ESSENTIALS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

In the opening chapter of the book, Dr. Ünaldı and Dr. Bardakçı invite the readers to a journey from shades on a cave wall to minimalism and the FOXP2 gene by giving a brief historical overview of language discussions. The authors provide the readers with an account of the philosophical and scientific schools of thought throughout this thought-provoking journey.

In the second chapter, Dr. Kalelioğlu conducts a semiotic analysis on the formative elements of meaning that support the generation of the semantic universe of Orhan Kemal's "Uyku" narrative. The author deals with the existence of space within different oppositions, its semantic value, the relationship between space and other constituent elements such as time and person, and the possible effects of space on the narrative persons.

In chapter three, Dr. Baykal and Onay Taş inform the readers about the increasing influence of electronic corpora and its attendant software on language teaching in terms of language description and on the design of teaching materials.

Likewise, Dr. Erdemir and Dr. Yeşilçınar, in chapter four, focus on the use of corpora in English language teaching for vocabulary enhancement by providing an overview of the essential pedagogical applications with corpus and introducing tools to enhance vocabulary acquisition using corpus among English as a foreign language learners.

In chapter five, Dr. Avara highlights the inseparable nature of culture and language by reviewing different approaches and strategies to integrating culture to English language classrooms as well as the major pedagogical principles applied to cultivate an intercultural approach to deepen the learners' experiences of language and culture. The author also dwells upon some key guidelines and practical issues related to integrating culture into second language classrooms.

In chapter six, PhD candidate Coşkun presents a systematic review of the research studies on the assessment of intercultural communicative competence in higher education contexts by reviewing the recent research articles published in the last decade. The author discusses the differences and similarities of the studies in terms of their findings and suggests implications for further studies.

Dr. Ülkersoy and Şimşek provide a systematic qualitative synthesis of 47 MA theses and PhD dissertations conducted in Turkey to examine speaking anxiety in the target language in the seventh chapter. The authors aim to enable the stakeholders to better understand the nature of foreign language speaking anxiety and to develop coping strategies with it.

In chapter eight, Dr. Karakaş, Dr. Yeşilyurt and Dr. Candan touch upon pre-service English language teachers' online microteaching experiences in the aftermath of the Covid-19 pandemic and report the growing gains and lessening pains on the part of the pre-service English language teachers.

PhD candidate Sayın, in chapter nine, provides the readers with an account of challenges of measurement in foreign language education and offers way for minimizing or reducing their effects in chapter nine.

In chapter ten, Dr. Önal outlines the process and different types of speaking, identifies the difficulties encountered when teaching/assessing speaking and offers solutions, reviews alternative ways of assessing speaking and focuses on the use of rubrics and the responsibility of the test designers and raters throughout the process of assessment of speaking.

In a similar vein, Dr. Höl discusses the benefits of using rubrics in second/foreign language classrooms, presents some sample rubrics and underscores their contribution to transparency of assessments in the eleventh chapter.

In chapter twelve, PhD candidate Pektaş informs the readers about the potential uses of active learning in English as a Foreign Language classrooms by offering some tips and techniques for pre-service and in-service English language teachers.

Dr. Kazazoğlu and Dr. Tunaboylu, in chapter thirteen, suggest that action research course should be integrated into the curriculum of English language teaching undergraduate programs. The authors base their argument on concrete reasons and offer ways of accomplishing this.

In connection with this, Dr. İnal, Dr. Tunaboylu and PhD candidate Pehlivan, in chapter fourteen, give an account of how English language teachers are trained in Turkey and the official curriculum followed in the schools of education in the fourteenth chapter. Following this, the authors argue that the types of the courses and course contents offered to the prospective teachers of English need to be redesigned to correspond to the realities of the workforce.

Finally, in chapter fifteen, Dr. Su Bergil highlights the increasing significance accreditation has gained and presents the historical development of accreditation. Furthermore, the author reports the foundations and principles of accreditation and discusses its effects on the quality of foreign language education.

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A BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGE DISCUSSIONS: FROM SHADES ON A CAVE WALL TO MINIMALISM AND THE FOXP2 GENE

İhsan ÜNALDI

Mehmet BARDAKÇI

1. Introduction

Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall
All the king's horses and all the king's men
Couldn't put Humpty together again

For possibly different reasons, some philosophical texts are written in obscure langue, or better yet, the language used in philosophical texts is regarded as obscure by some. For example, in a panel, Arslan (2018) stated that he would read Plato and understand him clearly when he was younger, but when he read texts about Plato, he understood almost nothing from those texts because the texts were full of obscurity for no apparent reasons at all. Sadly, creating obscurity makes much more profit than creating clarity. Some radicals even regarded philosophers as the subcontractors of the church by stating that "…the professors of philosophy are learned salesmen of the theologians" (Lenin, 1962, p. 415). The main aim of the current paper is to make philosophical discussions about human language clear to those who do not want to get lost in philosophical texts but still want to make sense of the intersection between philosophy and human language. As a forenotice and warning, we should remember that common concepts like idealism, realism and rationalism have pragmatic and educational purposes; they might help us gain an elementary and superficial understanding of certain arguments, but a deeper understanding of any subject will require us to think without limitations of such *frozen* concepts.

Philosophy has an extensive history, and the main problem with its history is that philosophy meant very different things at different periods. Once, it was regarded as science in general (Arslan, 2008). Algebra, geometry, the human mind, language and even medicine was part of philosophy (Frank, 1952). Philosophy, "with its rational conceptions of nature, its search for natural explanations, and its attempt to achieve universally applicable laws" (Miller, 1949, p. 309), helped its many branches evolve into sciences. Similarly, when philosophy and science got divorced in the 19th century, discussions about human language also moved to their domain as a new branch of science. Without at least some knowledge about the history of these discussions and the current issues related to language in general, it will be difficult to understand human language and make related deductions. When, at the beginning of the 21st century, Daniel Everett claimed that there was no such thing as universal grammar, he was trying to disprove Noam Chomsky's theories about human language. Chomsky's theories are, in a way, extensions of language discussions that go back to Descartes and even as far as to ancient Greece, the pre-Socratic era.

As Pinker (2007) puts it, there is hardly anyone who is not interested in language. Supposedly, language is as old as the modern human and has always been a topic of concern. The oldest written remarks about human language are mostly dyed in a mixture of myths and religion. In the Old Testament, it is stated that people once spoke the same language worldwide. However, one-day people in the city of Shinar decided to build a very high tower to reach the heavens. The Lord came down to see this city and the tower that the people were building, and felt a threat and said, "If as one people speaking the same language, they have begun to do this, then nothing they plan to do will be impossible for them. Come, let us go down and confuse their language so they will not understand each other" (English Standard Version Bible, Genesis, 11, p. 6-7). According to this myth, this is how languages are born. Myths are fun, but they do not help us understand phenomena, and usually, the beginning of understanding a phenomenon is generally the end of the related myths.

We are fully aware that human language is not just the concern of the Western cultures as it has also been studied in the Eastern cultures by grammarians like Ibn Abi Ishaq and Pāṇini. Compared to Western cultures, Eastern cultures have their own dynamics (Huntington, 2002; Said, 1978); therefore, discussions related to human language in Eastern cultures also have a different background and rationale, which should be studied separately. In addition to this, we are also aware that it is impossible to give a detailed account of philosophical discussions related to human language in just one paper; each section of this paper is a potential book. There is a long but connected line of discussion about human language in general, and if we want to trace back what has been said on the matter, we need to look in the right direction and the right places. With this study, we wanted to show this direction and these places.

2. Language Discussions in the Main Eras of Philosophy

2.1. Ancient Greece

Systematic approaches to human language emerged with philosophy, and as is usually the case, discussions related to philosophy start with ancient Greece. The first notable ideas about language come from Parmenides (515 – 460 BC), one of the most important pre-Socratic philosophers. His main discussion was based on reality. To his mind, our experience of the world was an illusion, which means that what we see around us as being born, moving, changing and dying are actually in no way subject to any of these phenomena that we assume. In addition to this, nothing is separate, which signifies the idea of monism. Parmenides could be dubbed an extreme rationalist who presupposed that all the experiences we go through are deceptive. Through this perspective, he concludes that the only source of knowledge is the human mind.

Parmenides' ideas related to language are limited but significant. His main argument about the human mind and language is based on this premise: When we think, it must be something we can think of. In the same vein, when we use a name, we must refer to something. This premise suggests that both our mind and language require objects outside themselves, and since we can think and talk about them all the time, they must also exist without change. That is, what can

be thought of or spoken of must exist permanently. This statement might seem very radical to support and too weak to justify. Still, it should be noted that, to a certain extent, Parmenides' discussions are reactions to Heraclitus' ideas which are based on the constant and never-ending changes in nature. As a matter of fact, Heraclitus was a contemporary of Parmenides. In a way, their discussions shaped the background on which Socrates and his student Plato based their philosophy.

Plato (424 – 347 BC), who lived in an era of profound political and social chaos (Popper, 2003), is often said to have constructed his ideas based on the discussions of Heraclitus and Parmenides; however, not by endorsing them but through their criticism. By taking into account related discussions and views of Socrates, his master, Plato founded an idealist framework that will answer questions related to the source of knowledge, and thus known as the original *apriorist*. From his perspective, Parmenides' ideas could not be justified, and Heraclites' idea of constant change is misinterpreted. Socrates believed that if everything is in a state of continuous change, then the meanings of words must also be constantly changing (Zabeeh, 1966). At first sight, Socrates claimed, everything might seem to be in a state of constant change; however, these changes are taking place in the observable world, which is just a reflection of the ideal real world. Our senses are, in a way, like obstructions in our effort to understand reality (Arslan, 2016).

Plato is mostly known for his cave allegory, which summarizes his idealism. In this allegory, which is presented through Socrates' narration, a group of people are sitting in a cave facing a blank wall, and they are chained. They see shades of objects on the wall and suppose they are real. However, the actual objects are outside the cave, and what those people are watching are just representations of reality. When one of those people is forced (*Grk. αναγκάσει*) to stand up and see the actual objects in the daylight, they become frustrated. In this famous allegory, the chained people facing the blank wall do not speak to each other. There are shades of objects reflecting on the blank wall, but nobody seems to be communicating with each other about them. From this lack of communication, one can deduce that Plato does not regard language as a means to understand the world or solve problems.

Plato builds up his ideas through imaginary dialogues, often referred to as the Socratic or the Elenctic method. For example, in these dialogues, Socrates asks the imaginary interlocutors, "What is virtue?" and the interlocutors give answers such as "Virtue is courage" or "Virtue is honesty". Then, Socrates states that all these answers are examples or parts of the concept of 'virtue' but not the virtue itself and thus inadequate. This dynamism is the starting point of Plato's so-called idealism, and obviously, language has a role in it. Although Partee (1972) suggests that Plato somehow refuses to take a systematic position towards language, he also states that Plato tries to question the origin, nature, and use of words and language with some level of caution. According to Plato, words themselves are not real per se but just imitations of physical objects, thus reality. Therefore, the study of language can only yield a focal level inferior to reality. To him, reality lies somewhere outside the confines of human language.

Plato's paradigm concerning the inferiority of human language as a study area obviously had effects on his general views of the world, and it might have hindered his further investigations of human language.

Plato's ideas were discussed and criticized by his student Aristotle (384 – 322 BC), who could be argued to be the first theoretical linguist (Seuren, 2006). Basically, Aristotle rejected Plato's idea that there are ideal and perfect concepts by which we can understand the real and imperfect world around us; along with many other points, this was a serious deviation from Platonist ideas. Not sidelining induction altogether, Aristotle believed that Plato placed too much emphasis on deduction. From this respect, Aristotle was a nominalist. Nominalism is the philosophical notion stating that things are what they are because we name them that way, which is naturally contradictory to Plato's world of ideas. In this sense, Aristotle was not convinced about the independent existence of ideas, concepts, or universals; to him, objects having the same names could not have anything in common except the name they were given.

Furthermore, Aristotle's reasoning depended profoundly, but not exclusively, on induction. He dealt with the concept of induction by regarding it as moving things between classes like primary and secondary substances or from the particular to the universal. These apparent deviations from Platonist views didn't directly affect language discussions. Aristotle's mentions of human language are limited; he does not have a book or a chapter solely dedicated to human language. This might be related to the paradigm that had started with Socrates and Platon, which regarded human language as an inferior topic. We can find Aristotle's language-related ideas in fragments in his On Interpretation, Metaphysics and Categories (Hudry, 2015; Seuren, 2006). According to Aristotle, the relationship between spoken and written language is conventional, and he regards the traditional use of words in three categories: univocal, equivocal and analogical or sometimes called as derivative. When we use a word univocally, we use it for different objects, but the meaning stays the same. Thus, for example, we can use the adjective *beautiful* to define a person or a day; in this manner, what we mean is quite clear. In equivocal use of language, we attach meanings to the objects by using the same word, but the word's meaning changes significantly depending on the object and the context. For example, when we use the word *degree* to refer to graduation from university and body heat, the meanings are different, yet they are still related. In an analogical sense, on the other hand, the meaning of the word that we use changes with proportion to the object that we are referring to. When we call a language learner *fast*, we mean something, and when we call a car *fast*, we mean another; the concept is the same but the associations of the word fast change from one situation to the other depending on the object that we are describing. These analyses might sound simple and irrelevant; however, these were the first systematic attempts to understand human language.

Primarily because of the dominant non-secular paradigms emerging after the first century with the emergence of Christianity, the following ages were infertile in terms of science and philosophy. Accordingly, human language was not a matter of discussion for a long time. Other than Neo-Platonists like Plotinus and Proklos, whose ideas were nothing but monastic and

dogmatic interpretations (Hegel, 1968), possibly intentional misinterpretations of Plato's ideas, and much later Thomas Aquinas (1225 – 1274), who founded the theological basis of the Catholic church based on Aristotelian philosophy, Western intellectual life was mostly dormant for centuries. It took about two thousand years after Socrates, Plato and Aristotle for other intellectual revolutions to appear.

2.2. The Cartesian Era

When the modern scientific revolution began with Galileo (1564 – 1642), the world started to look like an extensive, complicated and mechanical system from the scientific point of view. The perception of the outside world began to appear as mechanical; nature was regarded as a big machine. It was a sort of rejection of the dominant paradigm that the universe operated on mystical dynamics. This new scientific point of view required the dissection of all mechanic systems into their smallest parts. Philosophy also took its share from this new perspective. For example, Descartes (1596 – 1650) applied it at the biological level. In that era, it was believed that the images around us make their way into our minds through a mystical process. In *Dioptrique*, one of his essays in *Discourse on the Method*, Descartes tried to explain the optical process involved in seeing. His interpretation was that seeing is not totally related to the outside world, but it was mainly a mental process; the human mind used the senses to create visions. Thus, to Descartes, it was nearly impossible to make sense of the outside world without some *innate* and *hardwired* knowledge; the innate structure of the mind appeared to be operating on certain principles.

Although Descartes' scientific views were not as credible as his contemporaries (Russell, 1983), his "philosophic edifice de nova" (Russell, 1983, p. 542) was truly remarkable. Having no masters or teachers in the classical scholastic sense, he was the first philosopher who thought that it was possible to make pure deduction without the need for any induction. Furthermore, he believed that we could start with pure reason and build everything else on that very basis, and thus came the famous phrase, "cogito ergo sum", meaning "I think; therefore I am".

The human will was mainly left out of the equation in the Cartesian world. According to this point of view, every phenomenon around us acts on mechanical principles. Human language is the only human trait that does not fit in with the mechanical world paradigm (Chomsky, 1993). Descartes used the everyday use of human language to exemplify this exception by discussing the *creative* aspect of human language. Human language is not a mechanical process but a creative one. Most of the time, we hear utterances from other people which we have never heard before. Therefore, human language is not predictable like other natural phenomena. By taking this very point into account, Descartes reached a dualist conclusion; the body and the mind. On one side, he regarded the human body, which was in line with his mechanical view of nature, and he placed the human mind on the other. Later, when Newton rejected Descartes' ideas of a mechanical nature and claimed that nature acts on mystical forces that the human mind cannot

comprehend (Kubbinga, 1988), it was the body aspect of Descartes' theory that he found absurd, not the aspect related to the human mind.

Descartes was a pure rationalist and regarded the human mind as the source of knowledge; it was the mind that created knowledge, not the other way around; therefore, he considered knowledge as *a priori.* Much later, his somewhat crude ideas of human language and its creative aspect would find their resonance through Noam Chomsky.

2.3. The Era of Enlightenment and Tabula Rasa

The founder of empiricism and the father of enlightenment, John Locke (1632-1704), has also had significant influence over Western philosophy. His greatest impact was on the discussions related to political sciences, religion and education. He was one of the first philosophers to oppose the imposition of religious beliefs by an authority or individuals. His related ideas are regarded as the roots of modern liberalism (Russell, 1983). He also tried to analyze the human mind and, thereby, human language. According to Lock, experience was the source of all human knowledge. At this point, he opposed the common notion of *innate* human knowledge, which took its roots from the Platonian idealist and Cartesian rationalist perspectives. To him, without direct experience, no knowledge was possible. At birth, human beings were born with minds like a clean slate (*Lat. tabula rasa*), and in time and through experience, this slate was filled with experience-based knowledge. At this point, of course, human language needed explanation.

With a fundamental point of view, Locke states that humans have language to talk about ideas and beliefs and understand those of their own kind. Parrots can also be taught to produce certain sounds of human language, but they are by no means capable of human language (Locke, 1689). It might seem that you do not need to be a full-time philosopher to articulate such straightforward ideas. Still, considering that the analyses of human language in the real sense did not emerge until the 19th century, Locke's attempt to define the function of human language, in general, was something new.

To Locke, when we hear words or other people talking, we naturally assume connections between words and ideas. However, this assumption is "a perfect arbitrary imposition" (Locke, 1689, Chapter II). This arbitrariness often causes a failure to excite the same ideas in others because different people tend to attach different meanings to the same words. Locke even gives the example of the great Augustus, who was the greatest ruler of his time. Augustus acknowledged his inability to make a new Latin word. Locke interprets this situation as an inability to appoint what idea any sound should signify. Locke (1689) continues:

> But whatever be the consequence of any man's using of words differently, either from their general meaning, or the particular sense of the person to whom he addresses them; this is certain, their signification, in his use of them, is limited to his ideas, and they can be signs of nothing else (Chapter II).

At this point, a reference to discussions in Plato's Cratylus is needed. In these discussions, the criteria determining the correct name choice for any given object is the focal point, and two extreme perspectives emerge as conventionalism and naturalism. The conventionalist perspective sees names given to objects as totally arbitrary, and the naturalist perspective regards no naming as arbitrary. Locke took this conventionalist perspective one step further to lead the way to Ferdinand de Saussure's ideas about the arbitrariness of the relationship between signifier and signified.

2.4. German Idealism

German idealism was a reaction to the basic ideas of the enlightenment era, the new science, and it did not have direct bearings on language discussions. The perspective regarding nature as a mechanical entity was questioned in this era, and a bridge between rationalism and idealism was constructed through the discussions of Immanuel Kant (1724 – 1804) and Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770 – 1831).

Up to the times of Kant, there were two primary schools of philosophical thought as idealism and realism, which began with Plato and Aristotle. It was an ongoing debate whether objects really exist or they only exist in the human mind. Kant took a very different stand on this matter and started by acknowledging that things exist outside the human mind; where he made the difference was his approach to how the human mind shapes this existence. Thus, Kant claimed that there were two types of worlds in this matter: *phenomenon* and *noumenon*. The phenomenal world is the world of objects that we can observe through our senses, and the noumenon world is the world independent from our senses. The phenomenal world is the one we call reality with a collective cognition; on the other hand, the noumenon world is beyond our cognition. As humans, we are not equipped to experience this world through our senses because of their limitations.

To Kant, the human mind possesses an intuition of *space and time* through which it processes the outside world, and meanings that we attach to the outside world can only operate through this intuition. Kant regarded time and space as the creations of the human mind independent of reality. In other words, objects exist independent from our senses, and our experience of the outside world confirms our mode of cognition; Kant calls this independent existence as thing-in-itself (*Ger. ding an sich*). This perspective to idealism is called *Transcendental Idealism*. While transcendental realism accepts the existence of space and time, transcendental idealism sees them as byproducts of human cognition; space and time exist because humans exist. With the emergence of this perspective, the role of the human mind in experiencing and understanding the outside world and the space and time intuitions to create meaning were centralized. Kant's successors followed this exact route. To Kant, our cognition needs a means to operate, and that means is language. From this perspective, language in use is inferior to our cognition. Kant's dualism on cognition and language later sparked new discussions on the matter (see Forster, 2012 and Pinker, 2007 for details).

Although Kant or his philosophical successors did not develop detailed explanations of or discussions about human language, it would be safe to assume that human language was an obvious *operant* in Kant's space and time intuition, which is innate and exclusive to the human species.

2.5. Modern Times

Contemporary philosophy mainly dwells on epistemology, metaphysics, logic, ethics, aesthetics, the philosophy of mind, the philosophy of language, political philosophy, and philosophical examination of the assumptions, methods and claims of other areas of focus in science and social science (Grayling, 2019). Contemporary philosophy begins with discussions on propositions, which is a part of formal logic. In classical terms, a proposition is a statement with a truth value either as true (1) or false (0). Propositions can be regarded as the link between philosophy and language.

Equipped with a paradigm based on formal logic, the important figures in this era regarded language as an entity that could be analyzed through logic. The main rationale behind this approach was to solve the problem of meaning and thus minimize the ambiguities in language by creating a domain in which language could be treated as mathematics. In this era, three important figures shaped the discussions related to language: Gottlob Frege (1848 – 1925), Bertrand Russell (1872-1970), and Ludwig Wittgenstein (1889-1951), respectively.

