr hakkında konuştukları hezeyanlardır, ifadesinde tevcih sanatı (hem övgü hem de hiciv) anlamı taşımaktadır. Hiciv yönü, düşmanların bu yüce makama gelmenizi talihsiz bir kadere bağlamışlardır. Övgü anlamı ise, *"Ey Kâfûr; yaptığın büyük bir hayırlı amel yüzünden Allah sana bu yüce makamı bahşetmiş ve düşmanların söyledikleri, yaptığın ve Allah'ın sana verdiği şeylerin önünde*

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[2] Müdebbirü'd-devle Kâfûr b. Abdillâh el-İhşîdî (ö. 357/968), Mısır'ın İhşîdîler Devleti'nin kurucusu ve önemli bir lideridir. Sudan'dan köle olarak getirilen Kâfûr, efendisi Muhammed b. Tuğç'un güvenini kazanarak siyasi ve askerî görevlere atanmıştır. Seyfüddevle ile olan mücadelesinde etkili bir rol oynayan Kâfûr, h.333 yılında Suriye seferine kumandan olarak tayin edilmiş ve başarılar elde etmiştir. Muhammed b. Tuğç'un vefatından sonra İhşîdî Devleti'ni yöneten Kâfûr, etkili yönetimi ve başarılarıyla tanınan bir lider olmuştur. (Ağırakça, 2004)

*hiçbir şeydir"*biçimindedir.

İbn ʿUneyn (öl. 630/1233), Emevî Camii'nde yürürken İbnü'l-Mü'eyyed adında yüksek bir memurun görevinden azledildiğini, bundan sebep çok üzgün olduğunu duyar ve ona şöyle bir şiir söyler: (Muahmmed, 1413/1993, s. 80)

وذَمَّ الزَّمــــــــــــانَ وأبــــــــــــدَى السَّــــــــــــفَةْ	1.شــــكا ابـــنُ المؤيّـــد مـــن عزلِـــهِ
نَ فـــــــــتظلم أيّامَــــــــه المُنصِــــــــفَةْ	2.فقلـــــتُ لــــه: لا تـــــذُمَّ الزَّمـــــا
فــــلا عَــــدْلَ فيـــكَ ولا مَعْرفَــــةْ	3.ولا تغضـــبنَّ إذا مـــا صُـــرفْتَ

1. İbnü'l-Mu'eyyed, görevden alınmasından şikayetçi oldu ve zamanı kınayarak aptallığını ortava çıkardı.

2. Ben de ona: Zamanı kınama, onun adil davrandığı günlere zulmetmiş olursun.

3. İşten atıldığınada kızma, zira zaman sana adaletli ve nezaketli davranmamış.

İbn ʿUneyn'in, İbn'ul-Mü'eyyede zamana kızmamasını istemesinin sebebi; zamanın kendisine vaktinde adaletli ve nezaketli davrandığını, hâlbuki aynı zaman/vakit adaleti gereğince onu konumundan ederek aptallaştırdığından bahsederek, ona şiirinde tevcih sanatının iki yönüyle hitap etmiştir.

Şair Zeynüddin İbnü'l-Verdî (öl.749/1349), bedevi bir kadına olan aşkını şu beyitlerle ifade eder:(Hamevî, 1425/2004, s. 1/309)

| عـــذبٌ ولـــي فيهـــا عـــذابٌ مـــذابْ | 1. هويــــــــــتُ أعرابيــــــــــةَ ريقُهـــــــــــا |
| نبهـــــانَ والعـــــذّالُ فيهـــــا كـــــلابْ | 2. رأســـي بهـــا شـــيبانُ والطـــرفُ مـــنْ |

1. Tükürüğü bana tatlı gelen Bedevi bir kadını sevdim, aşkından ateşle erimiş bir acım vardır.

2. Bu aşk beni öyle dağınık hâle getirdi ki, başımı Şeybân'dan[3], bakışlarını da Nebhân'dan[4] almış, ama sevdamı kınayanlar ise Kilâb[5] tandır.

Bu şiirdeki tevcih sanatı ikinci beyitte bulunmaktadır. Şiirin birinci bölümünde (شيب) kelimesi "saçın ağarmasını" ifade eden kinayeli bir kullanımı Şeybân kabilesine; (نبه) kelimesini de "uyanık olmak" anlamında kinayeli bir anlatımla Nebhân kabilesine, kendisini kınayanları da Kilâb kabilesine benzetmiştir. Meramını üç kabile üzerinde anlatırken, ikinci beyitte tevcih anlamı taşıyan Kilâb kabilesinin kök anlamı (كلبْ) "köpek" anlamında kullanarak kendisini eleştirenlere hakaret etmiştir.

Belagat'te tevcihin; "iki zıt anlama gelen bir sözün hal ve makam hangisine müsait ise o anlaşılır" şeklinde tanımlamasına(Manastırlı, 1308/1891, s. 377; Teftâzânî, 1307/1890, s. 421) ilave olarak Sekkâkî (öl.626/1229) "İki zıt yöne ihtimal veren sözü söylemek" anlamında kelimeyi terimleştirerek(Sekkâkî, 1407/1987, s. 427), kendisinden sonra gelen âlimlercede bu tanımın benimsenmesini sağlamıştır. Tevcih sanatı, kullanılan sözün olumlu/olumsuz, övgü/yergi anlamlarının da bir arada bulunduğu bir ifade tarzını içerirken, anlamın idraki muhataba bırakılmaktadır. Muhatap kişi, tevcihli kelimenin içerdiği ifadeleri ya da anlamın yönünü net bir şekilde anlayamamakta olup bu kavrama aynı zamanda Muhtemil'z-zıddeyn de denmiştir (Bilgegil, 109/1989, s. 191; Cevdet Paşa, 1438/2017, s. 127).

Örneğin, *"Keşke iki gözü de bir olsaydı"*(Bulut, 1437/2016, s. 217) ifadesi, tek gözlü bir kişi için hem dua hem de beddua anlamını içerirken, tevcih sanatı özellikleri itibarıyla sözün çeşitli katmanlara sahip olduğunu gösteren ve dinleyiciyi düşünmeye sevk eden en önemli etmendir (Güceyüz, 1444/2023, s. 315). Bu bağlamda, tevcih sanatının belagat literatüründeki önem ve etkisi, yüzeysel anlamının

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[3] Benî Şeybân, Adnânîler'e mensup bir Arap kabilesi (Demircan, 2004).

[4] Benî Nebhân, bir Arap kabilesi (Özervarlı, 2004).

[5] Benî Kilâb, Kilâb b. Rebîa'ya mensup bir Arap kabilesi (Küçükaşcı, 2004).

ötesine geçerek, derinlemesine düşünmeyi ve çeşitli duygusal yanıtları tetikleyerek potansiyelini ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Temel amacı ise söze açıklık kazandırmak olduğuna göre, tevcih sanatı da bu bağlamda öne çıkmaktadır.

Tevcih sanatının diğer adlarından biride Ezdâd'dır. "Zıd/Ezdâd" bir şeyin aksi, tersi anlamındadır. İki şeyin bir anda toplanılması mümkün olmayan şey, gece/gündüz örneği gibidir (İbn Fâris, 1389/1969, s. 6/88). Siyah/beyaz gibi iki zıtlar anlamında da kullanılmıştır (Askerî, 1412/1992, s. 326; Kefevî, 1413/1993, s. 574). Karşıtlık, Mukâbele anlamı da bulunmaktadır (Cevherî, 1407/1987, s. 6/88). Bir şeyin zıddı ya da tersinin karşılığıdır(İbn Manzûr, 1414/1994, s. 3/263), çünkü iki zıt birbirine muhaliftir. Kutrub: "Biri diğerine göre zıt anlamlı olan lafza denir", demiştir (Kutrub, 1405/1984, s. 70). Bir diğer tanımda Ebû Tayyib el-Halebî'nin (öl. 351/962) her muhalif olan zıt anlamlı olur görüşü, Arapların kelimelere yüklediği zıt anlamlar teorisinden farklıdır (Enbârî, 1407/1987, s. 1). Ebû Tayyib el-Halebî; "Kuvvet ve cehalet iki farklı şey olmakla beraber zıt iki şey değildir. Zira Kuvvetin zıddı zayıflık olup, cehaletin zıddı ilimdir. Farklılık zıtlıktan daha kapsamlıdır. İki zıt, farklı anlamda olmakla beraber, iki farklı şey zıt anlamlı değildir" Görüşünü ileri sürmüştür (El-Lugavî, 1382/1963, s. 1/1). Bu farklılık; karanlık ve ekşilik gibi biri diğerinin niteliği ile ilgili değildir. Hâlbuki zıtlık, nitelikte ters ilişkide, siyah beyaz gibidir. Zira zıt anlamlılar farklı olmakla beraber, her farklı zıt değildir (Askerî, 1412/1992, s. 488).