In terms of philosophy and language; Frege, Russell and Wittgenstein were basically different from other philosophers before them as they did not apply philosophical methods to the study of language, but "they applied linguistic methods to the study of certain problems in philosophy" (Potter, 2013, p. 852). Frege and Russell mark the beginning of analytical philosophy and, therefore, a linguistic turn. Until this era, concepts like meaning and truth were discussed separately from language. However, it was through Frege's and Russell's ideas that these topics needed to be considered under the domain of human language.

As a mathematician and logician, Frege studied the quantification of logic which is the process of attaching signs of quantity to the predicate or subject of a proposition. Before Frege, laws of logic were regarded as laws of thought, but Frege saw a problem with this and claimed that the validity of truth could not depend on features of thinking. He was, in a way, looking for a solid ground away from subjectivity. He believed that arithmetic could be deduced to logic, and logic is the common ground between arithmetic and human language. With this paradigm, Frege studied human language, and in his *Sense and Reference,* sentence meaning over word meaning was maintained. In a way, Frege led the way in the contextualization of language. Words on their own do not have completely independent and inherent meanings; we can only talk about the meanings of words when they are used in a sentence or a context.

Frege was not the only one trying to connect formal logic and human language; Russell was also trying the same thing. He first flirted with the idea that words are used to denote objects. Then, he realized that many words in languages do not denote physical objects. For example,

the word *ghost* does not refer to a physical object, and therefore it cannot be a denotation in conventional terms. This was a topic of concern for the logicians and philosophers at that time. Russell claimed that references for such words do not exist but subsist a relative existence (Russell, 1905). This was one of the problems in formal logic. It goes back to the times of Aristotle and is related to the following law: If a proposition is true, then the opposite must be false. For example, "Socrates is dead" is a proposition, and it is true; therefore, "Socrates is alive" must be false. However, the proposition "The current king of France is bald" can neither be true nor false because the phrase "the current king of France" does not exist, which is, according to Russell, a relative existence. One might wonder how all these analytical discussions could relate to today's language paradigms. While Frege and Russell were trying to quantify human language through propositions, some would argue that the quantification endeavor was based on shaky grounds. For example, Austin believed that not all utterances could be simplified to simple propositions. Although he acknowledged the existence of statements that could be regarded as true or false, he also believed that there are statements that are neither true nor false yet still make sense. He also proposed that people do things with language, a paradigm that later came to be known as the *speech act theory*. To him, statements that are out of the true/false classification and that still make sense could be called *performatives* (Austin, 1962). As a matter of fact, this idea, again, can be traced back to ancient Greece, Aristotle. In *On Interpretation*, Aristotle claims that human language is not only about propositions; there are statements through which we express our wishes and needs. In the same manner, Austin believed that when we see a speed limit sign in traffic, this is actually not a proposition but a warning that implicitly says "don't go fast or you'll have an accident", and, in a way, the speed limit sign, which looks like a proposition, makes you do things.

Frege and Russell were primarily mathematicians and logicians and are regarded as the forefathers of analytical philosophy. Their core assumption was that if we somehow understood the logic behind sentences, we would understand the logical structure of the world; to them, philosophical problems were linguistic problems. Their ideas about human language were mainly operational in the domains of mathematics and logic; however, their perspectives and discussions about human language would constitute the basis of Wittgenstein's philosophy of language (Beaney, 2009).

While discussions about language and formal logic were going on, Lewis Carol (1832-1898), another mathematician whose absurd ideas about language often surface in language-related discussions, expressed his ideas not through analysis but through fiction. In his famous story, *Through the Looking Glass*, Carroll sends Alice to a surreal world through the rabbit hole. In this world, everybody and everything speaks perfect and elegant English, yet Alice cannot make sense of the things said around her. Especially a character named Humpty Dumpty baffles Alice much more than others. Humpty Dumpty plays with language and tries to mock conventional ways of thinking about language.

> In their discussion of the relative merits of birthdays and un-birthdays, after Humpty Dumpty has pointed out to Alice that unbirthdays excel birthdays by a ratio of 364 to one, he caps his argument by remarking, "There's glory for you!" "I don't know what you mean by 'glory,'" Alice said. Humpty Dumpty smiled contemptuously. "Of course, you don't; till I tell you. I meant 'there's a nice knock-down argument for you!'" "But 'glory' doesn't mean 'a nice knock-down argument,'" Alice objected. "When I use a word," Humpty Dumpty said, in rather a scornful tone, "it means just what I choose it to mean; neither more nor less." "The question is," said Alice, "whether you can make words mean so many different things." "The question is," said Humpty Dumpty, "which is to be master; that's all." (Carroll, 2006)

Carroll is obviously being sarcastic through Humpty Dumpty. Humpty Dumpty is aware of the intricate and fragile nature of human language, and, maybe, more importantly, he is aware that humans do not try to confine to the conventions of language, but rather they try to shape language to confine to their own needs, interests and benefits.

Through the Looking Glass was one of Wittgenstein's favorite books (Gerlach, 2015). In his discussions about language, we can see that grammatically well-formed sentences do not necessarily need to make sense. When Humpty Dumpty says, "There's glory for you", the sentence is flawless in grammar but makes no sense at all in the context that it is used. In a way, Humpty Dumpty foreshadows the famous much-debated sentence "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously", which is also grammatically perfect but again makes no sense at all. To Wittgenstein, even in the same contexts, the same words might mean different things (Kind, 1990). This is not just one of the instances of Wittgenstein's ideas; human language was the core aspect of Wittgenstein's philosophy. He started with some fundamental and ages-old problems of philosophy and ended up analyzing human language.

Wittgenstein wanted to know the relationship between human existence and reality. When he published Tractatus in 1921, much like what Russell was trying to manage, he was searching for a single and universal logic. He used philosophy to describe the limits of human language. It is the scientific domain to describe the world as it is, but philosophy, through human language, is about defining the confines of reality. In order to reach this challenging task, first of all, we need to understand human language. He tried to construct a picture theory of human language with this notion in mind. As human beings, we create images of the outside world in our minds. Communication through language is actually trying to create the same pictures in other people's minds, and nobody can see the exact pictures in someone else's mind. Sometimes even we cannot see exactly what is in our minds, for that matter. Therefore, communication is basically swapping the pictures we created with the people we want to communicate with. Before Wittgenstein, Russell proposed that human language was far from perfect. Wittgenstein, on the contrary, believed that it is not human language that was imperfect, but it was the notation that we use that created this misleading point of view. That is to say, the conventional ways of addressing the outside world have flaws in them, not the language system itself. This is why it is not unusual to see people using the same word to refer to different things. Sometimes the pictures we create lack enough details or accuracy, and occasionally other people attach more

and unnecessary meanings to them. At this point, Wittgenstein departs deeply from the intellectual conventions of his period. First of all, while Plato strongly claimed that reality was outside the confines of human language, Wittgenstein regarded the limits of language as the limits of the world (Wittgenstein, 2002). In addition to this, Wittgenstein stands against the Cartesian paradigm, which regarded the individual mind as the starting point of existence. Instead of postulating the *I think* (*Lat. cogito*), he seems to be residing with its analogy, *We think* (*Lat. cogitamus*); Wittgenstein clearly refuses the existence of a private language (Sluga & Stern, 1996). Language ties people mentally, and to Wittgenstein, the focal point should be the collective creation of meaning through language.

Many would agree that Wittgenstein's first book, *Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus* (1921), was the biggest linguistic turn in history (Beaney, 2009). According to Wittgenstein, the world and language are similarly complex, and inherently, complex things have structures. When we start analyzing the world and language, we begin realizing the similarities between them. In the outside world, facts are made up of state of affairs, which are collections of objects. As such, language is made up of propositions, and propositions are made up of elementary propositions, which are made up of names. In this context, the term "name" does not refer to the actual content of words, but rather it refers to a category related to formal structures, which are the basic elements of language; to put more clearly, "a name means an object, and the object is its meaning" (Wittgenstein, 2002, p. 15), and these names do not have any individual sense unless they are a part of a proposition. Wittgenstein regarded all philosophy as the critique of language, and therefore, if we want to solve philosophical questions, we need to understand human language (Beaney, 2009).

After writing Tractatus, Wittgenstein believed that he had solved all the philosophical problems. In Tractatus, with the picture theory of language, he dwelled on human language's personal and private aspects. Later, when he returned to Cambridge in 1929, he changed this view and proposed that we shouldn't dwell on language as a picture of reality but rather on how it works; he started to see human language as a tool. He thought that how regular people use the language is a more critical issue than the function of language defining the limits of reality. To him, it was clear that people could not walk around attaching random meanings to the words they use - as Humpty Dumpty did. For language to operate, a set of rules were obviously required. By rules, he mostly meant the rules that apply to the correct use of words, and thereof left with an obligation to explain the nature of these rules. With this aspect of human language in mind, Wittgenstein proposed the concept of "language-game". Language-game was actually a new term, and as is usually the case with many philosophical terminologies, it is not quite like what it sounds. By language game, Wittgenstein was referring to people's real intentions while using language. Most of the time, the meaning that people create collectively comes from understanding which game is being played. The concept of game can be regarded as the context of the language used. Wittgenstein defines language-games as follows:

> We can (…) think of the whole process of using words as one of those games by means of which children learn their native language. I will call these games' language-games' and will sometimes speak of a primitive language as a language game. I shall call the whole, consisting of language and the actions into which it is woven, the 'language-game'. (Wittgenstein, 1963, p. 7)

The interpretation that we could make from the language-game concept is that all miscommunications among people arise because of not knowing which game is being played. For example, when a native speaker of English says "We need to talk" to another, both of them should be aware that there is a problem that needs to be solved; so, we can say that these two are playing the talk-it-over game to solve a common problem. Therefore, good communication can only happen when people mutually realize what kind of language game is being played. Wittgenstein discusses these points in his Philosophical Investigations, first published in 1953. It should be taken into account that Pragmatics emerged as an independent field of study after the 1960s (Kroeger, 2018).

Wittgenstein also realized that language and life are so intertwined to a level that they work without any problems. However, when language is isolated from its context and regarded in abstract and theoretical discussions, we start losing sense of it. His famous saying, "Philosophy begins when language goes on holiday" (Edmonds & Warburton, 2012, p. 207), actually summarizes this point. Wittgenstein (2002) clearly describes his perspective on the matter as follows:

> Most of the propositions and questions to be found in philosophical works are not false but nonsensical. Consequently, we cannot give any answer to questions of this kind, but can only point out that they are nonsensical. Most of the propositions and questions of philosophers arise from our failure to understand the logic of our language. (pp. 22-23)

Wittgenstein's view on the connection between human language and philosophy is not all positive. How he regards human language could be better understood with an analogy. A philosopher approaches a chess player, points to a pawn on the chessboard and asks, "What does this piece do?"; the player answers, "It moves one square forward and attacks diagonally". The philosopher then takes the pawn from the chessboard in his hand and asks, "Now, what does it do?" When placed in the right square on the chessboard, the pawn has a meaning and a function, but when it is removed from the chessboard, it becomes just a meaningless small object. Like the meaningful and functional setting on the chessboard and the relationships among the pieces depending on this setting, human language also needs specific tools and contexts to operate. When these tools are removed from their contexts, all the sense is lost; and according to Wittgenstein, this is precisely what philosophers have been doing over and over again for centuries.

Wittgenstein believed that the task of philosophy is "to show the fly the way out of the fly-bottle" (Sluga & Stern, 1996, p. 338). Fly-bottles are trapping mechanisms that are used to catch flies. The bottle contains a sweet liquid, and the fly enters from an opening at the bottom of the bottle. The fly feeds itself with the liquid and then tries to fly to the upper part of the bottle, to

the light, but since it is sealed, the fly is trapped inside. Wittgenstein believed that we are trapped in pointless discussions about our existence and minds like the fly in the bottle. He also thought that if there is anything inadequate or seemingly imperfect about human language, they are related to the surface grammatical forms rather than the underlying logical form. Therefore, philosophy is only practical when it tries to reveal the underlying logical form of human language. Wittgenstein's ideas were the beginning of a paradigm that would lead the systematic analysis of human language. As a matter of fact, human language as an independent field of study was already beginning to emerge after the posthumous publication of *Cours de Linguistique Générale* by Ferdinand de Saussure in 1916, and a couple of decades later, through the ideas and theories of Noam Chomsky and Steven Pinker, language discussions would take another sharp turn.

3. Discussion

Most elementary philosophical discussions about human language are based on whether knowledge is inherent in the human mind or something shaped by the outside world and our experiences. Different schools of thought have come up with varying answers to this fundamental question. During the 19th century, language discussions took a radical turn and linguistics as an independent field of study was born. Discussions in modern linguistics are out of the scope of this paper; however, it is more than necessary to see the link between language discussions in philosophy and modern linguistics. Discussions in contemporary linguistics are like extensions to the language-related discussions in the history of Western philosophy; after all, linguistics is not a fatherless child.

One of the distinguished figures of the 20th century, Noam Chomsky's works and ideas are like an accumulation of language-related discussions throughout history. Chomsky, in a way, was the resonance of the Cartesian paradigm in the 20th century. Descartes was the father of modern rationalism, which assumes reason to be the source of knowledge, and this paradigm naturally assumes that human beings possess some innate knowledge. In addition to this, Descartes' view of nature operating on mechanical and predictable terms would only falter in the domain of human language because human language was neither mechanical nor predictable in the usual sense, which gave it a *generative* power. These two Cartesian discussions actually lie at the center of Chomsky's view of human language. In his works, Chomsky firmly claims that it is a mistake to consider language as just a simple communication system. After all, when we compare the total time we speak with the total time we keep silent, the latter is definitely more than the former, at least for most of us. To Chomsky, human language cannot be regarded as a simplistic mechanism; human language is both an innate and a generative system specific to homo-sapiens.

Chomsky revolutionized language-related discussions with his theoretical concept of Universal Grammar (UG). As a matter of fact, two centuries before Chomsky, Wilhelm von Humboldt had come up with the idea that human language happens to face a truly boundless domain and

therefore, it needs to make infinite use of finite means (Duffield, 2018). The main idea was that, regardless of a specific language, human language is basically a byproduct of some universal mental system common in all human beings, the UG. Principles and parameters are part of this hypothetical UG. Principles are common features of all languages; for example, an agent is automatically assumed if there is some kind of action. In all the available and possible human languages, the question "Who did this?" is a legitimate one. On the other hand, parameters are grammatical traits that change from one group of languages to another. For example, some languages like Spanish and Turkish allow their speakers to drop the subject of a sentence by providing them with a way to indicate the agents at the morphological level. This is why Spanish and Turkish are examples of pro-drop languages. Contrarily, English and French are two examples of non-pro-drop languages in which, normally, you have no chance to not indicate the subject of a sentence without a subject pronoun.

The UG-related discussions evolved and matured over time, and Chomsky modified his views of human language through a new framework called the Minimalist Program (MP). The MP is an extension of previous studies and theories put forward by Noam Chomsky. From a Chomskyan perspective, the biggest problem to be solved about human language has always been the first language acquisition process. Like every working mechanism in nature, human language is also complex. However, the first language acquisition process across all languages seems to be surprisingly smooth and easy for children whose mental capacities aren't ready for many other complex skills. It is often argued that children know more than they are taught (Sundqvist & Sylven, 2016), and in one of his dialogues, Meno, Plato asks how uneducated children could solve geometrical problems. This argument is often referred to as Plato's problem. Initially, Chomsky tried to explain this problem by postulating levels of representation in language. He theorized a deep structure that included semantic interpretations and a surface structure where phonetic interpretations took place, and he tried to analyze human language in this framework. However, this paradigm was problematic in that its complexity did not contribute much to solving Plato's problem. By 1970, Chomsky moved away from phrase-structure grammar and developed the X-bar theory which proposed that each phrase in every sentence produced by every normal person acts according to a core organization; this universal core organization was what Chomsky had been looking for throughout his career. By the 1990s, deep and surface structures were put aside altogether, and lexical items were brought to the forefront through the concepts of External and Internal Merge.

Chomsky (2000) notes that the MP is a research program – not a theory – investigating to what extent the language faculty provides an optimal design for the satisfaction of conditions at the interface with the sensory-motor system (PF) and the system of thought (LF). In his discussions regarding the minimalist design of human language, it is possible to see the links between his ideas and those of Wittgenstein's and Russell; as they did, Chomsky presupposed a perfect mental universal design that meets humans' physical and conceptual needs at minimal levels. As was mentioned above, Chomsky's attempts to prove that humans are endowed from birth

with a device that can acquire absolutely any kind of specific human language with enough exposure could be associated with Plato's problem of knowledge; therefore, Chomsky's UG and related postulates are basically a linguistic version of Plato's speculations about knowledge as Plato believed that as human beings, we don't learn; we only remember because we are born with innate knowledge.

In line with Chomsky's innateness paradigm, another important modern figure in language discussions, Steven Pinker, suggests that human language has biological dimensions. Under normal conditions, language acquisition is inevitable for humans. Toddlers stand up and start walking when the time comes, and it is the natural course of development; this development does not have a switch-off button. Universally, language acquisition process works in the same manner; under normal conditions, we cannot switch off the language acquisition process. Once the newborn is fed with the language input from the environment, which is the "characteristics of the interpersonal surrounding within which young, language-learning children spend their time" (Lieven, 2012), they will automatically start the acquisition process. Although interaction plays an essential role in first language acquisition, it is not always a *sine qua non*. For example, there are cultures where speech is not addressed to children (see Lieven 2012 for a detailed discussion). Language is like our arms, legs or eyes; it starts operating when the time comes. To Pinker, it is an instinct; he believed that there could be a grammar gene, and the search was still going on (Pinker, 1996). Pinker's ideas had looked like speculations until a mutated gene, which was later named FOXP2, was discovered at the turn of the 21st century (Lai et al., 2001). In the late 1990s, studies focusing on the KE family revealed that 15 individuals across three generations suffered specific language-related problems (SLI) with common symptoms and primarily grammatical deficits. Although it was later confirmed that the current positive evolutionary selection of FOXP2 in humans lacked evidence (Atkinson et al., 2018), this gene is still regarded as highly essential for brain and lung development, particularly for speech and language development (Spiteri et al., 2007).

The rationalist and innatist understanding of human language, which has been consolidated through the ideas of Chomsky and Pinker, has been challenged. One of the principles in Chomsky's UG is *recursion*, and this principle states that repeated and sequential use of linguistic elements is a common trait in all available and possible languages. For example, when we say "He is here.", someone else can say, "I know that he is here." The flexibility of human language creates a possibility to hear a sentence like "I didn't realize that you know that he is here.", yet another new sentence could appear, "I am shocked that you didn't realize that I know that he is here." Theoretically, this series of sentences could go on forever, and linguistically it is called *recursion*. After analyzing the Piraha language for 20 years, Daniel Everett concluded that the Piraha language actually lacks recursion and three of Hockett's famous universal design features of human language (Everett, 2005).

4. Conclusion

Nearly all discussions about the source of human knowledge and, by extension, the nature of human language have revolved around whether they are *a priori*, meaning that humans are born with ready mechanisms, or *a posteriori*, meaning that humans obtain knowledge and language through observation and experience. There seems to be a common consensus on Chomsky's and Pinker's arguments that humans are born with innate mechanisms that enable humans to obtain knowledge and language. However, like in the case of the absence of recursion in the Piraha language, the jury is still out there about many aspects of human language.

Philosophical and scientific discussions since ancient Greece have made it clear that, at least for now, the human mind is equipped with inherent and highly integrated survival modules such as logic, mathematics, and language. However, these *survival tools* are exclusive to the human species, and therefore, they only exist with it. Although there are schools of thought that oppose the sharp distinction between the outside world and the human mind (Russell, 1983), many of the Western minds seem to have negotiated on the idea that meaning, in the traditional sense, does not exist in the outside world; it is the human mind that creates meaning and makes sense of the outside world through the use of inherent mental equipment, primarily through language (see Harari, 2017 for an extensive discussion). Its inherence in the human mind makes human language natural in everyday life. Still, when it is analyzed out of context and discussed in the metaphysical domain, it becomes a rather tricky philosophical problem to be solved. Discussions still continue, and according to Chomsky (2006, p. 11), "Honesty forces us to admit that we are as far today as Descartes was three centuries ago from understanding just what enables a human to speak in a way that is innovative, free from stimulus control, and also appropriate and coherent".

As the story goes, Humpty Dumpty was leading an ordinary and happy life until he started tampering with language. Once he realized the loose ends in language, he began manipulating them, and naturally, he had a great fall. Some pieces are either still missing or lying around, waiting to be picked up by all the king's horses and all the king's men.

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APPLIED SEMIOTICS: INTERPRETATION OF SPACE IN LITERARY NARRATIVES[1]

Murat KALELİOĞLU

1. Introduction

It is possible to mention different approaches in narrative analysis. One of them is semiotics theory, which is associated with almost all disciplines as twenty-first-century science. One of the most critical reasons is that the signs and meanings they carry are at the center of the theory's research object. In general, signs are vital in emerging various scientific fields and transforming these areas into meaningful structures. It is out of the question to talk about the system without signs and the meaning without a system. Every science exists thanks to the logical sequences of signs that support its system's formation. This system is capable of examining facts and events based on concrete knowledge with its metalanguage and systematic approach.

Human beings have never given up signifying the universe where they live. Such an endeavor has been done in a principled and systematic way in the light of science to make life easier and improve the world in which they exist. They have associated the different systems of life with various science fields and institutionalized each field in the form of formal sciences, natural sciences, and social sciences. Each primary area and sub-fields have a unique system constructed by meaningful sequences of signs comprising terminology, rules, analysis methods, and tools. The signification of the system as the study object of semiotics is the result of a systematic reading act.

Semiotics emerged in the mid-twentieth century as a systematic analysis approach and found a wide area of utilization at the end of the same century. The approach has become an umbrella theory under which numerous subfields have developed in the long run. In addition to literature, semiotic studies have been carried out in various fields such as theatre, cinema, advertising, law, architecture, and the like. In this process, the scientific consistency of the results obtained with semiotics analysis tools has also attracted considerable attention.

Especially in the field of literature, research on the constituent elements of meaning and narratives, the functions of these elements, and the way of the text's construction have advanced. According to Tahsin Yücel (1993), at least three essential factors make all kinds of information about the world. The first is the world itself (space), the next is the subject (person), who deals with the world, and the last one is the time when both space and person take place. The world is not the same anymore when there is a slight change in one of these elements. In this respect, space in narratives is an essential element that provides elbow room for people to actualize their activities.

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[1] This article is an extended version of the unpublished paper entitled "Semiotics and Space: Contribution of Space to the Meaning Construction in Narratives", presented online at the International Symposium on Social Sciences and Educational Sciences held on April 10-11, 2021.

Space is vital for the human being who lives in nature, signifies, and shapes it because this formative element represents humans' living space. One can speak of space for man and everything he produces. This is sometimes a natural space to live in, sometimes an inaccessible imaginary space, and it plays a vital role in constructing narratives.

> Spatialization appears as one of the components of discoursivization (i.e., the putting into discourse of deeper semiotic structures). First, it comprises procedures of spatial localization […]. It also includes procedures for spatial programming, thanks to which a linear disposition of partial spaces (obtained through localizations) is realized; this disposition conforms with the temporal programming of the narrative programs (Greimas & Courtés, 1985, pp. 306-307).

A space-oriented analysis is made in this study. "Spatial programming refers to the relationship established in a narrative between particular places and stages in the quest of an actor" (Martin & Ringham, 2006, p. 190). Throughout the process, the existence of space in different *dichotomies*, its semantic value and relationship between other constituent elements such as person and time, its impact on these elements, and the value that space adds to the narrative are questioned within the scope of semiotics. Such an analysis also helps us to question spatial programming formation.

> A dichotomy is a pair of terms—usually belonging to the epistemological level of the metalanguage—which are simultaneously posited, with an emphasis upon the relation of opposition that allows them to be linked the one with the other. […] Such an approach is characteristic of the structural attitude, which prefers to posit the differences—viewed as more enlightening—before examining and defining the concepts (Greimas & Courtés, 1985, p. 78).

The study is structured on specific binary oppositions (dichotomies) obtained from the events and situations encountered in the narrative. Within the framework of the possibilities of semiotics, various spaces in the narrative are compared within themselves, analyzed in different aspects, and their contribution to the meaning universe is observed.

Also, foreign language education departments, schools, and practitioners are addressed while conducting this study. As it is known, the place of literary texts in language education is crucial. Such texts enormously contribute to students' learning processes in both in-class and out-of-class applications. For this reason, care is taken to ensure that the analysis method and steps created during the study will also give an idea to foreign language practitioners. Hence, the semiotic analysis activity carried out in this paper on a literary text as an example has the characteristics of a sample that can be applied in classroom processes for practitioners.

2. Orhan Kemal and "Uyku" Narrative

Today, it is possible to talk about literary works produced with different perspectives and approaches. One of these approaches is social realism, and the prominent practitioner of this approach is the author, who established an intimate relationship with the society they live. Since such authors try to reveal the harsh living conditions of individuals exposed to relentless practices and possible factors that cause difficulties and injustice with a critical and expository perspective, it is impossible to consider the writers away from society's realities. Moreover,

social realist authors, who put ideological apparatus, power relations, and the adverse effects on society at the core of their art, act with a sense of social responsibility and advocate that the work of art produced by them is for society.

Orhan Kemal (1914-1970) is one of the remarkable social realist authors in Turkish literature. "Orhan Kemal has never become distant from realism and realistic approach" (Moran, 2001, p. 149) in his writings. Accordingly, Kemal's close interest in society's problems and conflicts and the desire to scrutinize their reasons in his narratives stem from his close relationship with the society in which he lives. He is an essential author encouraged to write by Nazım Hikmet, who closely observes social problems just as Sabahattin Ali and questioned these problems in his masterpieces. Kemal's works' scope is generally based on class discrimination, exploitation, alienation, and poverty.

Nazım Hikmet's friendship is crucial in Kemal's literary life. In one of his letters to Orhan Kemal, Hikmet states:

> I admire your sensitivity to reality. You have a perfect novelist and storyteller fabric. There is no reason why you should not be successful. You are brave. […] I trust you. If you continue to work at this pace, see, and think in this way, you will give important works to Turkish people and the world (Quoted by Çalışlar, 1987, p. 325).

Kemal always satisfied Hikmet and his thoughts about him by not separating art and real life. As a social realist author, Orhan Kemal insists on preserving the togetherness of life and art in his works. As for understanding Kemal's perspectives on art, it is crucial to consider his philosophy:

> Undoubtedly, a socialist author has a 'materialist philosophy'. However, this materialism is not materialism with a metaphysical aspect, but a 'scientific materialism'. The writer who moves from here will be parallel to this point of departure with his/her works (Kemal, 1970).

Orhan Kemal does not produce his narratives according to the truths imposed by ideology; on the contrary, he tries to highlight the absolute truth of individuals in his narratives because, according to him, "an artist is a person who expresses his social concerns through art" (Kemal, 1970).

Kemal states that "the general source of my subjects is human" (1970), which can also be seen in his narrative entitled "Uyku", which is the subject of this study. "Uyku" is a short story written in 1942 and published by *Varlık* publishing house as one of the twenty-four stories in a book entitled *Ekmek Kavgası* in 1949. As understood from the story, Orhan Kemal, whose literature stands for justice, tells ordinary people's lives with solid fictionalized dialogues thanks to his influential observations.

The story takes place in a factory, a space where a poor little boy must work under harsh conditions for a living. At first glance, the space of the narrative is immediately noticeable. However, as one of the primary purposes of semiotic analysis is to emerge implicit and

ideological facts behind the scenes, it is necessary to question the existence of space from different angles.

3. Semiotics

The basis for the progress of semiotics studies and the support of interdisciplinary studies by associating its data with different fields of science are the studies carried out in the past. Thanks to these studies, semiotics has created its terminology, a meta-language, and put forward its analysis tools to reach consistent data. Considering the definition of the term 'science', which gives its name to the theory (semiotics=semi*ology*=gösterge*bilim*), it is observed that there is no objection to semiotics as a branch of science since it has the characteristics required for a branch of science. Namely, as in other branches of science, semiotics also has a unique meta-language, defined boundaries, and methodology.

One of the fields where semiotic studies are frequently conducted is the literary field. The literary semiotics theory emerged from the close relationship between semiotics and literature with an interdisciplinary perspective. The studies carried out since the 1960s are essential in the emergence of the theory. Especially the works of Algirdas Julien Greimas and Tahsin Yücel have an important place in applied semiotics.

Greimas benefited from the views of scholars who contributed to the field, such as Saussure, Hjelmslev, Levi-Stratus, and Propp while formulating his semiotic design. He, inspired by his predecessors, grounds his semiotic design in the context of deep and surface structures. Greimas mentions that the object of study of semiotics can be defined according to its modes of production. It proves that Greimas primarily aimed at revealing the generation process of the wholes comprised of the meaningful arrangement of signs. This is why Greimas called the representation of his semiotic design the generative trajectory, which extends from the deep structure to the surface structure. In Greimas' model of the production process of meaning, it is possible to get a general idea about the various meaning layers with different characteristics and how they are articulated. Paying close attention to the path here, it is apparent that the continuum is designed a flow from abstract to concrete knowledge.

It is possible to read the process stated above in reverse for both Greimas and his followers. In a contrary reading of Greimas' diagram of the production process of meaning, a path is followed from concrete systems to abstract ones, from simple and visible structures to complex and invisible, implicit structures that cannot be perceived at first glance. This proposition of reading in reverse is also seen in the works of Denis Bertrand. Bertrand constructs Greimas' generative trajectory and re-proposes it as a trajectory of analysis. According to Bertrand, in this process, discursive, narrative, and deep structures are dealt with, respectively. Here, the main aim is to reveal how meaning is constructed at each layer. Regardless of the propositions listed here, the aim of semiotics is the same. Semiotics is an approach that pursues the hidden, implicit meaning contrary to what is visible at first glance.

4. Analysis

This paper aims to carry out an applied semiotic analysis of how the meaning universe of the narrative "Uyku" is constructed within space and propose an analysis method for practitioners. The practitioners here are educators at different teaching levels who contribute to foreign language education, researchers interested in semiotics, and readers curious about how to read in detail. Therefore, specific questions will be asked, and answers will be sought to make the process meaningful for the stated audiences.

In narratives, space is as important as time and person. Considering space from a limited point of view only as a decor in which the narrative characters are placed is problematic in terms of meaning and interpretation. Approaching the subject of space in this way means that the meaning derived from the narrative is narrow. However, it is possible to overcome this narrowness through a semiotic reading act. For this, it is first necessary to examine the three essential constituent elements of narrative, especially space, and how they are constructed within the narrative.

Question 1: How can the constituent elements of a literary narrative and their values in fiction be identified during a semiotic reading?

Answer: First, it is vital to identify the narrative persons, the spaces and time in which they are placed because, in this identification process, the descriptive values of person, space, and time should be revealed. During the narrative analysis, it is crucial to visualize the descriptive elements of the narrative person, space, and time with the help of a table to observe them in the first meaning layer of the narrative and their semantic values. Thanks to these values that will be determined by assessing the *descriptive meaning level* (see Greimas & Courtés, 1985, p. 171) of the narrative, some binary oppositions guiding the analysis will be determined, and the study will proceed on the basis of these oppositions. Otherwise, an analysis that is not based on the data obtained from the narrative and that will be made with randomly created oppositions will negatively affect the validity and reliability of the results to be obtained. The constituent elements of Orhan Kemal's narrative "Uyku" [2] can be shown in a table.

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[5] The narrative "Uyku", the research subject of this study, is taken from the 36th edition of the book *Ekmek Kavgası*, in which Orhan Kemal's stories are brought together. The narrative "Uyku" is between the 80th and 90th pages of the book. The relevant quotes from the narrative will be stated as *page* and *line numbers* (80/11) -first, the page number and then the line number.

Table 1. Constituent elements of the descriptive meaning level

		Descriptive values	Thematic roles
Narrative person **Real narrative person**	a. Yüz elli amele işçi (page: 80/ line: 3) b. Ustabaşı (81/20) c. Baba Ferhat (81/20) d. Çocuk Sami (81/32) e. Dışarıdaki çocuklar (81/26) f. Bekçiler (82/46) g. Celal usta (87/226) h. Şuayip (83/92) i. Danyal (83/92) j. Çocuk Nuri (84/112) k. Çocuk Haydar (85/168) l. Çocuk Celalettin (86/180) m. Fabrika sahibi (90/311)	a. 80'i 14-16 yaş çocuk, 70'i yetişkin işçiler; birbirine benzeyen çocukların üstü başı yırtık; terden sırılsıklam (80/3-4-5-6-7); yalınayak; ayakları bileklerine kadar sim siyah (82/54-55); vıcık vıcık (90/309); halsiz (85/159) b. 45 yaşlarında, zayıf, kısa boylu; aksi (81/13-34) c. İşini bilen (84/134) d. Küçük; yorgun; ihtiyaç sahibi; ince; dar omuzlu (83/104); zayıf (85/149; öksüz (85/151; uykusuzlukktan kıpkırmızı gözlü (86/209) e. Küçük yaşta çocuklar (81/26-27) f. Sorumluluk sahibi, menfaat koruyucusu (81-82/45-46-47) g. Uyanık; insaflı (89/304-305-306)	a. Twenty child laborers working on press machines b. Foreman; the second man after the factory owner; guardian of interests c. Skilled workman d. Worker of the tenth press; the boy who fell asleep in the toilet due to exhaustion e. Idle children waiting for work outside f. Factory watchmen g. Head of workers h. Ironmaster i. Journeyman of ironmaster Şuayip j. Pressboy k. Worker of the eighteenth press l. Worker at the press next to child Haydar m. Employer

		h. Elli yaşlarında (83/96) i. Topense kesik saçları; yeni yetme delikanlı; cüsseli (83/94-95) j. Alaycı; kuvvetli; yeşil gözlü (85/145-146) k. Küçük; bağıran; başı yarılan kanayan; ağlayan; korkan (85/168-169-170) l. Küçük; kekeme (86/182) m. Kısa boylu; biçimli (90/311-312)	
Legal narrative person[3]	a. İş Dairesi (81/45) b. Hükümet (88/247)	a. Gözleyen; gözeten (81/45) b. Koruyan (88/247-248)	a. Rights defender; employee working under the labor law; worker's defender; complaint authority b. Lawmaker
Space	a. Fabrika (80/2) b. Atelye (80/7) c. Fabrikanın dışı (81/26) d. Kömür ambarı (82/53) e. Hela (82/68) f. Muslukların başı (82/69) g. Ambar ve Depolar (82/56) h. Tav ocakları (82/47)	a. Adaletsiz ve ağır çalışma koşulları olan; sömüren (81-82/43-49) *Place of production of metal goods* b. Tornaların frezelerin tav ocaklarının preslerin sari yanan 75 mumlukların oldğu ağır	

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[3] For more information, see Kalelioğlu, 2018, p. 94.

	i. Pres kanalları; Ambalaj sandıkları; Çuvalların arası; kömür ambarı (89/293-294) j. Ustabaşı odası (89/301) k. Fabrikanın dışı (87/216) l. Tamir odası (81/21) m. Fabrika sahibinin odası (90/312)	makinelerin çalıştığı yer (86/205-207); aşırı sıcak; bunaltıcı; gürültülü (80/7-8); benzin ve gazyağı kokan ağır havalı (86/199-200) *Heavy-duty workspace* c. Kapının önünde birçok çocuğun iş beklediği yer (81/26-27) d. Rutubetli; serin; gözden uzak (83/85-86) *A place of escape where child laborers can comfortably breathe, play and sleep* e. Serin; kalabalık (82/70); karanlık; kötü kokan (88/272-275) *The area where children have fun; the most monitored place; the place where children run away, and the masters chase them* f. Serin; Rahat; gözden uzak (82/69-70) *A hiding place to sleep* g. Serin, Rahat, gözden uzak (56-83/85-86) *A hiding place to sleep*	

		h. Çok sıcak (82/50-78) *Location of the forges where iron is annealed* i. Uyumaya elverişli yerler (89/292) *Places where tired children escape to sleep* j. Atelyenin sonunda; on basamak merdivenle çıkılan; bol pencereli; atelyeye hakim (86/188-191) *Foreman's comfort zone* k. Aydınlık gece; uzaktan gelen gramafon sesleri; civarlar işçi mahalleleri; karanlık alt alta ve üst üste evler (87/216-218) *Bright, comfortable, and peaceful night; hard and tired lives* l. Ufak, işlevsel (81-87/21-227-228) *Workerhead's comfort zone* m. Rahat, temiz, sakin (90/312) *Boss office*	
Time	a. Cumartesi (80/1) b. Yaz (81/41) c. 13.15 (82/59)	a. Tatil olması gereken gün (80/1-2)	

	d. 14.00 (83/83) e. Gece yarısından sonra (85/158) f. Gece 02.30 a doğru (86/196) g. Gece 02.50 (89/297) h. Sabah (90/311)	b. Sıcak; bunaltıcı (81-82/41-42-50) c. Çalışma zamanı (82/59-61) d. 1 saatlik paydos (83/84) e. Çalışma zamanı (85/157-161) f. Yorgunluk, uykusuzluk, tehlikeli (89-90/306-316) g. Yorgunluk, uykusuzluk, tehlikeli (89-90/306-316) h. Pazar günü; yorgunluk, uykusuzluk (90/316)	

Table 1 shows the elements that Orhan Kemal utilizes in constructing the first meaning level in his narrative. This table has been produced in response to the first question to illustrate the descriptive values and thematic roles within the framework of person, space, and time. "An actor possesses a thematic role if s/he is described in terms of 'themes' such as those of doctor, teacher, carpenter, housewife. These 'themes' are socially defined, stereotyped functions." (Martin & Ringham, 2006, p.200). Each element belonging to the person, space, and time that Kemal puts in his narrative is meaningful in its system. The most important factor contributing to the depth of meaning here is the relationship of these signs with other signs within the same system. Of course, signs are structures that express meaning on their own, but this meaning is relatively narrow and superficial. The source of the depth of meaning lies in the relationship of a sign with other signs produced in the same system. None of these signs are independent of each other. The person, space, and time constructed on the descriptive dimension of the narrative, and their features and the thematic roles they play are based on the data obtained from the narrative. None of them are independent from the narrative and are haphazard.

Binary oppositions, which have an important place in the formation of meaning, are one of the foundations of this study. Therefore, the following question comes to mind:

Question 2: How are binary oppositions determined and analyzed in a semiotic study?

Answer: Nothing in a semiotic analysis is a coincidence. A proposition has absolute grounds and strong assumptions based on these grounds. Therefore, it is not accidental that binary oppositions are identified in the object of analysis. On a closer examination of Table 1, it is

seen that different oppositions can be created by drawing inspiration from many elements encountered in the textual plane of the narrative. The thing to be considered here is the goal of the study. According to this purpose, it is crucial to perform an analysis in which space and its effects on other constituent elements are in the center (for other studies, see Büyükkarcı, 2021a, pp. 1063-1067; Büyükkarcı, 2021b, p. 43). Accordingly, the dichotomies formulated here should be directly or indirectly relevant to the space.

In semiotics, the analysis processes and procedures to be followed are intimately correlated to the theoretical background of the practitioner doing the analysis, his/her experiences in practice, and the objectives he/she intends to accomplish on the study object. It is also a kind of profound reading act. In this process, the departure points and bases designated for the next stage are based on the data obtained in the previous stage. This further weakens randomness. In other words, the data gathered at the analysis stage of a level of meaning, even if it is descriptive, constitute the basis for the data to be obtained at other stages of analysis. This increases the validity and reliability of the data obtained at the end of a semiotic analysis process.

Considering the space part of Table 1, some vital dual oppositions can be identified with the support of the narrative:

Table 2. Binary oppositions within space

Opposition			
Space	a.	Surrounding	Surrounded
	b.	Desirable	Undesirable
	c.	External	Internal
	d.	Reliable	Unreliable

The determined oppositions in Table 2 are derived from the data collected from the narrative in Table 1. Accordingly, the narrative "Uyku" can be analyzed in at least three oppositions: surrounding/ surrounded space, desirable / undesirable space, external/ internal space, and reliable/ unreliable space.

4.1. Surrounding / surrounded space

Whether a space is a surrounding space or a surrounded space depends on the other elements in the same spatial system. Accordingly, in Table 1, there are diverse spaces in the fiction of the narrative "Uyku". To make a definition from surrounding space to surrounded space or vice versa, it is first necessary to identify a space that will form the ground for that. It is possible to access such data by considering the whole narrative. Orhan Kemal has already given this data to the readers at the beginning of the narrative: "Madeni Eşya Fabrikası..." (80/2). The factory is, therefore, data that can be put at the center with its scope.
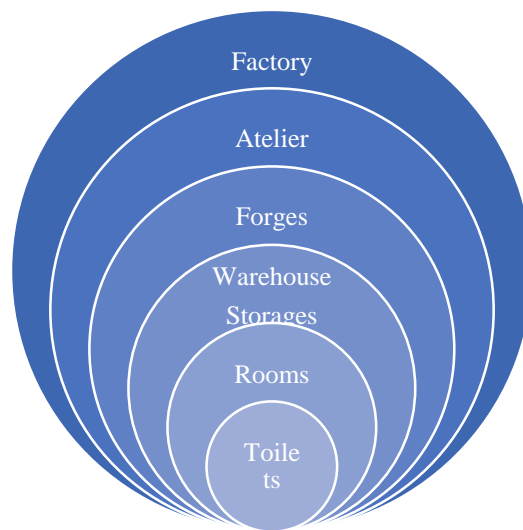
Figure 1. Surrounding / surrounded spaces

Considering how the factory is fictionalized as a surrounding space, it is evident that it has a large atelier where workers produce. The atelier has clamps, press and milling machines, forges, and storage areas. Additionally, the factory has an office for the boss, an office for the foreman, a small repair room, toilets, and taps. Reading the case in reverse, toilets, rooms, warehouses and storerooms, forges, and the atelier appear as the spaces surrounded by the factory. In other words, while large spaces cover small spaces, small spaces are covered by large spaces.

Each of the spaces in the narrative is in relation to the others, and all these spaces have a particular function. The most significant of these functions is that space gives mobility to other constituent components (person and time). For instance, space is a constructive element that socially, economically, and psychologically affects the narrative persons. The states, as mentioned earlier, of the narrative persons vary in accordance with the spaces given in Table 1 and Figure 1. It is necessary to refer to the descriptive values of the elements in Table 1 to explain the situation. These values reveal how the spaces constructed in the narrative are, their effect on whom, and the social class difference.