Tevcih'in diğer adlarından biri de Muhtemil'z-Zıddeyn'dir. Bu sanata daha sonra da "tevcih" denmiştir. Reşîdüddin Vatvât[6] (öl. 573/1177) da bu sanata bu ismi vermekle beraber ona "Zü'l-vecheyn"(Râzî, 1443/2022, s. 179) demiştir. Zü'l-vecheyn yada Muhtemil'z-ziddeyn; cümlenin övgü ve yergi şeklindeki iki zıt anlama eşit ölçüde muhtemel olması demektir. Meselâ ismi Amr olan şaşı biri hakkında söylenen şu beyit buna bir misaldir: "خَاطَ لِي عمرٌو قَبَاءً لَيْتَ عَيْنَيْهِ سَوَاءٌ" *Amr benim için bir elbise dikti. Keşke iki gözü de eşit olsaydı!*"(Râzî, 1443/2022, s. 179) tevcihli ifade, belagat literatüründe de önemli bir yere sahip olan diğer bir kavram olan *tevriye*[7] ile karıştırılmaktadır. Her ne kadar üslup benzerlikleri bulunsada, tevcih ve tevriye, farklı sanatlar olarak ele alınmıştır. Tevriye sadece bir lafızla yapılırken, tevcih cümle ya da birkaç kelime ile gerçekleştirilebilmektedir. Tevriye sadece uzak anlamı kapsarken, tevcih ise hem olumlu hem de olumsuz iki anlamın aynı zıtlıkta ifade edilmesidir.

1.1.2. Tevcih, İstihdam ve Tevriye Arasındaki Fark

Bu sanatların her biri bir lafız ve iki anlam taşırken birbirlerinden şu açılardan ayrılmaktadır:
a. Tevriye ve istihdam müfred/tekil lafız ile gelirken, tevcih terkiple meydana gelir.
b. Tevriye ve istihdamda lafız iki yada daha fazla sözlük, genel anlam ya da hakiki/mecazi anlamda kullanılırken, tevcihte lafız siyâk/öncesi yada hâl karinesi şeklinde gelir.
c. Tevriyede yakın anlam bırakılıp uzak anlam kastedilerek anlama gizli bir karineyle intikal edilirken(Bolelli, 1436/2015, s. 459), istihdamda aynı anda iki anlam kastedilir. Tevcihte ise lafız iki anlama aynı uzaklıktadır. Konuşan kişi istediği anlamı ele alabilir (Karamollaoğlu, 1444/2023, s. 71).
Ayrıca, tevcih sanatı ile ilgili olarak, *îhâm*[8], *tahyîl*[9], *mugalata-i ma'neviyye*[10], ibhâm gibi belagat sanatları arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıklar incelenmiştir. Bu sanatlar arasındaki ayrımların belirlenmesi, her birinin özgün niteliklerini anlamak açısından önemlidir. *İhâm* "şüphelendirme"[11];

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[6] Reşîdüddîn Muhammed b. Muhammed b. Abdilcelîl el-Ömerî el-Fârûkī (ö. 573/1177) (Örs, 2004).

[7] Tevriye: Belâgatın bedî' kısmındaki mânayı güzelleştiren önemli bir söz sanatıdır. Bir kelime, herkesçe anlaşılır bir anlam taşırken, diğeri sadece uzmanlar tarafından bilinen iki anlamlı kelime arasında gizli bir karineye dayanarak kullanılmaktadır (Durmuş, 2004a).

[8] İhâm, belâgat alanında "*vehme düşürme, yanıltma, hayale kaptırma*" anlamlarına gelir. İhâm, muhatap veya dinleyicinin başka bir kelime hakkında yanılmasına sebep olan ifadeleri içerir (Durmuş, 2004b).

[9] Tahyîl, şairin beyan sanatlarına başvurarak muhatabın zihninde hayaller ve imajlar yaratması, dinleyiciye aktarılanın gerçek olduğu hissini vererek, psikolojik bir etki (haz ve hayret) bırakma amacını taşıyan bir sanat biçimidir (el-Cevzû, 1408/1988, s. 117).

[10] Muğâlata-yı maneviyye: İçerisinde tevriye bulunduğu için kelâmın en tatlı ve hoş türüdür. Bu türün esası, benzeri veya zıttı olan manalardan birini kullanmaktır (İbnü'l-Esîr, 1378/1959, s. 3/76).

[11] İhâm, "وهم" kelimesinden türemiş ve bir şey var olup olmamasına bakılmaksızın zihinde canlandırma, hayal etme ve şüphelenmek anlamına gelmektedir. Reşîdüddîn el-Vatvat (öl. 573/1177), *Hadâʾiku's-sihr fî dekâʾiki'ş-*

tahyîl "çağrışım yaratma"; *mugalata-i ma'neviyye* "anlam karmaşası oluşturma"; *İbhâm* "anlamı kapalı hâle getirme"[12] anlamlarına gelmektedir.

Cinas[13]ya da çok anlamlı kelimelerin kullanımıyla ortaya çıkan tevcih, muhatabın şüpheye düşmesine, cümlenin anlamının karmaşık hâle gelmesine neden olabilmektedir. *Tevcih* ve *ibhâm* gibi sanatların tevriye ile sınırlanması, bu sanatların ne denli karmaşık olabileceğini, etki gücünün ise anlama eksik bir yönde işaret edebileceğini göstermektedir. Bu nedenle, bu sanatların farklı başlıklar altında ele alınması, belagat literatürünün derinliği ve çeşitliliği bakımından daha iyi anlaşılmasına olanak sağlayacaktır (Coşkun, 2007, ss. 248-261; Efendi, 1289/1872, s. 2/166-167).

1.1.3. Tevcih Sanatının Belagat Eserlerindeki Yeri

Belagat literatüründe önemli bir konuma sahip olan *tevcih* sanatı, genellikle manevî sanatlar kategorisinde yer almakta, ilk belagat kitaplarından itibaren bu sanat, çeşitli belagat âlimleri tarafından detaylı bir şekilde incelenerek tarif edilegelmiştir. Bu sanatın Batı edebiyatı retoriğinde etkisinin çok az bulunduğunu söyleyebiliriz.

Tevcih, *muhassinât-ı ma'neviye*[14] grubu içinde *telvîhât*[15] başlığı altında ele alınmış olması nedeniyle, sözü; anlamı farklı bir yöne çekerek maksadı daha etkili bir şekilde ifade etmeye yönelik bir sanat olarak değerlendirilmiştir (Bolelli, 1436/2015, s. 459).

Genel anlamıyla söz ve mana yönünden farklı bir anlamı içeren ifadelerle gerçekleştirilen bu sanat, Sekkâkî'nin *Miftâhu'l-'Ulûm*(Sekkâkî, 1407/1987, s. 839) adlı kitabındaki tasnife göre *tevcih*(Sekkâkî, 1407/1987, s. 427), *mugâlata-i ma'neviyye*(Akgündüz, 1443/2022, s. 341), *tevriye*, *istihdâm*[16], *ta'rîz*(Akgündüz, 1443/2022, s. 341), *telvîh*, *remz*[17] gibi belagat sanatları arasında yer almaktadır (Rif'at, 1308/1890, s. 377).

İslâm dünyasında belagat ilmi, büyük ölçüde Sekkâkî'nin *Miftâhu'l-'Ulûm* kitabındaki tasnife dayanmaktadır. Bu tasnif, daha sonraki belagat âlimleri tarafından da kabul görerek, literatürde referans olarak kullanılmıştır. Kazvinî'nin (öl. 739/1338) *Telhîsü'l-Miftâh*(Kazvinî, t.y.) adlı eseri, bu alanda bize daha detaylı bir inceleme sunarken tevcih sanatı için taradığımız belagat kitapları arasında İsmâil Rusûhî'nin(Durmuş, 2004c) (öl.1041/1631) *Miftâhu'l-Belâga*(Durmuş, 2004c), Müstakimzade'nin(Yılmaz, 2004) (öl.1202/1788) *İstılâhât-ı Şi'riyye*(Yılmaz, 2004), Mahmud Ekrem Recâizâde'nin(Uçman, 2004) (öl.1332/1914) *Ta'lîm-i Edebiyat*(Uçman, 2004), Muallim Naci'nin(Uçman, 2004) (öl. 1310/1893) *İstılâhât-ı Edebiyye*(Uçman, 2004), Ahmed Reşîd'in (öl.1249/ 1834) *Nazariyyât-ı Edebiyye*(Yetiş, 2004a) adlı eserlerinde bu kavram daha az yer bulmuştur.