Table 3. Formative elements and functions of the factory as a surrounding space

Space	Quotes	Function
Factory	Fabrikanın yüz elli amelesinden sekseni, on dörtle on altı yaş arasında erkek çocuklardı (80/2-3). İş Kanunu'na göre fabrika saat birden itibaren paydos etmeye mecburdu (81/43-44).	Employer's and employees' means of livelihood
Atelier	Atölyenin makine gürültüsü yüklü ağır havası (80/7-8). Atelye karardı, tav ocaklarının kızıllığı birden bütün kuvvetiyle meydana çıktı (82/47-48). Bunaltan bir sıcak başlamıştı (82/50). Bütün atölye […] her şey, herkes […] bitkindi (86/205-107). Atölye sabaha kadar gittikçe artan ağır havasını kaybetmedi (89/307). Frezelerin altları kucak kucak yonga dolmuştu (90/309-310).	Production space
Forges	Tav ocaklarının kızıllığı birden bütün kuvvetiyle meydana çıktı (82/47-48). Ocakların orası müthiş sıcaktı (82/78). Tav ocakları da kararmaya yüz tutmuş (88/258-259).	Production support space
Warehouse-storages	Kömür ambarına […] (82/53). Kalıplanan karavanları ambara […], depolardan tav ocaklarına […] (82/56).	Storing, cooling, resting, and playing space
Rooms	Tamir odasının […] (81/21). Ustabaşının odası (86/188). Fabrika sahibi […] odasına geçti (90/311-312).	Offices of the employer and foreman.
Toilets	Burası atölyenin içinden daha serin olduğundan […] (82/70). Hela karanlıktı (88/272). Çok fena kokuyordu (88/275).	Cooling, playing, relaxing, and sleeping space

The factory space, which has an overarching quality, becomes more meaningful with the sub-spaces in its system. For example, as seen in Table 3, the meaningfulness of a factory space depends on the sub-spaces that make it functional. The functions of these elements have transformed the related spaces from being just a decoration in the narrative and given them different functional meanings. For example, it is possible to compare the sub-spaces of the factory, which is an encompassing space within itself. This comparison can be made with the

desirable/undesirable space opposition by considering the situation of child laborers working in the factory.

4.2. Desirable / undesirable space

Desirable space   Undesirable space

Toilets, warehouses, storages   Atelier, forges
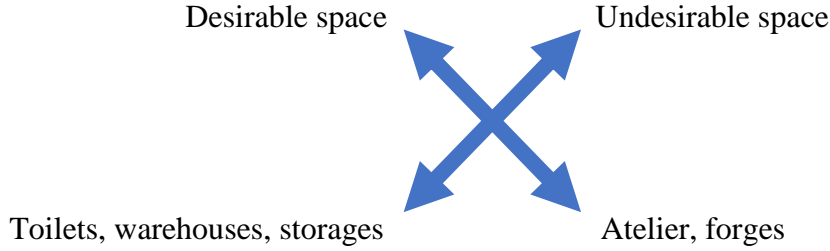
Figure 2. Surrounded space within desirable / undesirable opposition

In Figure 1, the spaces surrounded by the factory (atelier, forges, toilets, warehouses, and storage) can be evaluated within the desirable / undesirable dichotomy. It is possible to analyze these spaces in terms of various narrative persons. For example, these spaces can be analyzed in the context of the interaction between the child workers of the factory and the spaces indicated as desirable / undesirable in Figure 2:

> Terden sırılsıklamdılar… Atölyenin makine gürültüsü yüklü ağır havasında kaynaşıyorlardı. Gömleklerinin yağlı kollarıyla terlerini sildikçe de vıcık vıcık makine yağı büsbütün sıvaşıyordu (80/7-8-11-12). Atölye karardı, tav ocaklarının kızıllığı birden bütün kuvvetiyle meydana çıktı (82/47-48). Koca atölye Sami'nin tepesinde dönüyordu sanki. Baskın hava şimdi büsbütün ağırlaşmıştı (84/139-140). Atölyenin benzin, gazyağı kokan ağır havası başını ağrıtıyordu (86/199-200). Atölye sabaha kadar gittikçe artan ağır havasını kaybetmedi. Yetmiş beşer mumlukların altında çalışan insanlar, zeytinyağına batınlıp çıkarılmış gibi vıcık vıcıklar (89-90/307-309).

As can be seen from the quotes, as a covered space, the atelier with heavy machinery and forges is a space with unfavorable weather and harsh working conditions. Thus, child laborers often move away from such an undesirable space to other spaces to breathe fresh air, cool off, or even take a nap, even if only for a short time.

> Muslukların fışkıran suyunda el yüz yıkayanlar, sıra bekleyenler, helalara girip çıkanlar, fırsattan istifade kovalamaca oynayanlar (80/8-9-10). Burası atölyenin içinden daha serin olduğundan, çocukların hoşuna gider (82/70-71). Çocuk Sami musluğun fışkıran ılık suyunda elini yüzünü yıkadı, vücudunu ıslattı, yaş gövdesini ovdu, serinledi (82/74-75). Ambar karanlıktı, rutubetliydi ama toprak serin. İri bir maden kömürü parçasını başının altına alıp yorgun vücudunu toprağa bıraktı hemen uyudu (83/85-87). Pres kanallarında, ambalaj sandıklarında, kömür ambarında, çuvalların arasında uyuyan ne kadar çocuk, büyük işçi yakaladıysa uyandırdı (89/293-295).

Toilets, warehouses, and storages are spaces where workers relax, sleep, cool off, and play. The children, overwhelmed by the harsh working conditions imposed by the factory, try to escape to these spaces at the slightest opportunity to breathe a sigh of relief. Therefore, it is apparent that such spaces are desirable spaces for child laborers.

Table 4. Desirable / undesirable spaces

Opposition	Condition	Inference
Desirable space	Water, coolness, game, joy, comfort, relaxation	Positive
Undesirable space	Sweat, grease, dirt, malodor, long working hours, fatigue	Negative

Another important detail that needs to be noted is that the issue of space can also be tackled from different standpoints within the opposition of surrounding/ surrounded space. Hence, comparing all the spaces given in Figure 1 among themselves separately is a continuation of the analysis. However, since this study is a methodological proposal, we have focused on the basic spaces and oppositions. In this way, we have determined a methodological suggestion for the reader by providing a road map on how the space is analyzed and what information can be obtained from such an analysis.

4.3. External / internal space

As indicated in Table 2, the space issue can be analyzed within the internal/ external space dichotomy based on the descriptive data in Table 1 derived from the narrative. In Figure 1, the factory is treated as a surrounding space. Nevertheless, considering the narrative, the factory is also seen as a surrounding space. In this sense, it is possible to revisit the space issue regarding the factory's inside (internal space) and outside (external space).

> Kapının önü kendi kadar çocuklarla dolu (81/36-37). Atölyenin arka pencerelerinden olanca hızıyla vuran öğle güneşi, içerden […]. Fabrikanın gürültüsü dışardan işitilir de […] (81/41-45). Dışarıda aydınlık bir gece vardı. Uzaktan bir gramafon sesi geliyor, civar mahalleler -bunlar işçi mahalleleriydi- […] (87/216-217).

External space   Internal space

Outside the factory, neighborhood   Inside the factory
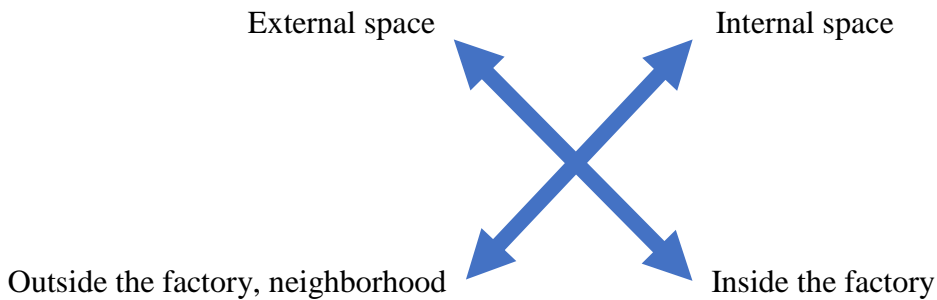
Figure 3. External / internal spaces

Within this new dichotomy, different kinds of analyses can be performed concerning the spaces surrounded by the factory and the space surrounding the factory. For instance, the children

waiting for work outside the factory and the children working inside the factory. On one side of the door (internal space), a few children have found a job in the factory. They have the opportunity to earn a living, even if the conditions are harsh, while on the other side of the door (external space), children are waiting all day long for that opportunity.

> Öğleden sonra iş var... Sabaha kadar çalışacağız belki de... İsteyen gidebilir, kalan çift yevmiye alacak... (81/28-29). Fabrikanın işçiye ihtiyacı yok ki, kapının önü kendi kadar çocuklarla dolu. Saat ücretlerinin düşmesine sebep hep bu aylak çocuklar (81/36-37).

Table 5. External / internal opposition within unemployed and employed child labor

Opposition	Condition	Inference
External space	Children looking for an opportunity to work and earn a living	Negative
Internal space	Children who have the opportunity to earn a living by working	Positive

Evaluating the external/ internal spaces in terms of working/ non-working children in Table 5, it is possible to draw a negative or positive inference about them. The situation of children who have the opportunity to work and earn money in the factory space is favorable compared to others. In contrast, the situation of those who do not have this chance is negative.

On the other hand, when the harsh working conditions of the factory as an internal space are taken into account, a different picture emerges

Table 6. External / internal opposition within heavy working conditions

Opposition	Condition	Inference
External space	Bright night, quiet, music coming from outside, people relaxing at home	Positive
Internal space	Dark, oppressive, hot, noisy, malodorous, long working hours, child laborers chased by the foreman and workshop supervisor, injustice, underpaid labor	Negative

Table 6 is a comparison of workers working inside the factory and their working environment with the environment outside the factory in the context of external/ internal space. Conditions and opportunities of the factory are so severe that the darkness, noise, machine noises, heavy foul-smelling air, sleeplessness, and exhaustion of the workers, are in sharp contrast to the brightness and silence of the night outside the factory, the sound of the gramophone in the distance, and the people resting in their homes. It is possible to indicate this contrast with the inference made in the positive and negative binary opposition. Therefore, while many things in the factory space are negative for the workers, the phenomena outside the factory are positive inferences.

4.4. Reliable / unreliable space

The final dichotomy needed to be investigated is reliable/ unreliable space. The data obtained above brought the analysis process to this point. Many situations regarding the narrative of "Uyku" can be addressed within the framework of the suggested binary opposition. Our preference in this section will be the illegal working environment imposed on the workers in the factory.

Reliable space   Unreliable space

Legal working conditions   Illegal working conditions
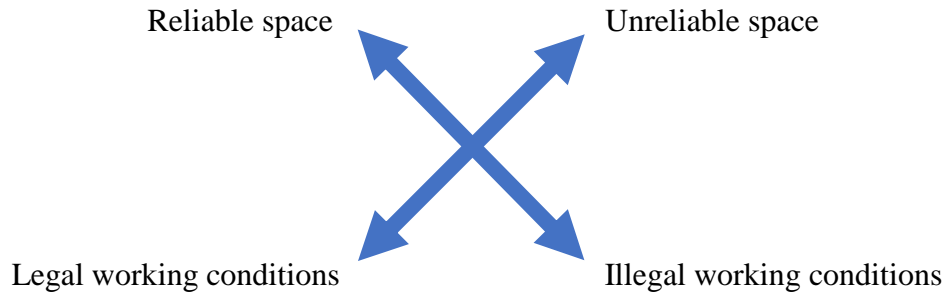
Figure 4. Reliable / unreliable spaces

One of the most striking facts in the narrative is the situation in Table 6.

> Herkes paydos sanmıştı. Hâlbuki ustabaşı, tornalardan birinin üstüne sıçradı, düdük öttürdü, işçiyi topladı. Nutuk söyler gibi, "Bana bakın!" diye bağırdı. "Öğleden sonra iş var... Sabaha kadar çalışacağız belki de" (81/25-28). İş Kanunu'na göre fabrika saat birden itibaren paydos etmeye mecburdu. Onun için, fabrikanın gürültüsü dışardan işitilir de İş Dairesi'nin kulağına gider diye, ustabaşının emriyle fabrika bekçileri atölyenin tüm pencerelerini, tavandaki yuvarlak deliklere varana kadar örtünce atölye karardı (81-82/43-47). "Çoluk çocuğun anasını ağlatıyorsunuz. Hükümet İş Kanunu yapar, günde sekiz saat mesai kabul eder, siz fakir fukarayı on sekiz saat çalıştırırsınız" (88/248-249).

Table 7. Reliable / unreliable binary opposition

Opposition	Condition	Inference
Reliable space	Legal working environment where the provisions of the Labor Law are applied	Positive
Unreliable space	Illegal working environment where the provisions of the Labor Law are not applied: long working hours, low pay, unhealthy working environment	Negative

The situation in Table 7 proves that the factory space is not trustworthy for the workers. As in the fiction of the narrative, the government and related institutions have regulated working hours and wages through the Labor Law. An enterprise that complies with these rules protects labor and workers' rights and ensures that the working environment becomes safer for employers and workers. However, the factory, which is fictionalized as a legal entity and a space in Kemal's narrative, is an unreliable space, particularly for the workers. It is evident from the data in Table 7 and the extracts from the narrative.

As a result of the analysis process, the space in Kemal's narrative "Uyku" appears in different types and with different semantic values on the descriptive meaning level. Although the analysis stage is carried out on the descriptive meaning level, it is possible to increase the oppositions and the analysis examples. At this point, an important question arises:

Question 3: What is the use of the data obtained in the descriptive level analysis process so far?

Answer: Meaning is never finished. In semiotic analyses, as the meaning layer and the analysis tools become deeper in parallel with the analysis progress, the structures to be analyzed increase at a similar rate. Thus, most data obtained at the first meaning level are used in the narrative and deep-level analyses. As stated earlier, the outcomes obtained from the analysis conducted with semiotic theory are not arbitrary. The data obtained from each meaning layer is of great value in analyzing the subsequent meaning level. It contributes significantly to the validity and reliability of the conclusions reached in the research.

5. Conclusion

Space is a formative element that provides narrative persons with a specific elbow room and enables their activities to take place. Each narrative has different spaces with various meanings and functions that can be evaluated from different perspectives. Space can be evaluated on its

divisions, such as literary space, space of the narrative, and space of discourse under narratology. In contrast, space can be studied on its relational status with other spaces and constituent elements of narratives concerning literary semiotics.

The meaning of a sign is in its binary opposition. Therefore, space can also be analyzed as a sign within the framework of certain contrary relations. Such an analysis would lead to the semantic extension of space and meaning of the narrative constructed in its system. Thereby, space can be classified in various ways, and it is thought that space influences the relationship of individuals with each other, their acts, and moods regarding its type. It is also thought that spatial changes bring along temporal changes in narratives.

In this study, a semiotic analysis has been conducted on the formative elements of meaning that support the generation of the semantic universe of Orhan Kemal's "Uyku" narrative. In this process, the existence of space within different oppositions, its semantic value, the relationship between space and other constituent elements such as time and person, and the possible effects of space on the narrative persons, have been examined.

In the analysis process, the data obtained regarding the space at the descriptive level have been analyzed with different binary oppositions, and the value it adds to the narrative's semantic universe has been revealed. In the analysis process, we remained faithful to the narrative structure and the dichotomies that formed the basis of the analysis, and the analysis was carried out within this framework. As mentioned before, the meaning has yet to be finalized. For this reason, the signs constituting the semantic universe of the narrative can be studied at specific meaning dimensions, and the relations between these signs can be analyzed not only at the descriptive level but also at the narrative and deep levels of meaning.

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CORPUS STUDIES AND ELT

Semra ONAY TAŞ

Nazlı BAYKAL

1. Introduction

In 21st century, technology has become an indispensable teaching tool utilized for almost every different field of education. Especially for foreign language education, being a resource of motivation has increased the learner's attraction towards the foreign language courses. Besides being a motivation resource, it has been also a beneficial instrument in terms of bringing the learners together with the real life use of target language. In the past, being exposed to real language use was only restricted to going abroad where the target language was spoken or interacting with natives visiting our country. In that case, the duration of interaction was not satisfactory for acquisition. However, today the concept of corpus has the opportunity to bring the language in use samples to teachers and students. Electronic corpora and its attendant software have an increasing influence on language teaching in terms of language description and on the design of teaching materials.

Although corpora first came into view in 1987 following the publication of first corpus-based dictionary for learners - Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary - (Gabrielatos, 2005), unfortunately, few language teachers have corpus awareness. Most of the teachers are not familiar with the nature of corpora, its relationship with language education and how to use it in their class. In addition, English language teaching programs at many universities have not incorporated corpus-based approach in methodology and material development course syllabi yet.

The frequently asked questions posed by teachers are related to what corpus and corpus linguistics is what it serves in language education and how to use it. Since the efficacy of English learning and teaching can be enhanced with the incorporation of data representing authentic English obtained from corpora (Phoocharoensil, 2012), Timmis (2015) states that language teachers should be familiar with corpus research. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to review corpus (linguistics) and its applications in language education. To do this, primarily, the word 'corpus' meaning body in Latin origin will be defined in the way we believe which is most comprehensive. Secondly, types of corpora (general, specialized, etc.) and their well-known examples will be mentioned. Finally, different types of use of corpora (direct and indirect) in English language education will be presented shortly. In addition to theoretical explanations, the examples of previous studies and future suggestions will be included.

2. Definition and Use of Corpora in General Terms

What is corpus? In a very simple way, Oxford learner's dictionary defines corpus (plural corpora) as a collection of written or spoken texts. In linguistics and in a broad way, Sinclair (2004), precursor of corpus linguistics identified a corpus as "collection of pieces of language text in electronic form, selected according to external criteria (examination of the communicative function of a text) to represent, as far as possible, a language or language variety

as a source of data for linguistic research" (para.82). A recent short description was made by Friginal (2018) as systematically collected information of naturally occurring categories of texts. The word 'text' is a common key word in each definition of corpus. Texts refer to both written and spoken language (transcriptions of speech) in corpus linguistics (Timmy, 2015).

A corpus aims to represent a language or some part of a language. It shows us the language use in the real life. On the other hand, it does not answer all the questions about language use, yet the evidences it gives direct us towards a descriptive approach of a language (Jones & Waller, 2015).

A corpus is not only used by researchers but also by language teachers and learners for teaching and learning purposes besides academic researches. For example, using corpus software enables both teachers and students to analyse the most frequent words or language patterns taking place in a certain corpus data. Therefore, teachers and learners can visualise a picture about vocabulary or another language pattern that should be learned primarily (Fauzi, 2020). Corpus, therefore, makes the learners of English as a foreign language or English for a specific purpose get exposed to the language used by native speakers. Learners, teachers or researchers are not dependent on some natives' intuition around them. Thus, corpora are claimed to be more reliable than the native speakers' intuition which is a personal, independent and non-negotiable assessment of language pattern (Sinclair, 2004)

Sinclair (1991, as cited in Fauzi, 2020) stated that the bigger the corpus is, the more reliable it is to generalize the language use better. The British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) are a 'big-name' corpora having both spoken and written components. However, design of the corpus is much more important than its size (McCarty & Carter, 2007, as cited in Timmis, 2015). Smaller corpus is believed to be more useful for classroom purposes. Demographic factors (such as age, gender, social class) and genres and context of the language are related to the design of corpus.

3. Types of Corpus

There are varieties of corpora categorised according to their features and properties. In order to uncover or understand the language patterns, those who are interested in language study can explore different types of corpora with computational tools.

3.1. General / reference corpora

General corpora contain both written and spoken components. Friginal (2018) defines general corpora as "compilation representing language use of very large, diverse groups of people" (p. 16). It includes multiple registers and gives comparative and proportional views on how language is used. That is, it gives understandable information about a language. The word 'reference' reveals that general corpora are used to be base for educational materials such as grammars, dictionaries and other language reference books. BNC formerly known as 'the BYU corpora' is a 'big name' of general corpora created by Oxford University press containing 100

million words of text from variety of different genres (spoken, written, magazines, newspapers, academics etc.). It covers British English of late twentieth century that makes it synchronic corpora. Below you can see a screenshot from BNC website:

Figure 1. A screenshot from the BNC website (Source: https://www.english-corpora.org/bnc/)

The research results on the word 'get' reveal the frequency of use of the word as '94823'. If you click on context, you can see in which context the word 'get' is used such as news, technology, engineering, speech etc. 'Translate' directs us to google translate web page. By clicking on pron/video, we see the web page of youglish and listen to the pronunciation of the word searched in related context. Book part offers us the books containing that word in its name. In short, it gives us almost everything related to the word 'get' from a single web site.

COCA is another 'big name' in general corpora. It contains more than one billion words of data and the newest version was released in March 2020. It has also wide ranges of genres as for: spoken, fiction, magazine, newspapers, academics, blogs, TV programmes and movies. (Davies, 2008-)

3.2. Specialized corpora

This kind of corpora is called as pedagogic or teaching-oriented corpora (Friginal, 2018) and it is compiled for mostly teaching purposes or particular research aim. That kind of corpora contains specific texts/discourse about particular subjects (arts, politics, aviation etc.). We can say that specialised corpora is superior to general corpora when teaching objectives are in question because teachers can easily focus on their intended specialized area such as academic written English or professional English.

Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) and its British analogue British Academic Spoken English (BASE) are well known specialised corpora. The former contains transcripts of different kinds of lectures, discussion sessions, dissertation defences, campus/museum tours and interactive exchanges in academic environment at the University of Michigan while the latter contains recordings and transcriptions of lectures and seminars at the university of Warwick and Reading (Weisser, 2016). British Academic Written English (BAWE) is another academic writing specialised corpus developed with good quality students' assignments from three UK universities (Çakmak, 2021).

3.3. Written and spoken corpora

Written corpora are only composed of texts produced in written form such as newspaper articles, academic reports, facebook or other social media posts, e-mails, text messages, tweets, amazon customer product reviews, etc. That kind of corpora gives the opportunity to the researcher to analyse long and complex sentences of language users. On the other hand, spoken corpora having transcripts of spoken language is less common than the former. The Santa Barbara corpus of Spoken English (SBCSAE) including face to face conversations, different kinds of speech event, telephone conversations, conversations during a lecture, etc. are available for free access on the website: https://www.linguistics.ucsb.edu/research/santa-barbara-corpus#Intro.