Tevcih sanatına dair açıklamalar, genellikle Sekkâkî veya Kazvinî'den aktarılarak bu sanatın örnekleri, ilgili kitaplardaki misallere göre biraz değiştirilerek sunulmuştur. Bu örnekler aslında

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şiʿr adlı eserinde İhâm'ı, hayal etme ve şüphelenmek anlamında kullanılan bir terim olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Akkavi, 1417/1996, s. 251).

[12] İbhâm, "بهم" kökünden türetilmiş bir terimdir ve bir işin belirsizlik arz etmesi veya yüzünün bilinmemesi durumunu ifade eder. Özellikle belirsizlikle karşılaşıldığında kullanılır; örneğin, bir durumun nasıl gerçekleşeceği konusunda bilgi eksikliği durumunda "اشتبه عليهم الأمر" ifadesi kullanılır. Aynı zamanda, "اشتبهم" ifadesi birilere bir şey gizlenmiş veya kapanmış anlamına gelmektedeir (Akkavi, 1417/1996, ss. 21-22; Âşikkutlu, 2004).

[13] Cinas, kelime anlamıyla *"iki şeyin birbirine benzemesi"* edebiyatta ise anlamları farklı olmasına rağmen benzer söyleniş veya yazılışa sahip kelimelerin nazım ve nesirde bir arada kullanılmasıdır (Kılıç ve Yetiş, 2004).

[14] Muhassinât-i Lafziyye (Sözü Güzelleştiren Sanatlar): Nazım veya nesirde bulunan sözcüklerle ilgili olan muhassinât-i lafziyye olarak adlandırılır (et-Teftâzânî, 1308/1891, s. 417).

[15] Telvih: Kinayenin iki unsuru arasındaki alaka vasıtalarının sayısına göre sınıflandırılan bir belagat terimidir. Vasıta çoksa "*telvih*" vasıtasızsa "*ta'riz*" az ve zor anlaşılıyorsa "*remz*" az ve açıksa "*îmâ/işaret*" olarak adlandırılır (Durmuş, 2004c).

[16] İstihdâm: Bir kelimenin söz içinde iki anlamıyla birlikte kullanmak demektir (Durmuş, 2004d).

[17] Remz: Belâga ve edebiyatta kinaye ile birlikte kullanılan, edebi eserlerde ima, telmih ve muamma türlerini içeren dolaylı anlatım ve iletişim biçimlerini ifade eden kapsamlı bir terimdir (Durmuş, 2004e).

okuyucuya tevcih sanatının karmaşıklığı ve etki gücünün ne kadar sağlam bir temel oluşturmayı hedeflediğini göstermektedir (Eliaçık, 1435/2014). Bu eserlerde sunulan misallere dayanarak, sanatın çeşitli yön ve özellikleri ele alınmıştır. Bu bağlamda, konuyu daha ayrıntılı bir şekilde incelemek adına belirli örnekler sunulmuştur:

a. *Miftahu'l-Ulûm* adlı eserinde Sekkâkî (öl. 626/1229), "tevcih" için "*İki zıt yöne anlam taşıyan kelime*" olarak bahsederken, "*Karşıt iki durumu da mümkün kılacak şekilde seçilmesini de ifade etmektedir*", der. Örneğin, tek gözlü bir kişi için, "*Keşke iki gözü de bir olsaydı*" şeklinde dile getirilen ifade, tevcihe kavramına ait örneklerdendir (Sekkâkî, 1407/1987, s. 427).

Sekkâkî, eserinde tevcih kavramı bağlamında dilbilim ve retorik alanında önemli bir örneklik sağlarken, bu terimi ele alış biçimi, dilin kullanımındaki incelik ve ifade çeşitliliğini anlamak ve dilbilim alanında yapılan çalışmalara katkı sağlamak bakımından önemlidir.

b. Kazvinî (öl. 626/1229)(Durmuş, 2004f), *Telhîsü'l-Miftâh* adlı eserinde "tevcih" ile ilgili Sekkâkî'nin *Miftâh*'ında var olan, "*Keşke iki gözü de bir olsaydı*" örneğini olduğu gibi almıştır, ayrıca dilbilim ve belagat alanında kavramsal bir çerçeve de sunmaktadır (Kazvinî, t.y., s. 29b; Kazvînî, 1372/1953, s. 2/365-386).

c. *Bahru'l-Ma'ârif* adlı eserinde Mustafa Sürûrî(Güleç, 2004) (öl. 969/1562), tevcihten bahsederken, tevcihin diğer bir adı olan *Muhtemilü'z-zıddeyn*'den de bahsetmektedir. Eserinde "*Muhtemilü'z-zıddeyn: Medhe ve zemme ihtimâli olana derler*" ifadesini kullanmıştır(Sürûrî, t.y., s. 5b).

d. *Mebâni'l-İnşâ* (S. H. Paşa, 1289/1872, s. 2/19) adlı eserinde Süleyman Paşa(Bedilli, 2004) (öl. 1309/1892) tevcih sanatı ile ilgili yeni bir tanımlamadan bahsetmemektedir. *Tevcîh* kavramını, lehine ve aleyhine dua ihtimalini içeren bir örnekle açıklayarak, iki anlamın zıtlığı yeterli gözükmemektedir, der. *Tevriye* ile *tevcîh* arasındaki farka dair yapılan açıklamada *tevriyenin* ortak lafızlara özgü olduğunu belirterek, *tevcihin* bunun aksine bir durum olduğu ve yergi lafızlarının varlığına da ihtiyaç duyduğunu söylemektedir. Bu noktada, *tevriye* tek lafızla gerçekleştirilirken, *tevcîh* ise diğer bir yönden yergi lafızlarının varlığını da içermektedir.

e. Saîd Paşa(Kadıoğlu, 2004) (öl. 1308/1891) *Mîzânü'l-Edeb* adlı eserinde *tevcih* sanatının tanım ve örneğini *Miftahu'l-Ulûm* eserinden almış olsa da vermiş olduğu örnek farklı bir bağlamda ele almıştır. Bu esere göre *tevcih* sanatına *îhâm* ve *muhtemilü'z-zıddeyn* de denildiğini belirterek *tevcih*i;"*Hem övgüye hem de yergiye yorumlanması mümkün olan sözdür*" Biçiminde tanımlamıştır. Örneğin bir kişinin bir iş görüp bu işin niteliği konusunda belirsizlik yaşadığında ona hitaben, "B*ir iş gördün ki bundan ziyade bir şey olamaz*" denmesi, hem bir işin daha iyi ya da bir şeyin daha kötü olma ihtimalini ifade etmektedir. Saîd Paşa'nın verdiği örneklerde, sözün kapsamında belirsizlik yaratmanın, *tevcih* sanatının bir örneği olduğuna dikkat çekerek, Diğer bir örnek olan, "*Değerine layık olan giysiyi giydirdi*" mısrasındaki "*layık*" kelimesinin içerdiği liyakat, bu giysiyi giydirene mi yoksa giyene mi ait olduğu belirsizliğini anlatan iki farklı ihtimalin mümkün olabileceğinin karşılığıdır. Bu bağlamda, Saîd Paşa'nın eserinde verilen örnekler, *tevcih* sanatının anlam katmanlarındaki çeşitliliği anlamamıza yardımcı olurken, "belirsizlik" ve "muhtemel" ihtimallerinin kullanımıyla ilgili önemli bir çerçeve sunmaktadır (M. S. Paşa, 1305/1888, s. 19).

f. *Belâgat-i Osmâniyye*(Cevdet Paşa, 1438/2017) adlı eserde Ahmed Cevdet Paşa(Aydın ve Halaçoğlu, 2004) (öl. 1312/1895) da *tevcihin* tanımını *Miftâhu'l-Ulûm* eserine göre yapmış ve bu sanata *Muhtemilü'z-zıddeyn* denildiği belirtilerek, konuyla ilgili gelenekselleşmiş, "*Tek gözlü terzi bana bir cübbe dikmiş, keşke iki gözü de bir olaydı*" örneğini kullanmıştır. Ahmed Cevdet Paşa'nın eseri, belagat konusunda önemli bir eser olup, tevcih sanatının inceliklerini anlatan değerli bir kaynaktır (A. C. Paşa, 723/1232, s. 155).

g. Abdurrahman Süreyya'nın (Yetiş, 2004b) (öl.1322/1904) *Mîzânü'l-Belâga* adlı eserini Mekteb-i Hukûk'taki hocalık döneminde yazmış olması, konuları detaycı ve açıklayıcı bir üslupla ele almış olması, tevcihe farklı bir üslup getirmiştir. Örneğin, tehdit amacıyla "*Dur ben sana ne yapacağımı bilirim*" diyen bir kişiye, "*Efendim! Daima kulunuz efendimin lütfunu görüyorum, elbette*

beni böyle perişan görünce bana bir kat elbise yapacak, hem ne yapacak" şeklinde bir cevap verirken, yazar örneklerle *tevcîh* sanatını daha somut bir şekilde açıklayarak, konuşanın sözünü başka bir yöne yönlendirmenin çeşitli yollarını detaylı bir biçimde ele almıştır. Bu bağlamda, *tevcih* sanatının dilin derinliklerinde nasıl işlediğine dair kapsamlı bir inceleme sunmaktadır (Süreyya, 1303/1886, s. 381).