3.4. Annotated corpora

Providing corpora with interpretive additional linguistic information is the practice of annotation. It makes the corpora more useful and more comprehensive. Annotation can be practiced in many ways. The most common type is grammatically tagging or labelling. That is, labelling a word according to class which it belongs to. In other words, adding part-of-speech information that is called as POS tagging is a sort of annotation. Depending on different levels of linguistic analysis of a corpus, other methods of annotation are phonetic, semantic, pragmatic, discourse, stylistic and lexical annotations (Leech, 2004). The Brown Corpus, the Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen Corpus (LOB) and BNC are examples of annotated corpora.

3.5. Comparable and parallel corpora

Comparable corpora can be defined as multilingual corpora. The issue is that the components of two or more languages are compiled in the same way. LOB and Lanchester Corpus of Mandarin Chinese are examples of comparable corpora (Friginal, 2018). Mcenery and Xiao (2007) define parallel corpora as corpora containing texts in L1 and their translations in L2. Texts from similar domains and context in the L1 and L2 registers are compiled. The Canadian Hansard Corpus is a well-known parallel corpus consisting of English and Canadian French parallel texts collected from official records of Canadian Parliament (Linguistic data consortium, n.d.). In short, both parallel and comparable corpora are used primarily for translation purposes.

3.6. Learner corpora

Learner corpora are specific type of non-native corpus. The data for learner corpora are provided by English language learners. International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE), coordinated by Sylviane Granger of the University of Louvain, is a famous corpus based on essays written by upper intermediate and advanced learners around the world (UCLouvain, n.d.).

Granger (2008) and Meunier (2021) claim that informing second language acquisition (SLA) research and providing useful inputs for applied projects for the creation/improvement of

teaching materials and approaches are two main purposes of learner corpora. It is also a useful resource for developing assessment techniques for computer-assisted language learning (CALL) system (Kotani & Yoshimi, 2015). Among the four fields of pedagogical perspectives (material design, syllabus design, language testing and classroom methodology), material design had concrete achievement. For instance, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003) and Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2003) added common error parts by analysing learners' errors in learner corpora (Granger, 2008). Thus, we can assume that learner corpora are useful for error analysis so that we can see whether our learners use language accurately or not. The error analysis enables teachers or researchers to explore what the learners have learnt in grammar or in vocabulary and challenges they have while using the language (Kotani et al., 2016).

4. Corpus Linguistics and English Language Teaching

Bennet (2010) explains the idea behind the corpus linguistics with Sinclair's detection of the meaninglessness of the word alone. To Sinclair (2004), a word in itself does not carry meaning, but meaning is gained through several words in a sentence.

Corpus linguistics is a kind of methodology to study language expressed in its real life context. That is, it is the study of a language through corpus. It focuses on analysis of real samples of language use (Cheng, 2012, as cited in Szudarski, 2018; Roca Varela, 2012).

There are two different approaches in corpus linguistics: A corpus-based approach is seen as a research method in which corpus evidence is used to test or to exemplify the existing theories of languages (top-down analysis). Corpus-driven approach is seen as theory-generating in the field of linguistics. The investigated linguistic features come directly from analysis of the corpus, not from the categories pre-established by the researchers (bottom-up) (Friginal, 2018).

Corpus linguistics analysis differs from others by following a critical inductive approach to language. It reveals integrated relation between form and meaning. Therefore, a new pedagogical view called lexicogrammar is provided (Samburskiy, 2014). Since the representativeness of linguistic properties in real life is essential for the authenticity and descriptive nature of language, corpus linguistics tries to answer two main research questions mentioned in Bennet (2010, p. 2);

1. What particular patterns are associated with lexical or grammatical features?

2. How do these patterns differ within varieties and registers?

As we have already mentioned, corpora do not always give responses to all the questions related to language use and corpus linguistics does not provide all possible language use at one time. That is, no matter how big a corpus size is, all samples of a language use may not be present. Corpus linguistics does not provide us negative evidence. That is, non-existence of a particular language pattern in a corpus does not mean that it is not possible or incorrect. We should remember that it may not be very common in the register represented by the corpus.

Finally, corpus linguistics does not give the answer of the question 'why'. It only tells us what it is. To answer the question, language users use their intuition. To Timmis (2015), English language teachers should be familiar with corpus research and practice because most of the time, they ask themselves questions about the number of words the students should learn, the necessity of grammar at a specific point, the usability of language in real life by the students, etc. Through corpora, they can observe and study the real-world language use, with relevant distributions of frequency and respond to their own questions by accessing actual occurrences of features, rather than relying on limited intuition (Friginal et al., 2020). Through several domains of applied linguistics such as grammar, lexis, pragmatics; SLA can be investigated. Frequency issues are in question. As for the examples of frequency, the following can be given as examples of some studies: the most frequent words and phrases in English, the difference(s) between written and spoken English, most frequently used tenses, use of modal verbs, different uses of words in formal and in informal situations, the number of words a learner must know to participate in everyday conversation, etc.

There are two ways of using corpora in language teaching and learning: *indirect* and *direct* use. Indirectly, many of the teachers and learners are benefiting from corpora without realizing it or having no idea what a corpus is. Teaching materials, reference books, dictionaries and course books are developed by experts with corpus-based approach. The list mentioned in Garcia (2014, p. 2) shows some examples of corpus-based ELT publications including dictionaries, grammars and textbooks:

Cambridge Dictionary of American English

Cambridge International Dictionary of English

Cambridge Grammar of English

Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners

Collins COBUILD English Usage

Collins COBUILD Intermediate English Grammar

Longman Dictionary of Common Errors

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English

Macmillan English Dictionary

Macmillan Collocations Dictionary

Natural Grammar (Oxford)

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English

Practical English Usage (Oxford)

Touchstone series (Cambridge)

Vocabulary in Use series (Cambridge)

Through such kind of materials, learners have opportunity to contact indirectly with corpora. In other words, learners or teachers can access indirectly to the samples of real life language use without accessing directly to the corpora systems (e.g. BNC, COCA, etc).

Since it may be sometimes difficult and time consuming, teachers do not need to select or edit the data according to their target learners. Material design and development units at schools or universities take the responsibility of selecting suitable course materials (e.g. textbooks, worksheets, other visuals, etc.) and deciding on how to teach the related syllabus to the learners. In other words, they determine the methodology, syllabus and textbooks so that teachers use them in their classroom. At that point Jones and Waller (2015) suggest corpus-informed syllabi, textbooks and methodologies in language teaching. Since it is a stubborn fact that corpora cannot always provide all answers in ELT textbooks, they do not argue in favour of textbooks purely led by corpus. Learning materials containing the information a corpus can provide us is rather desirable than not having it at all (Jones & Waller, 2015).

Although there are many corpus-based ELT materials published by the native users of language as shown on the list above, non-native published textbooks underrepresenting authentic language still needs to be revised or changed. For example, in Turkey, Peksoy (2013) in his MA study, analysed ELT course books used in high schools in Turkey in order to find out appropriateness of the language of those books to the language used in countries where English is the native language. For the purpose of corpus-based analysis, the researcher scanned the content of all high school English students' books and workbooks on computer and uploaded them to Sketch Engine, which is an online corpus-analytic programme. Specific grammar topics were searched; similarities and differences were compared. It was finally found out that the English language course books at the level of high school underrepresent authentic language in terms of certain grammatical items and frequency of their collocation. According to the results of this particular study, especially the course books written by Ministry of National Education (MoNE) book committee should be revised or changed.

In another study, Çakmak (2021) similarly analysed the authenticity of dialogues in B1-B2 levels ELT course books of the MoNE by comparing their content with the Spoken British National Corpus of 2014, in terms of functional categories with pragmatic functions, discourse markers, face and politeness, conversational routines, etc. She also investigated the opinion of native speakers about the authenticity of course books. The dialogues were analysed in detail with a native speaker in collaboration. To make the comparison, the researcher created the course book corpus and uploaded it to the Sketch Engine. Frequency count of each item and concordance of each word were analysed. The result of the study revealed that the dialogues in the course books do not represent the functional categories with pragmatic functions at a desired

level. The interview with the native speaker showed that there were a lot of inauthentic and incorrect language uses in the course books. Therefore, there are inconsistencies between real life language use and EFL course books. Those two studies having almost the same aim conducted eight years apart, show that textbook (course book) design is still a significant problem in our country today.

In addition to the discussion about the representativeness of authenticity in teaching materials above, Garcia (2014) stated that language is not such a limited and easy entity that can be simply put in a book or reflected on a teaching material. Those published formats of corpora are very restricted. Nevertheless, corpora support learners with more language uses and show distinct variations of language. Therefore, they provide scaffolding in education. That way, there is another option for language education which is *direct use of corpora*. When we take the teaching syllabus, published books or other corpus-based teaching materials into consideration, we notice that indirect use of corpora are mostly related to what to teach, but corpora provide more than what to teach. Corpora enable teachers how to teach.

Fligelstone (1993, as cited in Şimsek, 2020) and Leech (1997, as cited in McEnery &Xiou, 2010) put forward three different direct uses of corpora in teaching language: teaching about, teaching to exploit, and exploiting to teach. The first one is related to teaching corpora/corpus linguistic as an academic subject at universities like the other sub-branches of linguistics and training other researchers/teachers with the aim of integrating corpus linguistics in language teaching. 'Exploiting to teach' is about exploiting corpus resources to teach in order that the teachers can decide on what to teach and select the tools they are going to use in their classroom. Regarding the last type of direct use of corpora, McEnery et al. (2006) explained 'teaching to exploit' as teaching students how to benefit from corpora for their own purposes. That is called data driven learning (DDL) or 'discovery learning' (McEnery & Xiao, 2010).

Discovery learning approach increases the autonomy of the learners. With the corpus based approach to language pedagogy, *three Is* of the exploratory teaching approach prevail the *three Ps* of traditional teaching approach. To remember, three Ps are: presentation, practice and production while three Is are: illustration, interaction and induction. Looking at real data signifies the illustration phase which is the first step of discovery learning. During the second phase -interaction-, the learner observes, discusses and shares opinion about the data. Finally, the learners generate rules with inductive reasoning. Learners discover those patterns and rules through analysing concordances' lines.

A concordance is a listing of each occurrence of a word or pattern in corpus presented with the other words surrounding it. Concordances are generated by computer and learners can access the multiple examples of authentic data in the forms of concordance lines. They enable learners to analyse the different language forms in context of use (Rashikawati, 2019). Key Word in Context (KWIC) is the most common concordance format in corpus linguistic. The meaning of searched item is not given explicitly on the screen. It is usually deduced through the examples

provided with concordance lines. The figure 2 below shows the DDL principle of presenting the data and asking learners to notice linguistic pattern (Timmis, 2015):

CONCORDANCE LINES (more)

1	TV: 1999: Sabrina, the Teenage...	what ? You 're our 26th customer today , so you	get	a free T-shirt . And some topical ointment . But I do
2	TV: 2001: Crossing Jordan	" Adam Flynn , Boston Examiner . " Just trying to	get	a lead on the Ryder murder . How do I know that
3	TV: 2019: The Fix	okay ? Yeah , I 'm fine . Things are just	getting	a little crazy here . You want me to come down ?
4	TV: 1999: Sabrina, the Teenage...	. That napkin 's not free . Sabrina , can I	get	a little help over here ? Yeah , yeah , yeah .
5	ACAD: 2009: AmerIndianQ	to indigenous nations . Reading or listening to them , one	gets	a sense of energy in the predictive mode once described by Vine
6	FIC: 1992: Atlantic	taking the seat two down from me . # " You	got	a spare cigarette ? " she asked me . " I ca
7	TV: 1998: Felicity	a skeleton , a pumpkin , a ghost , but I	get	a witch . I could get a skeleton , a pumpkin ,
8	SPOK: 1997: CNN_Company	tampering with witness , the fear that he may try to	get	a witness to change testimony . You know , he qualified for
9	WEB: 2012: pitt.edu	a wide , wide river . And if the Baba Yaga	gets	across the river , and tries to catch you , then you
10	SPOK: 1998: Ind_NewsForum	. PRESSMAN : Understood . I -- I 'm trying to	get	all of you into this and my interruptions are not out of
11	MOV: 2010: Cool Dog	Hey , look what we have here . Looks like we	got	another one of us on board , boys . Hey , I
12	SPOK: 2008: ABC_Primetime	afraid he 'd catch me , but he didn't . HARLEY-1AMISH-TEE# You	got	away from him then . DANNY-TROYER-1AMI# Yep .
13	WEB: 2012: 1up.com	for it . It 's also seemingly only way to	get	away with releasing a Chrono Trigger game at this point , but
14	MOV: 1996: The English Patient	going to sulk , and I 'm not moving till you	get	back in . Promise ? That 's good . Okay , my
15	MOV: 2000: Daria in 'Is It Fall...	been great talking and all , but we 've got to	get	back to the Rent-a-Brother shop before they charge us for an
16	NEWS: 2002: Chicago	" by Buccaneers defensive tackle Warren Sapp today so he can	get	back up and show everyone how tough he is . # "
17	ACAD: 2009: AmerIndianQ	talk about when we talk about Indian studies as well as	getting	better at thinking in the predictive mode described by Vine
18	MOV: 2006: Waist Deep	, as soon as we get there , you going to	get	checked on . bro , The fuck what you say . You
19	SPOK: 1997: CNN_Company	paternity tests , and it 's a very common thing to	get	child support . It happens in every county courthouse every day .

Figure 2. A screenshot of concordance output of 'get' from the BNC website (Source: https://www.english-corpora.org/bnc/)

Concordances provide rich information such as meanings, use, collocation, word families, etc. Researchers, teachers, and even the learners can filter, sort out and count in order to get their desired result (Sketch Engine, n.d.). For instance, Quilichevna (2020) in his/her study on corpus based approached in vocabulary teaching underlines the role of teacher in using corpora to teach languages and give some sample corpus based activities applied to concordance lines from any text. The researcher stated that with the concordance activity, students cannot only notice negative meaning but also positive meaning and word combinations of focused word. They can also try to find meaning of a given word and its different usages. Corpus based tasks are claimed to help students to be exposed to how English is used for communication by native speakers.

In short, students are able to discover the languages rules and patterns through authentic materials. In order to push the learners to discover and to make generalization of rules, those concordance lines are to be supported with questions and prompted by teachers or material makers. Those questions enable learners to think critically and to participate actively in the learning process. For instance, instead of looking an unfamiliar word up in a dictionary, they will try to find out the meaning from the context.

5. Applications of Corpora in Language Teaching

Friginal (2018) in his book entitled "*Corpus linguistic for English teachers: New tools, online resources, and classroom activities*" explains the application of corpus linguistic in language teaching as integrating corpus tools and the corpus analysis as part of classroom activities or homework assignment. Students benefit from corpora online databases when they deal with research projects or find answers to questions related to language patterns. Both teachers and students explore language patterns of use from concordances and corpus-based materials. Since

language is a systematic and identifiable phenomenon through empirical, frequency and pattern-based approaches, corpus linguistic methodology provides those relevant data about English vocabulary and grammar as they are used in their natural and authentic context.

5.1. Corpora and vocabulary teaching

Vocabulary knowledge is important for foreign language learning. However, memorising vocabulary is not enough for acquisition. Vocabulary knowledge in terms of semantic accuracy, which we can call meaning in context and its accurate use, is significant for achieving the goal of learning a foreign language, which is successful communication in writing and speaking (Mukhamadiarova et al., 2020). Being exposed to a word in its real context facilitates its memorization and internalization. Corpora provide that meaning in context.

There are two main effective approaches to teaching vocabulary: explicit vocabulary teaching and incidental learning. The former occurs when the teacher takes the learners' attention in a definite way to learn words. On the other hand, incidental learning is the result of learner's exposures to written or spoken text without explicitly directing attention (Çalışkan & Kuru Gönen, 2018). While dealing with a large size of English vocabulary, it is important to combine those two approaches. In order to integrate those approaches for an efficient instruction of vocabulary, it is essential to use variety of computer assisted techniques including corpora (Çalışkan & Kuru Gönen, 2018).

Regarding some previous studies conducted using corpus based activities, DDL and concordances, corpora were found useful and effective in vocabulary instruction. Roca Varela (2012), for example, aimed to show pedagogical usefulness of corpora for vocabulary teaching by presenting four different corpus-based activities and also different ways of working with corpora resources in the classroom. With those activities, researchers had the objective of making Spanish students encounter the words in its real life context. First, the students studied the meaning and use of the word 'carpet' which is often confused by Spanish students with the word 'carpeta' in their native language that lead them to use it for the same meaning and in the same way. After having highlighted examples illustrating most clearly the meaning and the use of 'carpet' on the random concordance lines of BNC, the sample sentences made the word clear for the students. As a second activity, the researcher used Collins Wordbanks Online to make the students aware of the syntactic, semantic and frequency differences of confusing words (signify/mean). In their third activity, corpora were used to look into polysemic nature of some words (*suburb* in the study). The students realized that 'suburb' does not denote an unpleasant or dangerous place. For the final activity, students were asked to compare learner's use of some words with native users by consulting Santiago University Learner of English Corpora and the British National Corpus. At the end of the comparison, students realised that they misused the words. Judging by the activities, the researcher emphasized that the advantages of corpora use is enormous in classroom and that those databases show the learners how the mechanics of language use works and help them to solve lexical problems and to be more accurate in English.

However, they claim that vocabulary teaching should not be based on only corpora; otherwise, it might be boring. Good combinations of different techniques are advisable.

Similarly, Ergül (2014), in her master's thesis, investigated the effectiveness of corpus based activities instead of using textbook activities and using dictionaries in vocabulary teaching and compared students' attitudes towards corpus-based and textbook activities. 34 students of intermediate level of English were divided into two groups (control and experimental groups). For the control group, 'North Start 3 Reading and Writing' text books and vocabulary activities were covered while with the experimental group those exercises were replaced with corpus-based vocabulary activities by choosing appropriate concordance lines from COCA. A pre-test was applied in order to see the effectiveness. After a six-week experiment, a post test, an attitude questionnaire and interviews were administered. The post-test results revealed that experimental group had higher scores than the control group. That is, corpus-based material was found more successful in teaching than the text book and dictionary activities. Attitudes questionnaire and interviews showed that students had positive attitude towards corpus-based activities in vocabulary teaching.

In line with Ergül (2014), two other recent researches on learner's and teacher's perceptions of corpus application in classroom revealed that the attitudes toward using corpora in classroom while teaching vocabulary are positive. To illustrate, Sinha (2021) examined 32 EFL learners' perception of corpus application as a vocabulary learning tool, challenges they encounter while using corpus data and their thought about teacher support while using a corpus for learning new words. Data were collected through a perception questionnaire after teaching certain academic words using a corpus. She found out that most of the students have both positive and negative attitudes towards classroom application of corpus. Generally they think that corpus is an effective tool for learning a new word; however, the absence of teacher guidance impact the success of corpus based vocabulary learning because of the nature of corpus data which often renders learning difficult for learners inexperienced in using corpora.

Çalışkan and Kuru Gönen (2018) aimed to explore teachers' opinion on the use of concordance lines for vocabulary teaching and to investigate the perception of language teachers on vocabulary teaching based on corpus-based pedagogy after having received training. Participants were three EFL teachers at a Turkish state university and the data were collected through semi-structured interviews, an open-ended questionnaire and reflective logs. The teachers had four week training on corpus pedagogy and on how to design and adopt concordance lines for their vocabulary instruction. The results revealed that EFL teachers had positive attitudes towards corpus application in classroom and found it efficient for language pedagogy. Unfortunately, the study demonstrated that teachers had no idea about using corpus materials before the training. Therefore, training created an awareness of incorporating corpus-pedagogy into classroom for vocabulary teaching.

A different comparative study about vocabulary teaching was conducted by Sezgin and Öztürk (2020). They compared the language used in TV series (Sherlock and Doctor who) to the spoken part of BNC in order to find out whether those TV series reflect the real life spoken language in terms of vocabulary. British TV Series Corpus (BTSC) was collected for that comparison. The study revealed that the TV series corpus covered 98.54% of the most frequent lemmas in the spoken part of BNC. Hence, the researchers claimed that TV series are effective materials used as both in class and extra-curricular activities for teaching vocabulary and listening/speaking skills.

5.2. Corpora and grammar teaching

Contrary to grammar books written using traditional approaches, corpora provide descriptive statements rather than prescriptive ones. That is, corpora do not say that something is certainly wrong or right but it describes how the language is used. Like in vocabulary, context is an essential feature in grammatical choice. Jones and Walter (2015), in their book '*Corpus linguistic for grammar: a guide for research*', explained what a corpus can tell about the aspect of grammar as follows:

- Which area, in particular contexts, are more frequent than other forms? (e.g. comparison of the frequency of past simple and past perfect production in spoken narratives)
- The difference between written and spoken forms in particular context.
- Specialised uses for English for Specific Purposes. (e.g. Business English or English for tourism)
- How language patterns colligate and collocate. Discovery of likely combinations of words.
- How a particular form can be used to have negative, positive or neutral connotation in a semantic prosody.

As understood from the statements above, many areas of grammar are still under-described in pedagogically simplified grammar books. In a similar methodology with vocabulary instruction, DDL is very useful and practical in grammar instruction. Nevertheless, it is not so common in most of the ELT classrooms. Unfortunately, traditional methods keep their place. DDL is a bridge between corpora and the classroom. Just like in vocabulary learning, students start to investigate grammatical and lexico-grammatical patterns in language. DDL in grammar teaching necessitates both product and process approaches. Instead of activities focusing on the teaching of prescriptive rules, activities raising learner's consciousness should be practiced in the classroom.