h. Mehmed Rif'at'ın(Manastırlı, 1308/1891) (öl.1325/1907) *Mecâmiü'l-Edeb*[18] adlı eserinde *tevcihin* tanımı *Miftâhu'l-Ulûm*'dan alıntılanmış, *"Tek gözüyle bunu yazmış hattât"*, *"Kâşki ikisi bir olsa idi"* beyti örnek olarak sunulmuştur (Rif'at, 1308/1890, s. 377).

i. Tahirü'l-Mevlevî'nin(Kahraman, 2004) (öl. 1370/1951) *Edebiyat Lügati* adlı eserinde *tevcih*, bağlamında şunlar belirtilmiştir. Sözün iki taraflı, yani hem medih (övgü) hem de zem (kınama) olabilecek şekilde gelmesine *Muhtemilü'z-zıddeyn* denmiştir. *"Âb-ı hayvândır efendim artığın"* örneğinde geçen *"âb-ı hayvân"*, hem *"âb-ı hayât"* yani yaşam suyu anlamına gelebileceği gibi, *"hayvan suyu"* anlamını da içermektedir. Bu durumda cümlenin anlamı, *"Efendim, senin artığın ya hayat suyu ya da hayvan suyudur. Yani sen hayvansın, senden artan su da hayvanın içtiği bir sudur"* şeklinde de yorumlanabilmektedir. Tahirü'l-Mevlevî'nin eseri *tevcih* alanında farklı bir açılım getirerek, bu sanatı anlamak isteyenlere özgün bir perspektif sunmaktadır (Olgun, 1355/1936, s. 154).

1.1.4. Tevcih Sanatının Edebiyat ve Türkçemizdeki Karşılığı

a. *Tek gözlü biri, keşke iki gözü de bir olsaydı diyenin*(Kazvinî, t.y., s. 29b; Sekkâkî, 1407/1987, s. 427) benzetmesi, bize belagat açısından önemli bir ifade örneğini sunmaktadır. Bu ifade içinde belirsizliği barındıran, kişinin niyet ve duygularının anlaşılma çabası okuyucuya bırakılmıştır. Bu durum iki şekilde yorumlanabilirken, birinci anlamda *"dua"* manasını taşıyan *"tek gözlü kişinin iki gözünün de görmesi"* için dilekte bulunmaktadır. İkinci anlamıyla bu ifade "beddua" anlamına dönüşmektedir. Bu durumda, kişi tek gözlü olmasının bir eksiklik olarak kabul edilmesini ifade etmektedir.

b. *Bir iş gördün ki bundan ziyade bir şey olamaz* ifadesi, Türkçe'nin belagat alanındaki zenginliğini, çoklu anlama taşıma kapasitesini yansıtan etkili örneklerden biridir. Diyarbakırlı Saîd Paşa, *Mîzânü'l-Edeb* isimli eserinde tevcîhin tarifini yaparken bu sanata *îhâm* ve *muhtemilü'z-zıddeyn* adlarının da verildiğini belirterek Bir iş görüp de gördüğü iş iyi mi oldu fenâ mı iştibâh gösteren bir şahsa hitâben '*Bir iş gördün ki bundan ziyâde bir şey olamaz.*' denmesi, anlamın iki yöne de olabileceğinin örneklerindendir (Akdağ, 2019, s. 585). Birinci anlam katmanında, ifade olumlu bir övgüyü ifade ederken işin son derece başarılı ve kaliteli olduğunu vurgulayarak, *"Bu iş, bundan daha iyisi düşünülemez, fevkalade bir iş"* anlamını da içermekte, yapılan işin kötü bir şekilde gerçekleşmiş olması durumunu da ima edebilmektedir. Yani *"Bu iş, bundan daha kötüsü olamaz, düşünülemezdi, berbat bir iş olmuş"* anlamını da taşıyabilmektedir.

c. *Değerine layık olan giysiyi giydirdi* ifadesi, içinde taşıdığı belirsizlik sebebiyle, *"layık"* kelimesinin liyakatin kime ait olduğu konusunda bir şüphe ortaya koymaktadır. Bu belirsizlik, giysiyi giydirenin mi yoksa giyenin mi övüldüğü konusunda iki farklı yorumu mümkün kılmaktadır. Birinci yorumda, giysiyi giydirenin takdir edildiği bir durum öne çıkarken, *"layık"* kelimesi, giyeni değerine uygun bir şekilde giydirenin estetik anlayışı ve zevkine vurgu yapmaktadır. Bu durumda, kişi giysiyi seçerken duyarlılık ve estetik bir zevk sergileyerek övgü almaktadır. Diğer bir yorumda ise giyenin takdir edildiği bir durum öne çıkar ki *"layık"* kelimesi, giyenin seçtiği giysinin kişiliğine uygunluğuna vurgu yapmaktadır.

d. Şair Nedîm (öl. 1143/1730)(Mücaht, 2004) dolaylı ve nükteli bir şekilde kendisine yeterince lütufta bulunulmadığını bahane ederek, aşağıdaki beyiti söyler:

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[18] Mana sanatlarının dokuzuncu bölümünde *"Telvîhât"* başlığı altında: Söz ve mana yönünden başka manaya işaret ederek maksadı parlak göstermeye sebep olan (mugâlata-i maneviye, tevriye, istihdâm, tevcîh, ta'rîz, telvîh, remz) gibi şeyler telvîhâttan olup aşağıda açıklanmaktadır ifadesinden sonra, tevcih bölümü dördüncü sırada ele alınmıştır (Rif'at, 1308/1890, s. 377).

Arz-ı hâlüm çok efendüm hâk-i pây-ı devlete
Lutfun ammâ bî-niyâz-ı arz-ı hâl eyler beni

Anlamı: Devletin ayağının toprağına hâlimi arz etmek için sebep çok. Ama lütfun halini arza ihtiyaç duymuyor.

Yani ey sevgili devlet sahibi; devlet yücedir, güçlüdür, adil olmak zorundadır. Âşıksa kuldur, çektiği sıkıntıları ve bunlardan kurtulmak için ihtiyaçlarını devlete hatta onun ayaklarının toprağına kapanmak suretiyle arz eder ve onun adaletine sığınır. Beyitte devletin mutlak sahibi olan sevgilinin âşığa lütfu, çektiği sıkıntılara katlanabilme gücü verdiğinden, âşığın adaletin yerine gelebilmesi için şikâyete ve hal arz etmeye hacet kalmamıştır, demiştir. (Akçay, 2014, s. 141)

e. Şair Nefʿî'nin (öl. 1044/1635) Türkçe'de dokundurma ve iğneleme isimleri verilen taʿrîz sanatı, bir sözün söylenip onun tam tersi bir anlamın kastedilmesiyle üstü örtülü bir şekilde itiraz ve sitem etmek demektir. Kinayeden farkı; kinayenin hem müfred lafız ve hem de cümlede olabilmesi mümkün iken, taʿrîzin ise yalnızca cümlede olabilmesi mümkündür. Siyasî ve edebî taʿrîzlerde, doğrudan söylenmesi uygun olmayan bir mesaj ya da eleştiriyi ifade etmek için dilin bu imkânından yararlanılır. Meselâ aşağıdaki mısralarda Tâhir Efendi'ye nazikçe ve dolaylı olarak kelb (köpek) denilmek istenmiştir. Ancak bu sanat, ta'riz olmasının yanı sıra tevcihle örtüşmektedir(Ölmez, 2018, s. 14).

Bana Tâhir Efendi kelb dimiş
İltifâtı bu sözde zâhirdür
Mâlikî mezhebüm benüm zîrâ
İʿtikâdumca kelb tâhirdür

2. KUR'AN-I KERİM'İN ANLAŞILMASINDA BELAGATİN ÖNEMİ

Kur'an-ı Kerim'in indirildiği dönemde, Arap toplumu belagat ve edebî sanatlar konusunda en üst düzeye ulaşmıştı. Bu dönemde toplumun en saygın kişileri genellikle şairlerdi. Arapların şiire olan büyük ilgisi, her yıl düzenlenen kutlamalarla ve bu şenliklerde düzenlenen yarışmalarda birinci olan şairlere verilen ödüllerle ön plana çıkıyordu. Şiirler, Ka'be duvarlarına asılarak şairlerin yüceltilmesine katkı sağlıyordu. Bu duvarlara asılan şiirlere "*Mu'allaka*" deniliyordu ve en ünlüleri olan yedi şiir, "*Mu'allakat-ı Seb'a*" adı altında büyük bir şöhret kazanmıştı (Esed, 1420/1999, s. 2/759; Tülücü, 2004).