To Wang (2018), there are three main characteristics of corpus-based grammar teaching method. First, easily accessible and large amount of natural occurring texts from different fields increase students' context awareness. Then, students notice the specific use of grammatical expressions themselves with the help of the teacher. Finally, the combination of top-down and

bottom-up approaches promote discovery learning of students. As for the example of an academic study, Oghigian and Chujo (2010) developed a series of corpus-based activities for beginner level of English in teaching vocabulary and grammar. They preferred not to ask the students to read and understand concordance lines because it might be difficult at beginner level. Instead, they asked the students to focus on KWIC which means the key word in the centre of the data. In the first task, they asked the students to observe the various forms of the word 'develop', which was thought to be useful for understanding derivations of the assigned word, identifying part of speech or verifying the correct form. Another activity was given with a list of words 'information, data, homework, passenger' to ask them search to find out which words are countable and which words are uncountable. The third activity made the students notice the existence of an adjective between an article and the word 'organization'. In short, all the proposed activities were good examples of discovery learning. The researchers stated that there were significant gains in related areas and students showed positive attitudes towards corpus-based activities in questionnaires.

Another study conducted in China by Wang (2018) aimed to explore the effectiveness of corpus-based grammar teaching method compared to traditional grammar teaching method. For the study, 40 undergraduate Chinese students were divided randomly into two groups -control and experimental - following a pre-test that showed no significant difference between participant groups. As for the contrastive experiment, three conjunctions expressing the subordinate clause for causality - because, since, for - were searched by the teacher for concordance lines from COCA and BNC. Then, a mini-text made up of 40 concordance lines was also searched. By showing the mini-text to the experimental group, the teacher made the students observe the lines to find out collocates of the concerned three conjunctions. Then, the students were asked to generalize their usage pattern and to summarize the similarities and differences. In contrast, the control group was taught the words traditionally by using the course book and some mechanical exercises. The results revealed that the experimental group has higher grammar proficiency. In addition, interviews and in-class observations showed that students developed positive attitudes towards corpus-based grammar teaching method. Students' sensitivity of language use, focusing on semantic meaning, pragmatic sensitivity and context awareness increased.

In line with the previous researches summarized above and the studies mentioned for vocabulary teaching, Pookharoensil (2012) also revealed similar results on the effectiveness of corpus-based method and the attitudes of learners toward corpus-based activities. In the study, the researcher presented grammar topics such as conditionals and who vs. whom to 17 Thai graduate students in corpus-based method. After the instruction, the students completed an opinion and attitude questionnaire and they were also interviewed individually. At the end of the study, most of the participants showed positive attitudes towards concordance-based instruction and they enjoyed concordance lines. Most of them thought that they could increase their knowledge with corpus-based teaching of grammar.

Before moving on to suggestions, we should advert that corpora also contribute to language production. Before writing or speaking classes, learners can gain the vocabulary and grammar which helps them to talk or write about a particular topic and during writing, learners can consult corpora to find answers to the questions emerging when they write. This may not be the issue for speaking. Following the speaking and writing activities, both learners and teachers can benefit from corpora in terms of error correction. Corpora encourage students for self-correction. The teacher can discover the existence of student's language use which is seen prescriptively wrong in course books but descriptively right in real life use in corpora. That is, corpora help teacher while they are correcting students. They find answers for the questions emerging during the correction of students work and create new exercises taking corpora as reference so that they can be practiced in the classroom to revise common learner errors (Garcia, 2012).

6. Conclusion and Suggestions

In this paper, we reviewed the basic information about corpus linguistics which is now seen as one of the sub-branches of linguistics and its applications in English language education. First, the definition of the word 'corpus' (plural corpora) was made; then, types of corpora and the most famous corpus systems related to each type were introduced. The different types of use of corpora in ELT were presented shortly. A few examples of research about the practices of corpus use in ELT were also mentioned.

The previous researches on corpora applications in ELT revealed that integrating corpora in language pedagogy is effective for teaching vocabulary and grammar, which are essential language areas to be well mastered in order to be able to write or speak on a particular topic. The result of perception studies also indicated that there are mostly positive attitudes towards the use of corpus-based activities or corpus-based methodology in the classroom. However, Friginal (2018) finds longitudinal studies critical in order to frame the relations between language learning and corpus-based methodology. Similarly, Rasikawati (2019) claims that more research are needed to maintain the support for the efficacy of the approach in various contexts. As for suggestions, he advises the teachers to conduct action research in order to bridge the gap between research and instruction so that teachers may be able to practice the corpus-based DDL approach more and evaluate its efficacy. On the other hand, Çalışkan and Kuru Gönen (2018) and Xodabande and Nazari (2022) state that corpus linguistic course is necessary for in-service EFL teachers because most language teachers are not enthusiastic to incorporate corpus work while teaching or doing exercises. The reason for that is mostly due to not having enough information about corpus and they do not know how to apply it properly in their classes. As a solution to the situation, Çalışkan and Kuru Gönen (2018) propose to revise the teaching programmes' curriculum by integrating a corpus-based pedagogy in both methodology and materials design courses. How to design a corpus-based teaching material should be taught and relevant material design assignments can be given to student teachers. For

in-service language teachers, professional development units should organize trainings on how to incorporate corpus into classes in order to create corpus awareness.

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HOW TO USE CORPORA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING FOR VOCABULARY ENHANCEMENT

Nihan ERDEMİR

Sabahattin YEŞİLÇINAR

1. Introduction

Being a crucial part of learning a foreign or second language, vocabulary is crucial for learners in acquiring a language. To become efficient users of the target language, learners should have a good vocabulary repertoire. In other words, an extensive vocabulary size enables learners to communicate in the target language fluently and accurately because vocabulary size indicates language ability (Alderson, 2005). Conversely, those who wish to achieve academic language proficiency need to know about academic success (Nation & Coxhead, 2021). Research has also underlined the correlation between vocabulary knowledge and effective speaking (e.g., Uchihara & Saito, 2019), writing (e.g., Lee et al., 2021), reading (e.g., Schmitt et al., 2011), listening (e.g., Wang & Treffers-Daller, 2017), and discourse and pragmatics (e.g., Szudarski, 2018). Since vocabulary knowledge enables language use and influences four skills, it is beneficial to investigate possible ways to enhance learners' vocabulary repertoire and effectively promote vocabulary development.

Non-native speakers have gaps in their linguistic knowledge, making it difficult to communicate in written or verbal form. They notice these gaps when they are unsure of a particular word choice (Mueller & Jacobsen, 2016). In this situation, they usually refer to dictionaries. Although dictionaries can be practical for lexical choices, "they often provide inadequate information about certain facets of language, such as how words typically combine (i.e., collocations)" (Mueller & Jacobsen, 2016, p. 4). Possible alternatives to dictionaries can be the use of language corpora as a resource in language teaching and learning. Corpora and concordancing software provide authentic input that develops learners' mastery of correct word use (Liu & Lei, 2018) and expand their analytical abilities (Thurstun & Candlin, 1998). They also help learners revise their writing and error-correction. Empirical studies have also reported the positive results of concordance-based vocabulary learning compared to traditional vocabulary learning (e.g., dictionaries) (Cobb, 1999). Integrating corpora into target language vocabulary learning or teaching has various advantages, such as enhancing metalinguistic knowledge and promoting learner autonomy (Yoon, 2008), increasing learners' confidence (Yoon & Hirvela, 2004), developing research skills, and enabling learners to revise their writing more effectively (Mueller & Jacobsen, 2015), drawing attention to the connection between linguistic expressions and context (Aston, 2001), and noticing the gap (Swain, 1995). For this purpose, researchers have focused on using corpora in L2 vocabulary learning based on these benefits, and this sudden interest towards corpus linguistics has occurred by means of free and well-organized corpora (e.g., Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA, Davies, 2008) though first use of concordances in the classroom dates back to 1969 (McEnergy & Wilson, 1997).

2. Literature Review

2.1. Vocabulary and language learning

The role of vocabulary knowledge in the target language is undeniable because limited vocabulary hinders successful communication. Individuals must use words to communicate their thoughts and ideas in any language. According to Wilkins (1972), little can be transferred without grammar, but nothing can be transferred without vocabulary. Given the importance of vocabulary learning, "lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and the acquisition of a second language" (Schmitt, 2000, p. 55). However, individuals' native language and target language vocabulary growth are different. For example, in the native language, children acquire most words through repeated encounters in context. However, the primary exposure to the target language occurs mainly in the classroom, and children use their mother tongue for communication outside the classroom. Therefore, it is necessary to implement an intervention in the vocabulary learning process in the classroom so as to develop learners' target language vocabulary (Hart & Risley, 1995). Otherwise, learners will have limited target language input, causing a decrease in their motivation. That is, it is of great importance to plan how vocabulary will be learned, thereby optimizing learning.

Vocabulary learning does not only refer to the mere definition and form of a word. Indeed, it is a process that includes the association and selection of different vocabularies to reflect an idea to be conveyed (Schmitt et al., 2011). However, learners with insufficient vocabulary will face a dilemma in learning a target language, especially in writing and reading while they are using the language (Ahsanuddin et al., 2022). Given the effect of vocabulary mastery on reading comprehension, Schmitt et al. (2011) suggest that learners should know 98% of the target vocabulary to comprehend a text. In other words, learners' vocabulary knowledge predicts their comprehension of a text (Hu & Nation, 2000) and their writing, listening, and speaking skills. In a similar vein, Nouri and Zerhouni (2016) consider vocabulary mastery a crucial part of reading comprehension. As to writing, Hinkel (2011) and Kiliç (2019) focus on the impact of vocabulary capacity on writing skills. Finally, examining the relationship between second language vocabulary knowledge and second language reading/listening comprehension, Zhang and Zhang (2022) report high correlations between vocabulary knowledge and listening skills. That is, vocabulary knowledge consists of several aspects of language learning.

2.2. Corpora use in vocabulary learning

Although various methods have been utilized for vocabulary enhancement in language teaching and learning, corpora have grown in prominence over the past four decades thanks to technological advancement. According to Cobb and Boulton (2015), the effects of the corpus have been of three main types. The first is upstream use, which "lies in improved descriptions of language varieties and features that inform aspects of the language to be taught" (Boulton, 2015, p. 478). The second type "makes corpora and tools for analyzing them available to the teacher" (ibid.). From the teacher's point of view, corpora can be helpful in determining what

to teach. Teachers using the corpora for this purpose do not benefit from large modern corpora like the British National Corpus (BNC: Oxford, 1995) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA: Davies, 2009). Instead, they use small corpora like Brown (Kucera & Francis, 1979). Finally, the third puts them directly into the learner's hands. The learners' making queries in corpora includes techniques that are essentially akin to corpus linguists' activities: "Like a researcher, the learner has to form preliminary hypotheses based on intuition or scanty evidence; those hypotheses then have to be tested and rejected or refined against further evidence, and finally integrated within an overall model" (Johns, 1988, p. 14).

The literature also provides empirical evidence on the advantage of applying corpora in vocabulary teaching. For example, after having investigated whether teaching vocabulary through corpus-based activities is more effective than teaching vocabulary with textbooks or dictionaries, Paker and Ergül-Özcan (2017) report that using corpus-based vocabulary materials is significantly more effective compared to using textbooks or dictionaries. Moreover, comparing the effectiveness of using corpus examples to dictionary definitions, Frankenberg-Garcia (2014) suggests using the multiple corpus examples because they help learners understand new vocabularies and use them appropriately at a syntactic level. Another research underlines the effectiveness of using data-driven learning in teaching vocabulary (Boulton & Cobb, 2017). The researchers advocate that through concordance lines learners can observe vocabularies in an authentic rich context and discover their meanings in consideration of available contextual clues. To exemplify, Daskalovska (2015) compared the traditional learning of collocations (through matching, fill-in gaps and multiple-choice exercises) with the corpus-based learning (through concordancers) and noted that the experimental group became more successful in the test.

Moreover, previous research on the use of corpora in language classrooms provide pedagogical foundation for authenticity, learner autonomy and error correction. To begin with, a corpus is a collection of naturally occurring language samples of a particular linguistic item, so it is singled out for bringing authenticity into language classrooms (Gilquin & Granger, 2010). This approach is called *data-driven learning* (DDL) which favors the use of corpus tools for pedagogical purposes. Second advantage of this approach is that learners are involved in using condordancing software to investigate both form and meaning in a given context. Therefore, learners' development of autonomous learning strategies is noted as a result of 'discovery learning' with their active involvement (Bernardini, 2002; Pérez-Paredes et al., 2004). Last, corpus allows learners to find out their errors or "interlanguage features (misuse, overuse and underuse)" by comparing their writing with the corpus data and improve their writing skills (Gilquin & Granger, 2010, p. 359). In addition to native speaker corpora, learner corpora, which is called *learning-driven data* (LDD) by Seidlhofer (2002), might help to realize these problematic features of a learner language. For instance, investigating how learners addressed to native speaker corpora and learner corpora in classroom activities, Cotos (2014) suggests the intehration of LDD into classroom activities in order to benefit more efficiently from DLL.

To elaborate, teachers might refer to various aspects of vocabulary by using corpora. It is summarized below how the corpus data allow us to explore the lexicon:

1   Lexis: the word frequency of the general lexicon (e.g., *high frequency items*) and word formation (e.g., *high frequency prefix*)

2   Phraseology: collocation and patterning (e.g., *take refuge*), fixed expressions and idioms (e.g., *of course*)

3   Meaning: context and meaning (e.g., *take something seriously* or *take heed*), polysemy (e.g., *race*), metaphor, connotation and ideology (e.g., '*refuge from'* connotates to undesirable situation)

4   Sets: lexical sets (e.g., topic-specific words in the business texts such as 'fund, share, market'), synonyms (e.g., *seek asylum* or *take refuge*), antonyms (e.g., *unhappy and sad,* or *not happy*)

5   Lexis in spoken language: phraseology (e.g., *take care*), meaning and usage (e.g., *you know*) (Moon, 2010, pp. 197-211).

Considering that the studies on corpus use on vocabulary learning suggest important findings on enhancing vocabulary capacity and reinforcing the four skills, foreign language teachers are suggested to develop and adapt the materials. Despite the large number of publications on corpora use for language learning, there is still limited research that would focus on learners' and teachers' classroom practices in using corpora. Therefore, this chapter will provide several resources and suggest sample activities and materials for corpus use in teaching vocabulary in language classrooms at differing levels of proficiency. For the teachers who have limited knowledge of corpora and thus low tendency to use corpora in the classroom, in-service teacher training is suggested (Mukherjee, 2000). According to Ma et al. (2021) teachers might need *corpus-based language pedagogy* (CBLP) in order to use the corpus tools for pedagogical purposes.

2.3. Guidelines and resources for teachers to develop and practice corpus-based materials

Learners might need to become familiarized with a new approach. Therefore, presentation, practice and production stages could be followed. To begin with the corpora introduction, general information about the basic functions of a corpus and corpus terminology can be provided to students; second, corpus tools can be introduced, and students are allowed to experience in using the corpus tools; last, corpus-based activities can be used to practice in class (Sripicharn, 2010).

There are several freely accessible resources prepared by the experts with a limited number of queries per day. The commonly used ones are listed as below:

English Corpora

- AntConc

- British National Corpus (BNC)

- Compleat Lexical Tutor

- Corpus of Contemporary English (COCA)

- Sketch Engine for Language Learners (SKELL)

- Word and Phrase Info

L2 English Corpora

- Corpus of Academic Learner English (CALE)

- English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA)

- International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE)

- Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI)

- Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE)

- Trinity Lancaster Corpus (L2 spoken English)

3. Sample Activities for Corpus Use in Language Classrooms

Based on the abovementioned literature review, in this section, sample activities are presented for teachers who aim to integrate corpus into their classrooms for different ages, levels of proficiency and purposes. The activities are ranged in accordance with their objectives: corpus use for *understanding meaning and use of words, error correction* and *understanding genre*. Teachers may consult to each activity in accordance with their context, needs and interest.

3.1. Understanding meaning and use of words

In this activity, young learners refer to a corpus in order to understand the meaning and use of a word or phrase. A corpus-based website, Sketch Engine for Language Learners (SKELL), is used. It is user-friendly with its simple interface, so the students can easily use. It offers authentic samples and allows to investigate the contextual uses of words under three main functions: *examples, word sketch* and *similar words.*

Materials: Computer lab, internet access, a worksheet per student

Level: A2

Age: 11-12

Language skills: reading and writing

Duration: 30 minutes

Purpose: to identify contextual uses of words, to write examples for each word

Procedures:

1. Hand out a text and a worksheet to each student.
2. Ask students to read the text and discuss comprehension questions in groups.
3. Give students time to underline unknown words.
4. Have students open SKELL at https://skell.sketchengine.eu/#home?lang=en.
5. Explain that SKELL can provide up to 40 example sentences per search.
6. Walk the students through a simple search in SKELL.
   a. Type the word 'space' to be explored in the search box and browse.
   b. Select 'examples' section to see the uses in sentences (see Figure 1).
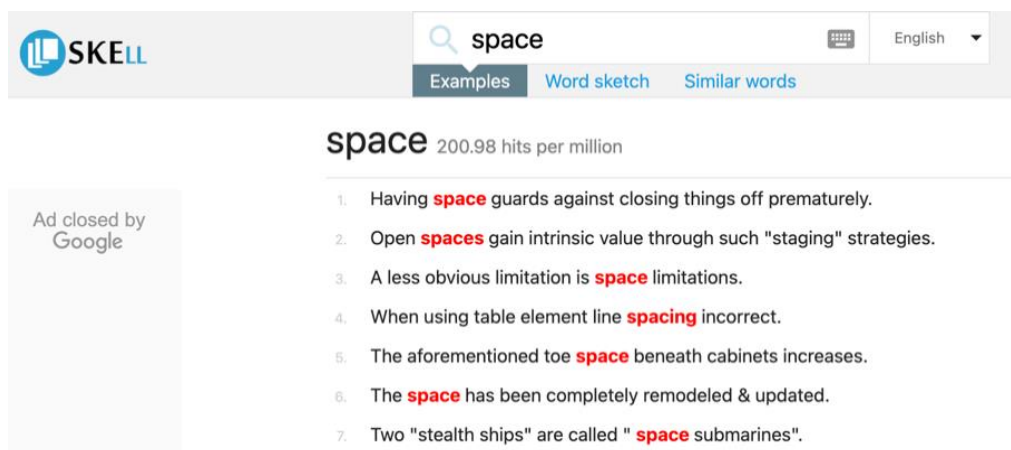
Figure 1. Search results for space in SKELL

   c. Scroll down the page, and indicate them to notice many instances as a verb and noun, singular and plural, with and without article.
   d. Have students click on 'word sketch' section and analyze the collocations of the word space in accordance with the frequency (see Figure 2).
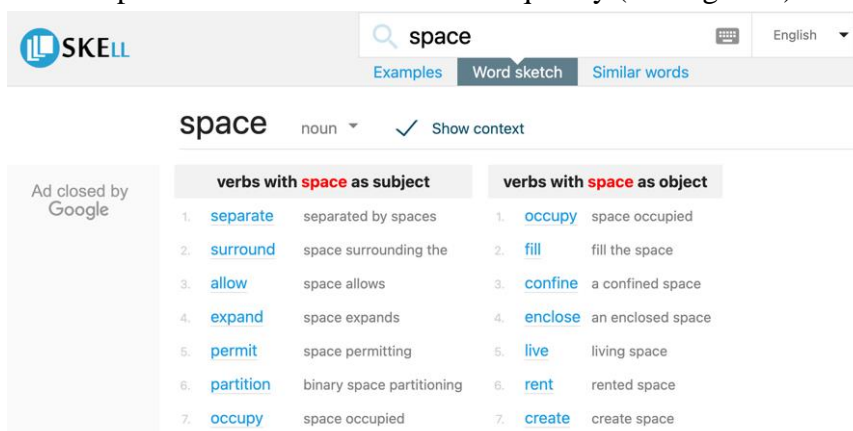
Figure 2. Search results for space in word sketch section

  e Have students compare the collocations used in subject and object.

  f Ask students to select 'similar words' section to enhance their vocabulary capacity and analyze the synonyms of the word space (see Figure 3).
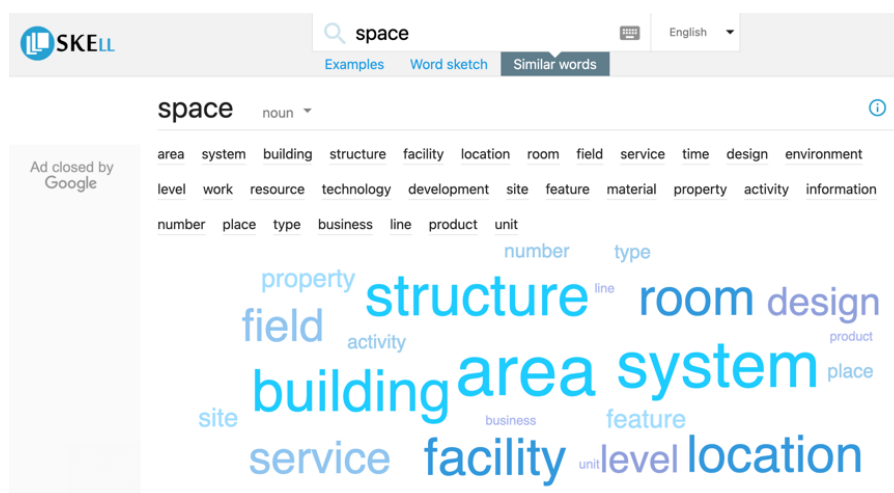
Figure 3. Search results for space in similar words section

  g Remind students that they cannot replace each word because of the meaning in context.