Kur'an-ı Kerim'in bu dönemde nazil olması, insanları hayrete düşmelerine neden olmuştur. O dönemde toplum belagatin zirvesine ulaşmış, Kur'an'ın edebî niteliği, belagat açısından parlaklığı ve mucizevi özelliğini anlamakta zorluk çekmemiştir. Ancak onları şaşırtan tek şey, kırk yaşına kadar şiir ve edebiyatla uğraşmamış, hatta okuma yazma bilmeyen bir ümmi şahsın bu tür söz sanatlarını nasıl ifade edebildiğidir (Bulut, 1431/2010, ss. 67-92).

Şiirin, retorik sanatların ve yazının önemli bir yer tuttuğu bu çağda, toplumun kültürel dokusu büyük ölçüde şair ve hatipler tarafından şekillendiriliyordu. Kur'an'ın bu etkileyici gücü, sadece Arap toplumundaki belagat normlarına değil, aynı zamanda tüm dünya üzerindeki dilbilimciler ve edebiyat uzmanları tarafından da derinlemesine incelenmiştir. Kur'an'ın nazil olduğu dönemdeki edebî ve belagat altın çağı, sadece toplumun o dönemdeki kültürel zenginliğini değil, aynı zamanda Kur'an'ın öne çıkan ve benzersiz bir ifade gücünü de vurgular.

Söz söyleme ve edebî sanatların zengin bir şekilde işlendiği bir kitabın anlaşılması, belagat ilminin öğrenilmesi ve bilinmesini gerektirmektedir. Sekkâkî'nin "*Belagat, İslami ilimlerin anahtarıdır ve her kim ki bu ilme vakıf olmazsa diğer ilimlerde de muvafık olamaz*"(Sekkâkî, 1407/1987, ss. 7-11) sözü, belagatin Kur'ân-ı Kerim'i anlamada önemli bir aşama olduğu kanaatini bize vermektedir. 'Ulûmu'l-Kur'an (Kur'an ilimleri)(Birışık, 2004) çatısı altındaki ilimlerin yanı sıra, söz sanatlarının anlaşılabilmesi adına belagat ilminin bilinmesine büyük bir ihtiyaç vardır. Çünkü bu sanatlar hakkında bilgi sahibi olmayan kişinin, ayetlerde geçen kelimeleri doğru anlayıp yorumlaması mümkün gözükmemektedir. Örneğin, "*Allah arşa istiva etti*" (el-Aʿrâf 7/54) ayetinde geçen "istiva

etti" ifadesinde *tevriye* sanatı kullanılmıştır. Bu sanat, bir kelimenin hem yakın hem de uzak anlamlarını içerdiği durumları ifade etmektedir. Bu kelimenin ilk akla gelen yakın anlamı "oturdu, yerleşti" şeklindeyken, ikinci ve sonradan gelen uzak anlamı "*hükmetti, egemen oldu*" şeklindedir. Belagat sanatlarına vakıf olmayan bir kişinin bu ayeti doğru bir şekilde yorumlayabilmesi için, "*Allah arşa (gökyüzüne) yerleşti*" şeklinde anlam vermesi lazım gelir ki bu da İslam akidesiyle çelişen bir duruma yol açmaktadır. Çünkü İslam'a göre yüce Allah, mekândan münezzehtir. Ancak belagat sanatlarının bilincinde olan bir kişinin yorumunu "*Allah hükümranlığını kurdu*" şeklinde doğru ve akılcı bir biçimde bunu ifade etmesi de mümkündür (Bulut, 1437/2016, s. 217).

Bu ve buna benzer örnekler, belagat ilminin bilinmemesinin, kelam ilmi açısından sorunlu konulara sebep olduğunu açıkça göstermektedir. Ayrıca, dönemin meşhur söz sanatlarının ayetlerde kullanılması, Kur'an'ın mucizevi yönüne ışık tutarak, hitap edilen kişilere, "*Bu sözü Allah'tan başka kimse söyleyemez*"(Bulut, 1437/2016, s. 218, t.y., ss. 67-92) düşüncesini aşılamayı hedeflemektedir. Görülüyor ki belagat ilmi, Kur'an'ın derinliklerine inilmesinde kilit bir rol oynayarak, doğru anlayışın oluşmasına katkı sağlamaktadır.

Belagat kitaplarında örneklerle tevcih sanatını inceledikten sonra, yaptığımız araştırmalara dayanarak, Kur'an'da tevcih sanatına ayrılan ayet sayısının sınırlı olduğunu tespit ettik. Bu durumun temel nedenin ise, bu alandaki kitapların büyük bir kısmının Sekkâkî'nin eserinden alıntılar içermesi ve bu alimin tevcih sanatı bölümünde özel bir ayet analizi yapmamış olmasından kaynaklanmakta olduğunu gördük. Sekkâkî, eserinde bu konuya dair, "*Kur'an'daki müteşabih ayetlerin yapısı gereği bu konuya girmedik*"(Sekkâkî, 1407/1987, s. 427) şeklinde bir ifadeyi kullanarak genel bir çerçeve çizmiştir. Daha sonra yazılan eserlerde de bu konuya dair detaylı bir ayet tahlili yapılmamıştır. Bu bağlamda çoğu âlim, bu ayetlerin genellikle ya *tevriye* ya da *îhâm* sanatlarını içerdiği kanaatindedir.

2.1. Kur'an-ı Kerim'de Tevcih Örnekleri

Tevcih sanatına dair ayet örnekleri:

1. Nisa suresi 46. ayette geçen "*dinle, dinlemez olası*" ve "*râinâ*" ifadelerinde tevcih sanatı bulunmaktadır.

"مِنَ الَّذِينَ هَادُوا يُحَرِّفُونَ الْكَلِمَ عَنْ مَوَاضِعِه وَيَقُولُونَ سَمِعْنَا وَعَصَيْنَا وَاسْمَعْ غَيْرَ مُسْمَعٍ وَرَاعِنَا لَيًّا بِأَلْسِنَتِهِمْ وَطَعْناً فِي الدِّينِ وَلَوْ أَنَّهُمْ قَالُوا سَمِعْنَا وَأَطَعْنَا وَاسْمَعْ وَانْظُرْنَا لَكَانَ خَيْراً لَهُمْ وَأَقْوَمَ وَلَكِنْ لَعَنَهُمُ اللهُ بِكُفْرِهِمْ فَلَا يُؤْمِنُونَ إِلَّا قَلِيلاً(46/4 en-Nisâ)"

Nisa Suresi'nin 46. ayetinde geçen "*dinle, dinlemez olası*" ve "*râinâ*" ifadeleri, Kur'an'ın dilindeki derinlik ve zenginliği anlamak adına önemli bir örnekliği teşkil etmektedir. Bu ifadelerin, Zemahşeri'nin yorumlarına göre, iki yönlü anlamlar içerdiği belirtilmektedir. "*Dinle, dinlemez olası*" ifadesi, Zemahşeri'ye göre, Yahudilerin kendi düşüncelerini peygambere kabul ettirmek amacıyla kullandıkları bir ifadedir. Ancak Kur'an, bu ifadeyi kullanarak peygamber açısından hem yergi hem de övgü içeren bir anlam taşıdığını, beddua yönüyle, "*İşitme, duyma! Kulakların bir daha duymasın!*" şeklinde bir yergi içerirken, dua yönüyle ise "*Sen konumun gereği söylediğimiz kötü şeyleri duymayasın, anlamayasın*" şeklinde bir övgü içermektedir. Bu çift anlamlı ifade, belagatin bir özelliği olan tevcih sanatının derinlik ve etkileyiciliğini artırmaktadır (Zemahşeri, 1422/2002, s. 1/516-517).

"*Râinâ*" ifadesi Zemahşeri'ye göre, övgü anlamında "*Bizim hâlimizi gözet*" şeklinde kullanılmıştır. Bu ifade, olumlu bir yönlendirmenin karşılığıdır. Ancak aynı zamanda yergi anlamı da içermektedir. İbranice'de benzer seslilik taşıyan argo ve kötü anlam içeren bir kelimeyi ima edebileceği ifade edilmiştir. Yani "*Râinâ*" ifadesi, kullanıldığı bağlama bağlı olarak, ya olumlu bir şekilde bir konumu gözetme ya da olumsuz bir anlam içeren bir ifade olarak anlaşılabilmektedir.