7 Ask five minutes for group work and complete the worksheet which can be prepared by the results in SKELL.

8 Allow students to further search in SKELL by themselves to answer.

  a For example, ask them to place the adjectives in accordance with the meanings in context.

   For example: large / big

   A …… space for major events will be located on the fifth floor.

   President Obama has already made the ….. space exploration announcement.

3.2. Error correction

This activity requires students to refer to both a general and learner corpus. After writing their draft, students can first browse the native speaker corpora to understand the rules and patterns, and then they can compare and contrast their writing with the learner corpora.

Materials: Computer lab, internet access

Level: B1

Age: 15-16

Language skills: reading and writing

Duration: 30-min

Purpose: to identify contextual uses of words, to compare and contrast the higher frequency and L2 tendency about the uses

Procedures:

1 Ask each student to write a 200-word paragraph on a given topic.
2 Have students to focus on one linguistic aspect in the paragraphs, for example, *moreover*. In accordance with students' common errors, various linking words might be asked.
3 Ask students to analyze how they used in their draft.
4 Pair them to discuss how each used *moreover* in a sentence and compare with peers' draft
5 Indicate their errors with frequency, grammar patterns and meanings.
6 Introduce them first to a learner corpus, ICLE
   a Ask students to search for *moreover* (see Figure 4).
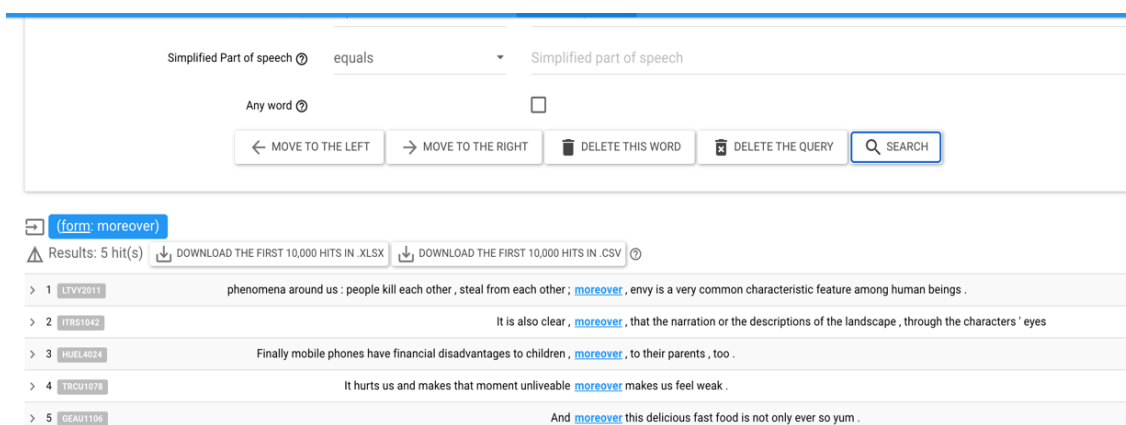
Figure 4. Concordance lines for moreover in ICLEv3

   b Indicate similar errors by learners. For example, the 4th sentence can be given as an example for an incorrect use in ICLE-Tr which includes examples from Turkish L2 speakers of English.
   c Ask students to click on the word to check it in the extended context (see Figure 5).

Concordance details

⇌ Extended context

Is it a Remedy or an End . Before touching on this concept I would like to emphasize that it is really difficult to decide and it is subjective . We should respect to everyone 's thoughts . Because , no one could understand (if he does not come across with this situation) the person 's mood who have to decide to do that . So my thoughts about this concept depends on only my logic not my experiences . PAIN is such a fenomenon that no one can stand for along time . It hurts us and makes that moment unliveable moreover makes us feel weak . Let 's think about that moment that we cut or burned our finger . What do we feel ? At that moment we just think how to stop that pain , we can not think something else . It is quite simple example from our daily life . Now , let 's think about a person who has an uncureable ilness and pain . He has to stand this pain until he dies . His ilness is such an ilness that it has no remedy , no cure and he lives like a plant by the help of the machines .

▣ CLAWS lemma and POS analysis

form	lemma	part of speech	simplified part of speech
and	and	CC	CCO
makes	make	VVZ	Vlex
that	that	DD1	DET
moment	moment	NN1	N
unliveable	unliveable	JJ	ADJ
moreover	moreover	RR	ADV
makes	make	VVZ	Vlex
us	we	PPIO2	Pronpers
feel	feel	VVI	Vlex
weak	weak	JJ	ADJ
.		PUNC	PUNC

🏷 Variables

Native language	Turkish
Country	Turkey
Gender	Female
Age	21
Other foreign language(s)	German , NA , NA
Language(s) at home	Turkish , NA , NA
Years of English at school	6 or more
Years of English at university	4
Months in English-speaking country	0
Institution	Turkey - University of Çukurova
File name	TRCU1078
Title	Euthanasia
Length in words	851
Type	Argumentative
Conditions	No timing
Reference tools	No
Examination	No
Date (yyyy-mm-dd)	2003-01-15

Figure 5. Extended context of moreover in ICLEv3

7 Ask students to compare and contrast its use in a native speaker corpus.
8 Invite the class to visit COCA at https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/
9 Ask students to type *moreover* in the search string and hit the 'Find matching strings' button (see Figure 6).

Corpus of Contemporary American English

SEARCH   FREQUENCY

List Chart Word Browse +

moreover   [POS] ?

Find matching strings   Reset

☐ Sections Texts/Virtual Sort/Limit Options

Figure 6. Search for moreover in COCA

10 Ask students to report on the number of occurrences found in COCA.
11 Ask students to click on the underlined word and retrieve all concordance lines (See Figure 7).

Figure 7: Concordance lines for moreover in COCA

12 Pair students and allow them to compare and contrast their results in terms of frequency, grammar patterns and meanings.

    a   Ask students to report their observations

        For example: In ICLEv3, *moreover* is often used in the middle of sentences with two preceding and following commas, while in COCA *moreover* is often used at the start of sentences with one following comma.

13 To further research, ask students to click on '+' and 'Keyword in Context (KWIC)' buttons, type *moreover* and hit the 'Find matching strings' button (see Figure 8).

Figure 8. KWIC search for moreover in COCA

14 Have students examine the KWIC results for their search and explain that different parts of speech are indicated in colors (e.g., pink for verbs, yellow for prepositions and conjunctions) (see Figure 9).

Figure 9. KWIC results for *moreover* in COCA

15 Allow students to discover the uses in various contexts.

3.3. Understanding genre

In this activity, learners are asked to differentiate the word choice which is specific to a text type such as spoken (e.g., *interviews*) and written (e.g., *academic papers*). The collocations are further analyzed to understand their uses in context.

Materials: Computer lab, internet access, a reading text and worksheet per student

Level: B1/B2

Age: 18-19

Language skills: reading and writing

Duration: 30-min

Purpose: to identify contextual uses of words, to raise awareness of word choice in spoken and academic contexts.

Procedures:

1 Ask students to read formal and informal texts.
2 Allow them to discuss informal versus formal language and how written academic discourse differs from the spoken text. To exemplify;

a *grammatical intricacy*: short sentences in spoken discourse / longer and complex sentences in written discourse.

b *lexical density*: higher use of function words (pronouns, prepositions, and articles) in spoken discourse / higher use of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) in written discourse.

c *nominalization:* less use of longer noun groups in spoken discourse / more use in written discourse.

3   Have students focus on verbs and verb + noun collocations

4   Ask students to underline verbs used in a spoken discourse and to find their synonyms in an academic discourse.

5   Invite the class to visit the BNC at https://www.english-corpora.org/bnc/

6   Ask students to choose 'List' section and type *give* and *provide* in the BNC, respectively.

7   Ask students to click on 'Sections' and select 'Spoken' for the first box and 'Academic' for the second box (see Figure 10).
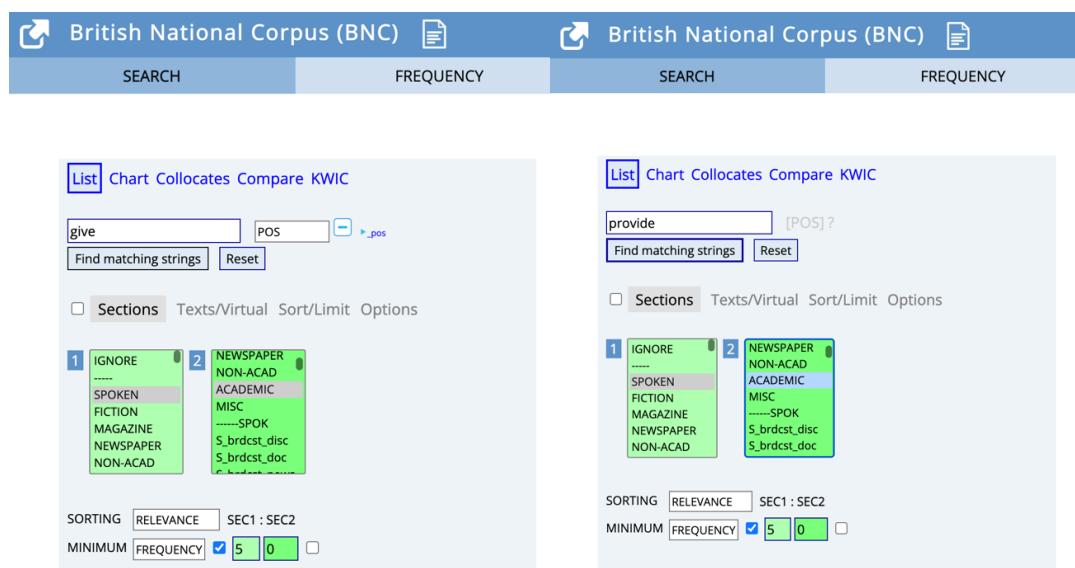
Figure 10. Search for give and provide in spoken and academic contexts of the BNC

8   Ask students to hit the 'Find matching strings' button in order to compare and contrast their occurrences in different discourses.

9   On the results page, indicate how give is often used in spoken discourse as shown in Figure 11, while provide is used at a significant level in academic discourse (see Figure 12).

Figure 11. Distribution of give in spoken and academic contexts

Figure 12. Distribution of provide in spoken and academic contexts

10 On the results page, indicate how give is often used in spoken discourse as shown in Figure 11, while provide is used at a significant level in academic discourse (see Figure 12).

11 Ask students to click on the number of occurrences in 'Token 1' (see Figure 13), and 'Token 2' (see Figure 14).

Figure 13. Search results for provide in a spoken discourse

Figure 14. Search results for provide in an academic discourse

12 Pair students and allow them to analyze concordance lines and understand their use in a differing context.

13 Ask students to click on 'Collocates' section in the middle of the page on the right.

14 Have students first type *provide* in the BNC, second choose 'noun.ALL' from the box on the second line, choose one word to the right by coloring '1' to green on the right side, and last click on 'Sections' and choose 'Spoken' for the first box and 'Academic'

for the second. Explain them that this would present the most frequent collocates with *provide* in the BNC in two discourses (see Figure 15).

Figure 15. Collocate search for the nouns immediately following provide in spoken and academic contexts

15 Ask students to hit the 'Find collocates' button in order to compare and contrast their occurrences in different discourses.

16 Ask students to analyze collocation frequency in spoken and academic discourses (see Figure 16) and give some implications. To exemplify;

    a *provide* occurs less in spoken discourse when it is compared to academic.

    b *provide* collocates with *information* in spoken discourse; on the other hand, in academic discourse it collocates with *evidence*.

Figure 16. Words following provide in spoken and academic contexts (one word to the right)

17 Ask students to perform another collocate search for *give*.

18 Allow them to compare and contrast the collocates with *give* and give further implications (see Figure 17). To exemplify;

    a *give* collocates more with *evidence* in spoken discourse when it is compared to provide.

    b *give* collocates more with *rise* and *effect* in academic discourse.

Figure 17. Words following give in spoken and academic contexts (one word to the right)

19 Give students a worksheet on academic and non-academic vocabulary to practice their knowledge.

20 Ask students to complete the task including verbs and their noun collocates.

4. Conclusion

This chapter suggests that corpus tools are useful resources in enhancing learners' vocabulary repertoire and presents some practical corpus-based activities for various levels of proficiency and ages. Considering that they are more effective than textbooks or dictionaries (Paker & Ergül-Özcan, 2017), corpus data can be used as resources that provide descriptive insights relevant to how language is used in authentic contexts and as tools that enable learners and teachers to identify linguistic patterns for pedagogical purposes. Moreover, corpus-based vocabulary activities attract learners' attention and thus make them hold positive attitudes towards such activities. Through concordances learners have instant access to the most requested learning materials. Once they learn how to use corpora, they will become more confident and autonomous in their learning progress.

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THE ROLE OF CULTURE IN TEACHING ENGLISH: SIGNIFICANCE AND APPROACHES

Hayriye AVARA

1. Introduction

Scholars have known for a long time that forms and applications of a language reflect the cultural ideals of the society in which it is spoken. Language has historically served as a means of transmitting culture and cultural links, hence there is a close relationship between language and culture. Different conceptions arise through the use of different languages within a civilization. Thus, when conversing with someone in a foreign language, linguistic proficiency alone is insufficient. This means that learning a language requires not only fluency in the language's vocabulary, syntax, and verb tenses, but also knowledge of the culture to which the language belongs. While language programme graduates may have a high degree of language competence, they are unable to communicate successfully in real-life situations because they lack the necessary cultural knowledge (Liddicoat, 2011). For language learners, Vernier et al. (as stated in Choudhury, 2013) view the teaching of culture as a 'fifth skill' that improves students' overall learning. To Liddicoat (2011), culture and language are considered to influence one another to create meaning. Hence, learning a language is thought to be inextricably linked to knowing about that culture.

1.1. Definition of culture

Culture is described as "the beliefs, customs, arts, etc., of a particular society, group, place, or time;" in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (2022). A broader definition of culture is given below in *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica, Micropaedia*:

> The integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief and behaviour. Culture … consists of language, ideas, beliefs, customs, taboos, codes, institutions, tools, techniques, works of art, rituals, ceremonies, and other related components… Every human society has its own particular culture, or sociocultural system.... Variation among sociocultural systems is attributable to physical habitats and resources; to the range of possibilities inherent in various areas of activity such as language, rituals and customs, and the manufacture and use of tools (p. 784).

As mentioned in the definitions above, the hallmarks of culture include, but are not limited to, society, religion, literature, history, science, and education. Language has an impact on institutions and intercommunal ties in addition to creating and maintaining interpersonal relationships. Culture can be defined as a way of life, or the transmission of common attitudes, values, behaviours, norms, languages, and knowledge from one generation to the next. Damen (1987) presented notable characteristics of culture which could be summarised and listed as follows:

- *Culture is learned.*

- *Cultural norms and practises evolve.*

- *Culture is a universal fact of existence for people.*

- *Cultures offer collections of distinctive, interconnected, carefully chosen blueprints for living, as well as values and beliefs that go along with and support these blueprints.*

- *Interaction and close ties exist between language and culture.*

- *Culture serves as a filter between its users and the wide variety of stimuli that the environment offers.*

Although there are several suggestions and attempts, it is not easy to define a term as complex and broad as culture. According to Kramsch (1998), being a part of a discourse group with a same social background, shared history, and shared ideals is belonging to a culture. Liddicoat (2011), on the other hand, explains culture as a complex system of ideas, attitudes, values, beliefs, conventions, behaviours, practices, rituals, and lifestyles of the members of a cultural group as well as the institutions and artefacts they produce (2011). By considering language as a cultural construct, as these definitions and ideas show, it is possible to see how closely linked language and culture are.

1.2. Culture with small 'c' and big 'C'

Culture is defined in two categories by Kramsch (1998). To classify culture, Kramsch makes a distinction between the phrases *culture with a small 'c'* and *culture with a big 'C'* (2013). According to Kramsch, in a community, people's daily routines, such as their eating habits, behaviour, and customary rituals, are what she refers to as 'culture' when using a small 'c'. Contrarily, culture with a big 'C' refers to more extensive societal narratives found in things like creative productions, musical subgenres, and literary works. It is also added by Kramsch (2013) that if students need to study culture with the big C, or small c depends on the educational setting like English for scholarly purposes, business, or travel. What is referred to as big 'C' culture is a collection of information on the arts, history, geography, business, education, festivals, and customs of a target spoken society. On the other side, the small 'c' culture accepts everything as a way of life in its entirety, including the menial aspects of daily life. Each goal will require a different approach to the frame of cultural information to be studied.

1.3. Enculturation and acculturation

The terms 'enculturation' and 'acculturation' are frequently used when discussing culture and culture learning. As explained by Damen (1987) the acquisition of a second or additional culture is referred to as acculturation, whereas the acquisition of a first culture is referred to as enculturation, and both exhibit distinctive variances. According to Damen (1987), enculturation promotes the growth of a feeling of cultural or social identity, a matrix of values and ideas, stereotyped ways of living, and, most importantly, ethnocentrism, or the conviction in the efficacy and validity of conventional techniques. Contrarily, the procedure of acculturation requires releasing go of ethnocentric preconceptions and removing the original culture's worldview or ethos as well as com ing up with fresh solutions to old problems.

1.3.1. Cultural identity and culture shock

Cultural identity, according to Damen (1987), is linked to the relationship between a person and society and is at jeopardy as acculturation takes place since becoming bicultural results in the development of a different cultural personality and identity. The effects of culture shock on someone who is learning another language in a foreign community might range from mild annoyance to extreme psychological anguish and catastrophe. It was brought on, according to Damen (1987), by a dread of losing recognisable signs and symbols. Damen continued by stating that culture shock is a difficult step in the acculturation process that follows an initial period of exhilaration and enthusiasm at the novel and unexpected. Some people may be able to overcome culture shock, but for others it is swiftly followed by a debilitating time of sadness, aversion to new and odd things, illness, discouragement, and despair (Damen, 1987). Thu (2010) pointed out the main stages of culture shock suggested by Brown and Eisterhold (2004), which could be explained as follows:

- *The honeymoon stage* is the period when the distinctions found in the new culture are fascinating and alluring during the honeymoon period.

- *The disintegration stage* is characterised by powerlessness and dissatisfaction. During this time, the new culture seems overpowering, and the newcomer generally responds by withdrawing or going into melancholy.

- *The reintegration stage* is the period when the culture seems to be a difficulty throughout the reintegration period, and the immigrant seems protective rather than responsive.

- *The autonomy stage* is period when the immigrant has insight into the culture, and his or her judgments are fair, impartial, and may even be somewhat optimistic.

- *The interdependence stage* is the stage when some people change their identity to become bicultural or multicultural, at which point they reach the interdependence stage.

2. Language and Culture Relations

Language is a component of culture, and culture is a component of language; the two are closely related, therefore, according to Brown (2007), one cannot separate the two without losing the relevance of either language or culture. They are connected to one another; hence, their relationship is complicated. Language and culture can sometimes signify the same thing. Children simultaneously learn culture and language; therefore, it is the same for them. They are regarded as interdependent because, even when members of one culture migrate, it is easy to recognise them if they speak the local language, and the opposite is also true. Everyone often communicates with others using language to convey ideas and arguments.

Given how intimately people's attitudes are entwined with their languages, it is hard to experience a culture without being familiar with its language. Language and culture are inseparable duo, which makes language teaching and culture inseparable as well. Language

functions as a means of communication as well as a tool for cultural transmission. A certain language reflects a specific society. A language cannot actually be learned unless the student has grasped the cultural circumstances in which the language is used. Culture has always been a part of language education since it is difficult to conceive doing it without making some sort of reference to the target culture (Kovacks, 2017). Students learn about the culture in which a language is rooted by studying that language.

Language and culture have a positive relationship since they both impact and reflect one another. A culture is a component of a language, and the reverse is also true. It is impossible in this situation to separate language from culture since the language acts as a symbol of the country and is strongly tied to the attitudes and behaviours of different groups of language speakers. With the exception of specialised, instrumental acquisition, such as, for example, acquiring reading proficiency in a language for analysing scientific works, learning a second language also entails learning a second culture (Brown, 2007). As a result, when learning a new language, people commonly read authentic literature, go on trips, and interact with locals. They reviewed books on the country's culture, customs, and beliefs. These students typically perform well because they treat culture and language holistically, which always go hand in hand. The significance of either language or culture would be lost if they were separated, according to Brown (2007), who argues that the two are inextricably linked. To put it another way, language is viewed as a means of interaction and communication between individuals, which promotes the emergence of culture.

Language teachers' experience, education, and opinions become crucial when discussing the notion of culture and the possibilities for incorporating cultural knowledge into language learning. They might have different attitudes towards incorporating culture in their classes. These variations may be the consequence of their prior knowledge of the target language, what they have learned throughout their training, and the opportunities they have had to interact directly with the target culture. The degree of cultural divergence between the native and target cultures may also have an impact on the cultural material presented in language training (Kovacs, 2017). Language training primarily focuses on the development of four key skills: speaking, writing, and reading comprehension. However, culture, which is regarded as the 'fifth skill', is the significant component of language that language experts and teachers frequently discuss.