2. Nisa suresi 127. ayetinde geçen "*terğabûne*" ifadesinde de tevcih sanatı bulunmaktadır.

"وَيَسْتَفْتُونَكَ فِي النِّسَاءِ قُلِ اللهُ يُفْتِيكُمْ فِيهِنَّ وَمَا يُتْلَى عَلَيْكُمْ فِي الْكِتَابِ فِي يَتَامَى النِّسَاءِ الَّتِي لَا تُؤْتُونَهُنَّ مَا كُتِبَ لَهُنَّ وَتَرْغَبُونَ أَنْ تَنْكِحُوهُنَّ وَالْمُسْتَضْعَفِينَ مِنَ الْوِلْدَانِ وَأَنْ تَقُومُوا لِلْيَتَامَى بِالْقِسْطِ وَمَا تَفْعَلُوا مِنْ خَيْرٍ فَإِنَّ اللهَ كَانَ بِهِ عَلِيماً"

Ayette, üzerinde durulan "*Terğabûne*" fiilin harf-i cer ile kullanılmasına göre iki farklı anlam taşıdığına işaret etmektedir. Eğer "*fî*" harf-i ceriyle kullanılırsa "*İstemek*", "*an*" harf-i ceriyle kullanılırsa"*istememek*" anlamına gelmektedir. Ancak, ayette belirli bir harf-i cerin olmaması, her iki

mananın da mümkün olabileceğini göstermektedir. Elmalılı Hamdi Yazır, bu bağlamda "*istememek*" anlamını vurgularken(Yazır, 1434/2013, s. 146), diğer mealler genellikle "*istemek*" manasını tercih etmiştir. Bu tercih farklı mealcilerin çeşitli dil ve tefsir tercihlerinden kaynaklandığını söyleyebiliriz (Bayraktar, 1428/2007, s. 587).

3. Kur'ân ve Tefsîr âlimleri tevcihi ortak lafız kabul ederlerken Zerkeşî, farklı ortak lafızların bir kalıpta gelebileceğini söyleyerek " فَأَصْبَحَتْ كَالصَّرِيمِ " (Kalem, 68/20), ayeti celilesinde (الصَّرِيم) ifadesinin "gündüz/gece" anlamında kullanıldığını.

4. Yine Zerkeşî, " وَالَّيْلِ اِذَا عَسْعَسَ " (Tekvir, 81/17) 'da ise (عَسْعَسَ) "gelen ve giden" anlamında kullanılmıştır, der (Zerkeşî, 1373/1957, s. 2/209).

5. " فَاَنْجَيْنَاهُ وَاَهْلَهُ اِلَّا امْرَاَتَهُ كَانَتْ مِنَ الْغَابِرِينَ "(Araf, 7/83), ayetinde (الْغَابِر) kelimesinin ezdad "kalan ve giden" anlamında kullanıldığını(Mekkî, 1429/2008, s. 4/2442) Zemahşari ve İbn 'Atıyye " وَاَسَرُّوا النَّدَامَةَ "(Yunus, 10/54) ayetindeki (وَاَسَرُّوا) ifadesi zıt anlamlı olan "açığa çıkmak/gizlemek" anlamında olduğunu söylemektedir(A. b. G. b. A. b. G. el-Endelüsî, 1422/2001).

6. Kadı Beydâvî " لَقَدْ تَقَطَّعَ بَيْنَكُمْ "(En'âm, 6/165) ayetindeki (بَيْنَ) ifadesinin zıt anlamlı olan "aralık, göstermek, izah etmek, ayrılmak, ulaşmak" anlamında kullanıldığını söyler, " اِنَّ اللهَ لَا يَسْتَحْيِ اَنْ يَضْرِبَ مَثَلاً مَا بَعُوضَةً فَمَا فَوْقَهَا " (Bakara, 2/26) ayetini Zemahşari kontekse bağlayarak "küçük/büyük" anlamındadır, der.

7. " مُهْطِعِينَ مُقْنِعِي رُؤُسِهِمْ " (İbrâhîm, 14/43) ayeti celilesinde Ebû Su'ûd, " bakışlarını yukarıya kaldıramayan" anlamında olduğunu söylemektedir (Ebüssuûd Efendi, 1431/2010, s. 5/55).

8. " لَنْ يَخْلُقُوا ذُبَاباً وَلَوِ اجْتَمَعُوا لَهُ " (Hac, 22/73) ayeti celilesinde Yüce Rabbimiz "sinek, sivrisinek ve örümcek" gibi küçük, basit varlıkları örnek vererek muhataplarını aşağılamaktadır. Ayet, muhataplarının gücünün ne kadar zayıf olduğunu, benzeri bir durumda ne kadar aciz olduklarını ifade etmiştir (E. H. M. b. Y. b. A. b. Y. b. H. el-Endelüsî, 1420/1999, s. 1/200).

9. " اِنَّهُ مُصِيبُهَا مَا اَصَابَهُمْ "(Hud, 11/81) ayeti celilesinde " اَصَابَهُمْ " fiili ile "geçenler, gidenler" ve "kalanlar" anlamında kullanılmıştır (Zemahşerî, 1407/1986, s. 2/126).

10. " وَكَانَ وَرَاءَهُمْ مَلِكٌ "(Kehf, 18/79) ayetinde " وَرَاءَ " kelimesi hem "ön" ve hem de "arka " anlamında kullanıldığını(Taberî, 1421/2000, s. 18/83; Zeccâc, 1408/1987, s. 3/305; Zemahşeri, 1422/2002, s. 2/740), " فَبَصُرَتْ بِهِ عَنْ جُنُبٍ "(Kasas, 28/11) ayeti celilesinde " جُنُب " kelimesi " uzak/yakın" anlamında olduğunu(A. b. G. b. A. b. G. el-Endelüsî, 1422/2001, s. 4/278; Sem'ânî, 1418/1997, s. 4/125; Taberî, 1421/2000, s. 19/530), " وَاِنْ نَشَأْ نُغْرِقْهُمْ فَلَا صَرِيخَ لَهُمْ وَلَا هُمْ يُنْقَذُونَ "(Yasin, 36/83) ayeti celilesinde " صَرِيخَ " ifadesi "can kurtaran/ canı kurtarılan" anlamında kullanılmıştır (Zeccâc, 1408/1987, s. 4/288).

11. " فَلَا أُقْسِمُ بِالشَّفَقِ "(İnşikâk, 84/16) " الشَّفَق " kelimesi " kırmızılık/beyazlık" anlamında kullanılmıştır (Cassâs, 1405/1985, s. 5/371; Sa'lebî, 1423/2002, s. 1/160).

12. " يَشْرُونَ الْحَيٰوةَ الدُّنْيَا بِالْاٰخِرَةِ "(Nisa,4/74) ayetinde " يَشْرُونَ " ifadesi "satın alırlar/satarlar" anlamındadır (Zeccâc, 1408/1987, s. 2/77). " وَشَرَوْهُ بِثَمَنٍ بَخْسٍ دَرَاهِمَ مَعْدُودَةٍ "(Yusuf, 12/20) ayetinde " وَشَرَوْه " kelimesi " satanlar/satın alanlar" anlamındadır (E. H. M. b. Y. b. A. b. Y. b. H. el-Endelüsî, 1420/1999, s. 3/710).

3. SONUÇ

Kur'an-ı Kerim'in indirilmesinin ardından belagat ilmi, özellikle tefsir çalışmalarını büyük ölçüde etkilemiş ve şekillendirmiştir. Hz. Peygamber'in vefatından sonra, Kur'an'ın doğru bir şekilde anlaşılması ve yorumlanması sürecinde belagat ilminin kimi zaman, itikadi konularda sıkıntılara ve ciddi mezhepsel ayrılıklara neden olmuştur. Bu durum, İslam dünyasındaki alimleri, özellikle tefsir alanında belagat ilmini daha yakından incelemeye ve anlamaya yönlendirmiştir. Belagat ilmi olmadan

yapılan tefsir çalışmaları, İslam birliğini zedeleme potansiyeli taşımıştır. Bu nedenle, Cürcâni gibi alimler, bu alandaki eksikliği gidermek amacıyla basit düzeyde çalışmalar yapmışlardır. Ancak, belagat ilminin daha derinlemesine ele alınması ve detaylı bir şekilde incelenmesi için önemli adımlar atılması gerekmekteydi. Cürcâni'nin müstakil bir ilim olarak belagati ele alan detaylı eseri, bu alandaki çalışmalara yeni bir boyut kazandırmış ve gelecek nesillere kaynak bir eser sunmuştur. Aynı şekilde, Zemahşeri'nin "*Keşşaf*" adlı eseri, belagatle tefsir arasındaki ilişkiyi en iyi şekilde ortaya koymaktadır. Arap olmayan bir alimin bu alandaki başarısı, Arap dünyasında belagat ilmine olan ilgiyi artırmış ve bu alandaki çalışmaları teşvik etmiştir. Sekkâkî ve Kazvinî'nin eserleri, belagat ilminde ikinci bir dönüm noktasını temsil etmiştir. Bu eserler, konuların daha sistematik ve detaylı bir şekilde işlenmesini sağlamış ve belagat ilminin daha kapsamlı bir şekilde anlaşılmasını kolaylaştırmıştır. Bu eserler, sonraki nesiller için önemli başvuru kaynakları olmuştur. Kur'an-ı Kerim'in her ayetinde bulunan sanat ve incelik, belagat ilminin en sağlam temelini oluşturmuştur. Bu, belagatin sanatlarını anlatırken ayetlerden örnekler vermenin ve tefsir çalışmalarını zenginleştirmenin önemli bir yolu olmuştur. Kur'an'ın üslubundaki mükemmeliyet, belagat ilminin vazgeçilmez bir referans kaynağı olarak öne çıkmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, belagat ilminin, tefsir çalışmalarında daha etkin ve doğru bir şekilde kullanılması, İslam dünyasındaki düşünsel birikimi daha da zenginleştirecektir. Bu çalışma, Belagatin Bedi bölümünde detaylı bir şekilde açıklanan tevcih sanatını ele almıştır. Tevcih sanatının tarif ve örneklerini içeren en eski kaynaklardan biri, Sekkâkî'nin Miftâhu'l-Ulûm ve onun özeti olan Kazvinî'nin Telhîsu'l-Miftâh kitaplarıdır. Bu kitaplar, tevcih sanatının anlaşılması ve geliştirilmesinde temel referanslardır. Çalışma, Belagatin Kur'an tefsirlerinde tevcih sanatının öne çıkan bir rol oynadığını vurgulamıştır. Tevcih sanatının tanımı, "*İki zıt mananın anlaşılmasına ihtimal veren söz söyleme*" olarak belirlenmiş ve bu sanatın muhatabın düşünce sürecini karmaşıklaştırarak, onu mana üzerinde düşünmeye sevk etme amacını taşıdığı ortaya konmuştur. Belagat kitaplarındaki tarif ve tasnifin ardından örneklerle tevcih sanatının işleyişini gösteren çalışma, bu sanatın diğer belagat sanatlarıyla karıştırılmaması gerektiğini vurgulamıştır. Tevcihin, özellikle tevriye ve îhâm sanatlarıyla birlikte anıldığı ve bu konuda ilk dönemlerden itibaren önemli bir yer tuttuğu belirtilmiştir. Çalışmanın elde ettiği sonuçlar, tevcih sanatının belagat literatüründeki önemini ve Kur'an tefsirlerindeki işlevini anlamak isteyenlere önemli bir kaynak sağlamaktadır. Tevcih sanatının doğru anlaşılması, belagat biliminin derinlemesine kavranması ve Kur'an'ın zengin üslubunun anlaşılmasına katkıda bulunabilir.

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Book Review on 'English for Business Communication'

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With globalization, the significant role of communication has increased, and language has gained an important role in society and the global dimension used by people from different backgrounds as a lingua franca for international communication. As a result, the global status of English has an essential role in increasing the use of English as the medium through which several business people get their work done. Furthermore, the rapid growth of digital tools and technology has resulted in various emerging communication platforms that have undoubtedly altered workplace communication culture. Under this framework, *"English for Business Communication"* constitutes a vital up-to-date contribution to the realities of communication in business today and related literature. This volume consists of eleven chapters along with an *Index* section at the end, and each chapter comprises reflection questions, post-reading activities, and references.

The first chapter, *'Written and spoken communication in the workplace'*, presents background information on the recent advancements in written and spoken communication in the workplace, and the author draws attention to the significance of oral communication skills compared to written communication skills and briefly puts forward several contexts and descriptive research into the language competency and needs of working professionals from different professions in various context. Lastly, an overview of the chapters is presented that the target readership of this comprehensive book is for researchers, professionals, and learners studying English for business or workplace communication.

Chapter 2, entitled *'Features of business communication'*, is devoted to the detailed explanations of features of business English, the improvement and the significant role of plain English. The chapter also purports the other features of the use of *active voice, avoiding nominalization, conciseness,* and *simplicity* which are all important features for effective communication, and mainly covers the fundamental features of workplace English and students learning workplace English with a suitable style for business communication. Furthermore, the author touches on the concept of communicative

competence, including grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence (Hymes, 1996).

Chapter 3, '*Email and emerging social media for different purposes',* starts with detailed information about the concept of *email*. In addition, the author briefly explains the most recent studies regarding the features and format of email messages and how to write efficient email messages. This chapter also touches on the common errors in email writing and gives some striking examples of the wrong use of lexical words commonly found in emails made by second language learners. At the end of the chapter, the author also highlights the emerging use of social media for different communicative purposes and represents research findings based on the perceptions of employers and employees towards the use of social media.

Chapter 4, *'Conveying negative and goodwill messages',* starts with a detailed explanation of a framework for analysing negative messages and two different approaches to conveying negative messages: *direct* and *indirect*. This chapter not only touches on detailed information regarding goodwill messages, including *thank you or appreciation messages; congratulations messages; and sympathy/condolence messages,* but also negative messages frequently used and challenging to deal with. Besides, the author introduces the occasions where negative and goodwill messages are required, and promotes information concerning what channels to use when conveying negative messages. At the end of the chapter, the readers are expected to establish efficient negative and goodwill messages.

The author emphasises different persuasive genres in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. Concentrating on the vital role of writing persuasively for professionals to communicate effectively in the workplace, Chapter 5, '*Persuasive messages: Sales correspondence and job application',* gives indisputable information regarding persuasive techniques and an overview of the key communication strategies to influence, engage and empower. The author also covers two different persuasive genres: *sales correspondence* and *job application*. Moreover, this chapter helps readers apply persuasive techniques in producing sales correspondence/job application letters and teaches them how to protect themselves from manipulation and use crucial tools to make their personal and professional lives easier. In Chapter 6, *'Persuasive messages: Enquiry and invitation messages',* provides detailed explanations of the concepts of *enquiry* and *invitation messages,* their essential roles, and in what way enquiry and invitation messages are effective.

Focusing on the growth in report writing due to "(1) business expansion – need for reports in large organisations; (2) globalisation of business – reports written in an increasingly international environment; (3) government requirements – to comply with the law and regulations" (Chan, 2020: 117), Chapter 7, *'Formal business reports/proposals',* introduces how to write a formal business report and the differences between a business report and a proposal. This chapter also aims to help readers apply the skills required in preparing business reports/proposals and other communicative activities in the workplace.

Chapter 8, *'Making oral presentations'*, concentrates on the importance of presentation skills and details of planning, organising and delivering a successful presentation. The author also promotes authentic examples and study findings based on how effective presentation skills are essential to business success. Furthermore, tips and suggestions are introduced to help readers give persuasive speeches and become charismatic speakers.

Indicating that business communication courses and textbooks rarely address informal English and English for socialisation, Chapter 9, *'Socialisation',* is devoted to the analyses of small talk based on Small Talk at Work sub-corpus (STW) and expressions. Besides, it provides some vital and effective ways for second-language learners of English for business communication to conduct small talk in the

workplace with colleagues informed by relevant research findings. Additionally, it allows readers to master the use of slang and informal expressions for conducting small talk in various contexts.

Business meetings and negotiations have been the subject of extensive research, yet they are not properly used to help inform teaching. In this respect, Chapter 10 mainly outlines the challenges and difficulties of having meetings and covers what is necessary to be an effective participant and leader/chair in a meeting using recent research findings. Moreover, suggestions are given to readers about how to be well-prepared as a participant and effectively negotiate in various situations.

Chapter 11, *'Employment and appraisal interviews'*, primarily focuses on the two basic interview formats: *employment interview and assessment interview*. In describing how to conduct successful employment and evaluation interviews, this chapter also represents a beneficial mix of theory and practice. Additionally, the author gives a detailed explanation of techniques required in interviews; hence, the skill acquired in this chapter may be used in different contexts where we, as interviewers, are to elicit the views and opinions of others.

This volume possesses different strengths in view of its content and organization. It provides valuable information about detailed business English, why communication in the workplace is vital in various contexts, and a wide scope of research in business communication and incorporates an international range of authentic texts. The authors also provide numerous studies based on up-to-date information regarding written and spoken communication in business and present to-the-point clues for readers. In addition, this book goes beyond the traditional coverage of business English to offer a broad and practical textbook for those studying English in a workplace setting.

Overall, this volume contributes a comprehensive and useful framework of key information on English for business communication with its rich and guiding coverage. This rich and up-to-date practice-oriented coverage and the reader-friendly language of the contributors surely make the volume a significant resource on 'ESP' in ELT. Regarding all these, it can be stated that this book is evaluated as a highly valuable resource for researchers and practitioners and thus should be added to the list of must-have books.

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Book Review on 'Language Teacher Wellbeing across the Career Span'

Language Teacher Wellbeing across the Career Span

Authors: Giulia Sulis, Sarah Mercer, Sonja Babic, Astrid Mairitsch
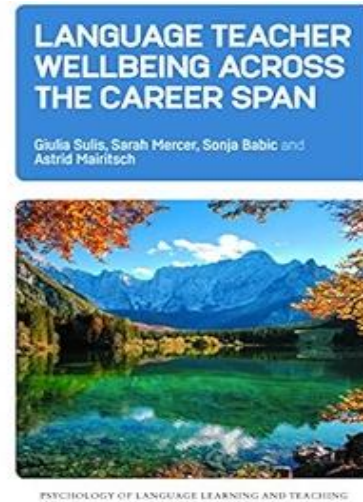Publisher: Multilingual Matters
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IMAGE OF THE BOOK

Teacher wellbeing is gaining prominence in the realm of educational psychology, although it remains a relatively nascent domain. This trend is propelled by a perceptible shift in research focus, transitioning from an overwhelming emphasis on student-centred paradigms to a recognition of the indispensability of catering to teacher-centric considerations. This shift in emphasis underscores the evolving dynamics. Within this milieu, the domain of language teacher well-being emerges as a pivotal locus of inquiry within the broader landscape of language teacher psychology.

Although there are certain shared exigencies and stressors that cut across disciplines, language teachers contend with stressors that are potentially distinctive in nature. These distinct stressors are notably characterized by heightened degrees of emotional labour and challenges pertaining to identity negotiation. While extant research has indeed delved into the idiosyncratic dimensions of language teacher well-being across discrete career phases - specifically, the pre-service and mid-career stages, a comprehensive exploration that spans the entirety of a language teacher's career trajectory, from its inception in pre-service training to its denouement in late-career stages, has hitherto been a scholarly lacuna.

In response to this scholarly gap, a concerted endeavour was undertaken by Giulia Sulis, Sarah Mercer, Sonja Babic, and Astrid Mairitsch. This three-year undertaking, funded by the Austrian Science Fund, yielded a seminal monograph entitled "*Language Teacher Wellbeing across the Career Span*." The primary objective of this monograph is to cast a spotlight on the salience of well-being considerations. This is achieved through the astute convergence of challenges that are endemic to the vocation of teaching at large and the specific challenges that are intrinsic to the realm of language

pedagogy, prominently encompassing emotional labour and the intricate tapestry of identity negotiation.

The book consists of 8 Chapters. The first chapter, i.e., introduction, presents the rationale and organisation of the book which provides concise information of each chapter. This part also shows three main ways the book contributes to the body of literature within second language acquisition and general education. Firstly, language teacher wellbeing is examined in terms of the interplay between challenges and resources. This section demonstrates the dynamic interplay between a challenge and a resource which is, I think, the most engaging part in which readers can see how a challenge could transform into a resource or vice versa through different perspectives. Secondly, various "centres of gravity" (p.3) are presented along teachers' career trajectories and lives. This also helps the readers to get a deeper understanding of the interaction between the life phase and professional life demands and affordances. Thirdly, the ecological perspective is adopted to showcase the dynamic interaction of multiple factors, which also aligns with the complex nature of the construct and helps the reader to acknowledge the complexity of the well-being construct. Chapter 1 also presents the context of the participant teachers who are either secondary school teachers who teach modern languages in the UK or English as a foreign language in Austria. Moreover, it elucidated how language teacher well-being transformed in times of crisis since the data was gathered through two different sets of semi-structured interviews, the first of which was in 2018 and the second in 2020 during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Chapter 2 points to the difficulty in providing a clear-cut definition of well-being as a construct. To disambiguate the term, the contradiction between the hedonic perspective, i.e., "making humans slavish followers of desires" (p. 13) and the eudemonic perspective, i.e., "people's perception of their ability to lead meaning and authentic lives" (p.13) is provided. By broadening Seligman's (2011) framework of well-being PERMA, i.e., positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment, authors offer a more socially situated and ecologically sensitive understanding of well-being which accommodates individual diversity and contextual variation. In this respect, authors emphasize the link between language teacher wellbeing, as a basic human right, and their creativity, adaptation to change, being more innovative in teaching, and student wellbeing. Societal status, educational policies, administrative demands, school culture, job (in)security and relationships with family members, partners and friends, the status of the language being taught, and higher levels of emotional labour are cited among the factors influencing language teacher wellbeing. This awareness-raising analysis tends to enable language teachers to identify the challenges in their profession.

Chapter 3 presents three main themes which characterize the pre-service career phase. The first theme, i.e., managing student life and school life reveals that having a dual role as both students and teachers could be a challenge or a resource to manage and nurture the well-being. The second theme, i.e., building knowledge and experiencing the realities of classroom life evinces the gap between theoretical and practical competencies, which leads to initial insecurity and limited confidence. The third theme, i.e., scaffolded social support, highlights the need for not only pedagogical support but also emotional support by university professors, school mentors, and school colleagues. As a Turkish former practitioner and early-career researcher, I noticed that all these themes echoed with my early-career phase despite the contextual difference. Thus, language teachers, i.e., EFL teachers and other foreign language teachers who would most probably align with modern language teachers in the UK due to similar challenges from other contexts, find commonalities in challenges and benefit from different perspectives in resource part to overcome their challenges.

Chapter 4 illustrates the characteristics of the early-career language teacher phase through four main themes, i.e., learning on the job, developing realism, learning to balance personal and professional lives and seeking support within the school. The first theme indicates that early career language teachers find their way into teaching through repeated trial and teaching, which empowers them with confidence and resilience. The second theme shows that the high sense of idealism and a strong sense of perfectionism are gradually replaced by increasing realism stemming from the divergence between theory and hands-on practice. The third theme demonstrates that setting work-life boundaries is troublesome, while the fourth theme presents a lack of guidance as a challenge and

support from more experienced colleagues and school administration as a resource to promote these teachers' resilience. Just as these themes resonated with my early-career language teacher phase (Yüzlü, 2023), these themes could also apply to different contexts around the world. These themes basically highlight the importance of collaboration and collegiality not only for language teachers but also for policymakers.

Chapter 5 delves into the mid-career language teacher phase. Maturing with experience, taking on additional responsibilities and shifting centres of attention emerge as main themes. During this phase, a lack of autonomy, increasing accountability measures and limited support for professional development might lead to a progressive sense of stagnation, whereas high competence and confidence in teaching abilities as well as a sense of authenticity are enjoyed. Work-life spillover, i.e., difficulty in setting boundaries between personal and professional lives, seems to be among the main challenges since especially mid-career teachers cannot detach themselves from other facets of their lives. All these themes imply that this phase is critical and assigning new roles such as mentors or administrative could overcome inertia and augment dynamism. Most of the mid-career language teachers would acknowledge these themes.

Chapter 6 presents transitioning to retirement, age awareness, and taking stock as main themes in the late-career teacher phase. While the transition to retirement could be smooth for some, it might also become stressful for others. These teachers' growing awareness of their biological age makes them pay particular attention to their health by letting go of responsibilities they have accumulated over their careers. Reflecting on their careers, these teachers resent having devoted most of their time to their work instead of taking better care of themselves although they are content with supportive long-lasting social relationships. This part is the most striking in that it clearly shows that teachers should not get lost while struggling to do their job effectively.

The authors present three macro themes which are relevant across all career phases, i.e., knowledge and experience, support and autonomy, and balancing priorities and domains. This displays a holistic picture of each phase of a language teacher's career with its distinctive challenges and resources in Chapter 7. Here, the authors also present their conceptualisation of well-being which encompasses multiple factors, i.e., psychological characteristics, life cycle, career phases, personal environment, and professional environment and their dynamic interaction. This part also helps the readers to envision the life span of a language teacher as a movie and shows what to do and how to do it irrespective of the career phase.

Chapter 8 presents that well-being across the career span, well-being in context, personalised continued professional development opportunities, and agency for well-being could be the main areas of implication. To have a more nuanced understanding of the dynamic interplay between various factors influencing language teacher well-being, complexity theory and ecological systems theory are offered as theoretical lenses for future studies. Methodologically, longitudinal studies are indicated to reveal temporal dynamic fluctuations of teacher language well-being. Contextually, different countries and different educational levels such as primary school, tertiary education, and private sector are recommended to be investigated.

As a result, the book presents the criticality and complexity of language teacher well-being by walking the readers along the whole career trajectory of a language teacher in a way that the readers are likely to find commonalities in terms of challenges and resources. I think the reader, particularly practitioners will be encouraged to reflect on their practices, contexts, and overarching system. This critical reflection might also empower the readers to reconceptualise the life-work balance. Additionally, policymakers could benefit from the resources of each phase by redesigning teacher career paths in a dynamic way which allows teachers to collaborate and build on their strengths. It could hinder not only attrition but also engender dynamism and long-lasting passion. I highly recommend this book to all stakeholders, including practitioners, pre-service teachers, teacher trainers, and researchers.

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