Since it is impossible to separate language and culture from one another, culture and language are acquired together, with each aiding the other's development. Additionally, it is shown by the way language functions as a medium for the social construction of culture, cultural norms in communication, and cultural standards (Kramsch, 1996). According to Liddicoat et al. (2003), no level of language is independent of culture since language and culture interact in a way that connects all levels of language use and structures (Figure 1).
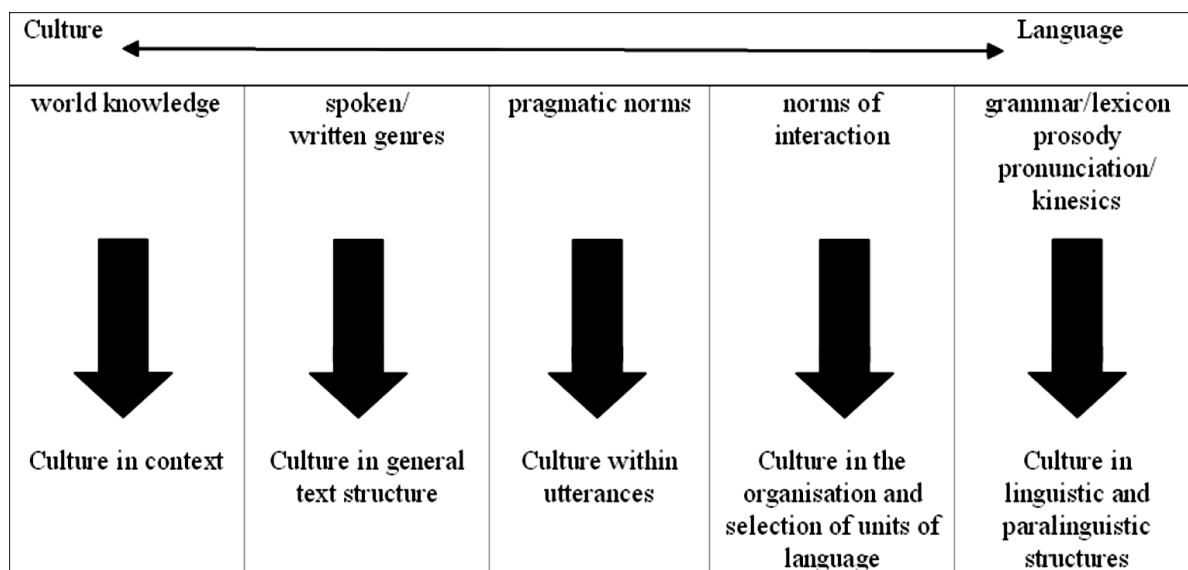
Figure 1. Points of articulation between culture and language (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 9)

Furthermore, it reveals the strong connection between language and culture because language communicates, embodies, and represents cultural reality (Kramsch, 1998). The link between language and culture is crucial in language learning because someone who learns a language without understanding culture runs the risk of being a 'fluent fool' (Bennett et al., 2003). Thus, when it comes to the teaching and learning environment, the connection between language learning and cultural learning is so clear that it is possible to draw the conclusion that language learning is cultural learning and, as a result, language teaching is cultural teaching. Foreign language instructors should be aware of the value of cultural studies in their classes, and they should work to improve their students' cultural awareness and communication abilities, according to Choudhury (2013). Both teaching other languages and teaching about other cultures are the responsibilities of foreign language instructors.

2.1. Cultural awareness

Being aware of or comprehending people from various cultures, including their behaviour, expectations, opinions, and values, is referred to as cultural awareness. Thu (2010) outlines the Kuang phases of cultural awareness (2007). People are aware of their own tactics at this point and think they are the only ones available. In other words, they disregard the impact of cultural variations. At the second stage, people become aware of alternative methods, yet they continue to believe their approach is the best. At this stage, cultural differences are seen as a source of issues, and as a result, issues are more likely to be disregarded or given less weight. The third stage of cultural awareness, on the other hand, is when a person is aware of both their own way of doing things and other people's methods of doing things, and they are more likely to choose the optimal approach depending on the circumstance. At the third stage, people start to understand that cultural differences can bring about both benefits and challenges, and they are

eager to use cultural variety to come up with new ideas and alternatives. A culture of shared meanings is finally created at the fourth stage by bringing together individuals from varied cultural origins. At this stage, people converse with others frequently and develop new definitions and rules to fit the demands of a particular circumstance. In essence, it could be concluded that people who go through the four stages of cultural awareness progress from a state of 'cultural ignorance' to a state of 'cultural competence' (Thu, 2010).

2.2. Cultural competence

Given that culture serves as the basis for communication, language use needs to be connected to culturally appropriate behaviour in order for communication to be successful. As proposed by Samovar et al. (1981), culture affects not only who communicates with whom, what is communicated, and how it is communicated, but it also affects how messages are encoded, what they mean to people, and the circumstances and conditions under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted, according to Choudhury (2013). It is quite challenging to include culture into the classroom because it is such a large and complex concept (Choudhury, 2013). According to Yıldırım (2012), coursebooks serve as a source of cultural direction for English language teachers, guiding them as they integrate cultural elements into the context of their language instruction.
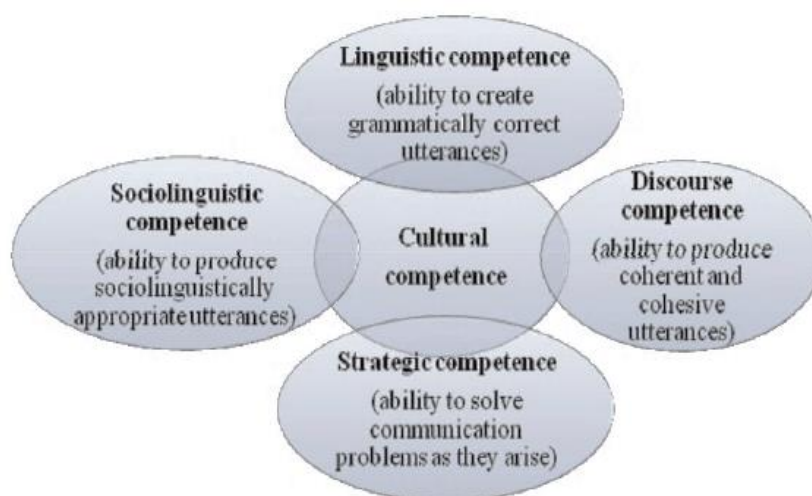
Figure 2. The place of cultural competence in communicative competence (Bárdos, 2004)

2.3. Intercultural communicative competence

People from various cultures come into contact with one another due to increased population movement and immigration, which can occasionally result in friction and conflict. There is an alternative approach to teaching culture that does not require rejecting potentially inspiring cultural content. It is inspired by the idea of intercultural competency (Byram, 1997). Developing communicative competence (CC), which is comprised of the four components of

grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies, is interwoven with learning about target cultures. The term 'intercultural communicative competency' (ICC) was made popular by Byram in 1997. It is described as social appropriateness and efficacy. In other words, intercultural competence is related to the capacity to interact and communicate effectively with individuals from different cultural backgrounds.
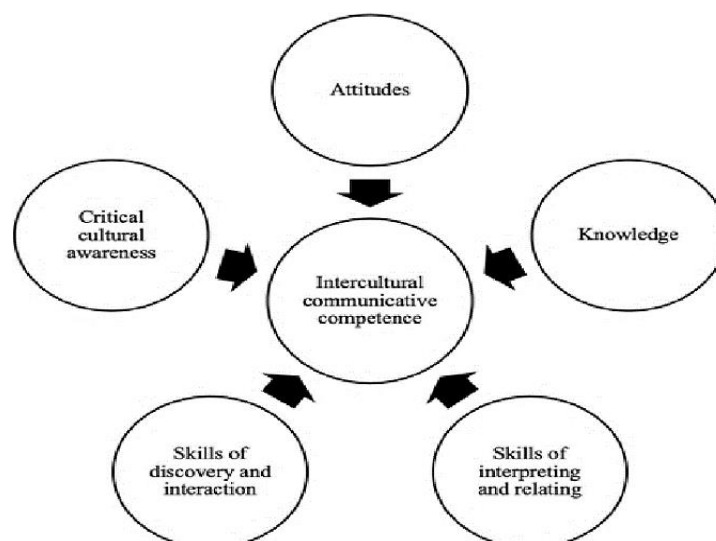
Figure 3. Byram's (1997) framework for intercultural communicative competence

2.4. Cross-cultural and communicative competences

Cross-cultural awareness, according to Damen (1987), comprises being able to recognise and understand both one's own socially constructed behaviour and cognitive patterns as well as those of other people. It is the force that moves a person learning a new culture along the acculturation continuum from a state of little to no knowledge, or even hostility, to a state of nearly complete understanding, from monoculturalism to multiculturalism. The linguo-cultural orientation of a functionally significant variable of competences is a crucial component of cross-cultural and communicative competences. Cross-cultural and communicative competence is thought to be appropriate to highlight as a distinct competency within the framework of component design cross-cultural and communicative skills and important conceptual principles cognitive-linguo-cultural methodology. There is a variety of cross-cultural interactions today such as Internet, email, social networking websites, chat, and mobile phone technology. Thanks to all of these, interaction has become quicker and wider. The following sub-competencies reflect the training system and make up the framework of cross-cultural and communicative competencies, which is considered to be a level of linguistic proficiency (Figure 4).
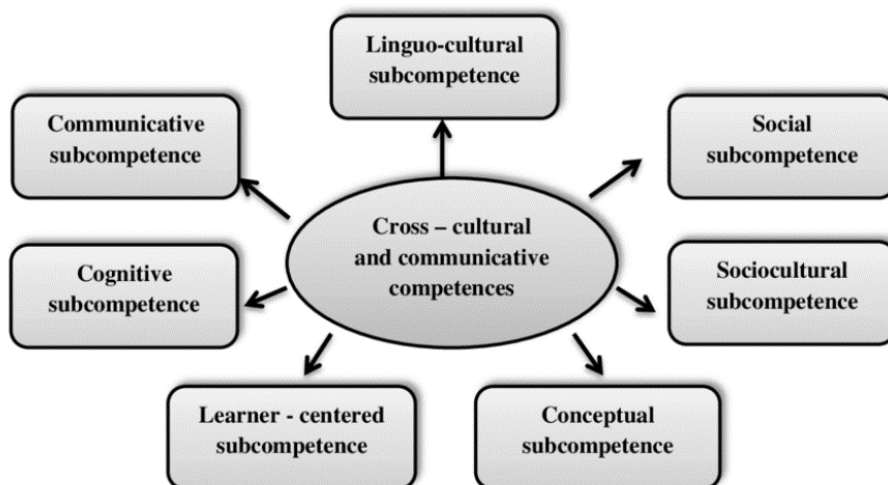
Figure 4. The structure of cross-cultural and communicative competences (Nurmukhanova et al., 2014, 118)

Developing sensitivity to cultural differences is essential for communication as they are deeply ingrained in people's behaviour and thinking and difficult to see directly. To Qin (2012), sensitivity to cultural differences refers to the ability of participants in verbal communication to not only understand the superficial cultural distinctions of the target language country but also to quickly recognise the underlying differences between opposing viewpoints. However, because the deep structure of a culture is much more abstract and is thought to exist in the speaker, writer, listener, or reader's mind, the deep-seated cultural differences are not as simple to recognise. The term 'tolerance' for cultural diversity, on the other hand, relates to the degree to which cultural differences are viewed as either understandable, respectable, or unpleasant and despised. Some people believe that their culture is superior to others' cultures, which they perceive as being more developed. The simple explanation for this is that people are born to benefit from their local culture, so the beliefs and moral standards blend into their blood and function as an essential component of the entire body. When confronted with a different culture, it will automatically react with feelings of misunderstanding, distaste, or, more gravely, revulsion attitude (Qin, 2012). According to Qin (2012), flexibility may be defined as the participant's capacity to adapt her/his communication behaviour in a flexible way to the shared cultural background. This competency in two domains is required to handle challenges linked to cultural differences. Additionally, it is the capacity to settle the communication conflict caused by cultural differences in order to achieve the desired outcome differences.

3. Culture and Teaching English

The value of culture as it relates to the teaching of English becomes a more subtle subject. Language teachers are referred to by Byram (1099) as professional mediators between foreign

languages and culture, and, as it has been underlined above, it is not possible to teach a language without also teaching a culture. However, Murray (2010) believes that in many situations of teacher education programmes around the world, the cultural component is still ignored. As a result, as explained by Gonen and Saglam (2012), some teachers might lack the skills and knowledge necessary to integrate culture into their lessons. A number of EFL teachers might not have complete awareness of the value of cultural orientation in more traditional nations. Some of these teachers tend to view verbal and written communication as simply the application of grammatical rules. Furthermore, sometimes gaining information about or becoming familiar with the culture of the target language is considered as threat to the own culture; thus, the importance of linguistically useful information is ignored in such a mindset.

Nevertheless, recognizing and appreciating the significance of culture as an inseparable component of language teaching is important for language teachers and teacher candidates. Thus, theoretical and practical understanding of what culture is and how it could be present and presented in a language classroom is essential for teacher candidates. Culture is considered as being more difficult to define than grammar or vocabulary; hence, it is not so easy to decide what should be taught and how it should be done. For this reason, a roadmap is needed. As a solution, guidelines and suggestions for the incorporation of cultural content could be included in the course material for language teaching methods. The importance of including culture instruction in the curricula and syllabi of English language teacher preparation programmes is highlighted by Murray (2010), who also notes that the culture component in language education needs more attention.

Furthermore, Byram (1989) emphasises the link between language and culture by asserting that as students learn languages, they also learn cultures, and that as they practise their language abilities, they develop the ability to communicate with people from other cultural backgrounds. They must be aware of, for instance, the proper methods to address somebody, express thanks, make requests, or disagree with someone. They should be aware that members of the target language speech community may not view certain actions and intonation patterns as appropriate in their own speech community. They need to understand that language use must be consistent with socially and culturally accepted behaviour for communication to be productive. Therefore, EFL teachers should not consider to disregard the significance of teaching culture in the development of what Byram (1997) refers to as 'intercultural communicative competence' in today's more globalised and multicultural society.

It is crucial for students to comprehend the cultural components of communication before they travel abroad and run into issues because having direct contact with the target culture and its speakers is a rare opportunity for all language learners in countries from outside and increasing circles (Kachru, 1992). Occasionally, nonverbal characteristics of a target culture are picked up from films and TV shows, which are seldom ever beneficial for communication and occasionally lead to mistakes or prejudices.

Choudhury (2013) asserts that culture has a significant effect on language learning from a pedagogical and linguistic standpoint. From a linguistic perspective, language is important because it influences the lexical, operational, and discourse levels of the language. It affects the selection of language resources from a pedagogical perspective because it's critical to take into account both the cultural context of the teaching strategies and the cultural content of the materials. Students should therefore study both the language's linguistic and cultural norms in order to acquire a language properly.

In order to advance intercultural understanding and world peace, the Council of Europe (2001) emphasizes that it includes cultural awareness and intercultural learning among its policies. In addition to citing other benefits of learning about cultures, as mentioned by Choudhury (2013), learning about culture can help students better understand their own culture. The ideals of the student's own culture shape their worldview. When they encounter people from other cultures, this could cause issues. Choudhury (2013) also discusses that knowing about different cultures fosters students' empathy and prevents misconceptions, which is an essential part of general education. According to Kovács (2017), future language teachers are not required to be experts in the field of culture, but they need to understand what this phrase implies in general and, in particular, how it relates to learning a foreign language. They should be aware that culture cannot be taught simply through a few lectures on a few particular holidays, songs, or literary works. There is much more to it than that, and it is implied in the proper application of other linguistic forms as well. Kramsch (2013) explains that language is not a collection of random verbal constructions used to describe a cultural reality that exists outside of language, in the real world, in the pair 'language and culture'. The customs, values, institutions, and structures we refer to as cultural phenomena would not exist without language and other symbolic systems. They need to have a purpose in order to become culture. Culture is the meaning we assign to things like cuisines, gardens, and lifestyles. As further explained by Kramsch (2013), language and culture cannot be separated from one another.

In addition, Kovacs (2017) points out that so as to attract more international students, which would bring in more revenue, and to encourage their researchers and prospective graduates to publish in English, many institutions throughout the world offer their courses and programmes in English. This shows that rather than using English as a means to an end, academics utilise it to facilitate the sharing of knowledge.

Students who are learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) are those who study the language to communicate in settings where there are frequently no native English speakers present. This approach is distinct from those employed in settings where English is being learnt as a second language (ESL). Kovacs (2017) explains what Galloway and Rose (2015) offer as a more comprehensive viewpoint contending that even when native speakers of English communicate with non-native speakers of English, they alter the language they use to a sort of EFL, making it more understandable. This understanding decentralises and isolates English from any specific community. As a result, including culture in the ELF classroom, as suggested

by Coskun (2010), is more about intercultural communication and the ability of the interlocutors to comprehend and appreciate one another's culture rather than it is about the culture(s) of English-speaking countries. This means that language is related to the culture(s) of its users, whether they are native or non-native English speakers; therefore, no culture would be marginalised or subordinated as suggested by Dogancy-Aktuna & Hardman (2018). All interconnected cultures would be respected and given equal value instead. Students of English need to understand in the EFL classes that a culture's dynamic nature is what permits negotiation as emphasised by Mahboob (2018).

Since communicative theories were originally created in the context of English Language Teaching (ELT), the integration of culture has started to assume an even greater significance. Communication skills are the capacity to relativize one's own cultural beliefs, attitudes, and practises, to comprehend those of others, to create a bridge between people, and to accept diversity rather than calling for a certain level of concord between cultures as explained by Kovacs (2017). Interaction with a different culture in this situation enables language learners to relativize their own culture. According to Tomalin (2008), teaching culture as a fifth language skill - in addition to listening, speaking, reading, and writing- is important because of the international role of the English language and globalisation. The fifth language skill shows people how to change the way they use English so that they may discover, comprehend, and respect the values, customs, and distinctive traits of various cultures. It requires language proficiency in order to be tolerant of diversity, adaptive, and accepting of ways of doing things that may be different from your own. It is an attitude change that is expressed through words.

3.1. Cultural contexts in ELF

It would appear that studying a linguistic system is only a small part of what English education entails. In an attempt to clarify the role of culture in the context of so many different varieties of English, Cates (2004) contends that it can also be viewed as an international language for communication with people from all over the world and a subject for learning about the world's peoples, countries, and problems. Choudhury (2013) argues that despite the fact that two non-native English speakers are conversing in English, cultural familiarity on the parts of each interlocutor is still of the utmost importance.

The success or failure of teaching culture in language schools, according to Thu (2010), may depend on a variety of factors. The most crucial elements to examine include teachers, courses, and texts. As pointed out by Damen (1987), there are causes for the teachers' ineffectiveness as cultural ambassadors. One reason as suggested by him is that teachers are unsure about which 'culture' to instruct. Another reason is given as that, until recently, there were just a few texts and approaches accessible to help teachers guide students toward a greater understanding of culture.

3.2. The teacher's role in integration of culture

English language teachers need to receive the training necessary to support the integration of culture into language instruction by understanding the cultural needs of their students (Coskun, 2010), fostering intercultural awareness and using the 'cultura franca' as a foundation for global communication (Byrd et al., 2011). As they need to teach it, language teachers should be interested in the study of culture. No ethical educator would intentionally undermine learners' capacity for successful linguistic and cultural communication in the future by refusing to address cultural issues explicitly and overtly. In addition, teachers need to recognize the sociocultural background and context of the target community. They also need to understand the drawbacks of the target culture and how miscommunication can be avoided. However, incorporating culture into ELF discourse is difficult and problematic since it depends on where, when, and how English language learners will use the language in their daily lives. Thus, as Al Hariri (2022) suggests, determining students' needs as the first step toward the proper blending of cultures is vital. In that way, teachers can choose which components are to be included to help their students perform well. Culturally aware teachers value the essential approaches that should be applied during language teaching, some of which could be listed as follows:

- fostering multicultural sensitivity in ELF classes
- embracing intercultural sensitivity,
- recognising the first culture's interference,
- encouraging the use of stereotype-critical thinking

Thu (2010) focuses on the necessity of teachers who adhere to the communicative approach to second language learning and instruction being aware of some concealed assumptions (see Table 1). He notes that in order to give learners opportunities for meaningful communicative contact and to prioritise the needs of learners, as proposed by Damen, educators should review their own adherence to the underlying assumptions before, after, and during training sessions (1987).

Table 1. Using the communicative competence train of thought (Adapted by Damen, 1987)

It is assumed…	It means that…
1. Nothing about a human being is off limits or to be ignored at will.	1. The cornerstone of cross-cultural communication is cultural relativism.
2. Cultural practices or norms are taught or learnt. Such education is not substitutive; rather, it is additive.	2. While learning a new language and a new culture go hand in hand, they do not include the same steps.

3. Because culture and language development are intertwined, the issue is not whether to teach culture, but rather which culture should be taught.	3. There are various approaches to cultural education and instruction. No strategy will work for all educators and students in all situations. One must make decisions.
4. Cultural patterns within a specific culture function as components of the whole and display cultural rationalism within that setting.	4. Despite individual manifestations' differences, cultural patterns at any given moment exhibit a basic constancy.
5. The term 'ethnocentrism' is not always negative.	5. Humans are culturally capable creatures. Cultural education should not aim to make students lose their sense of culture.

Being aware of these hidden assumptions might be very helpful for teachers of English when designing their classes. For instance, the first one suggests that the concepts of cultural relativism must be accepted and used in language instruction. In addition, according to the second assumption, it is important to carefully select and tailor the goals and objectives of cultural learning in the classroom to the requirements and preferences of the learners. The third premise makes it very evident that the question of whether or not culture should be taught is irrelevant because language acquisition and cultural learning go hand in hand. The choice of subject matter and instructional strategy is the central issue in cultural instruction. The fourth premise holds that to accept the idea of cultural relativity is to acknowledge that the cultural traits that make up a particular culture serve as components of the whole and display a general consistency at a certain moment. Damen concludes by saying that the premise supports the necessity to preserve people's psychocultural identities. Ethnocentrism is a normal and necessary human attitude that, as Damen believes, is equivalent with adhering to a particular set of cultural possibilities deemed to be correct (Damen,1987).

3.3. Cultural target group

When it comes to teaching English in connection to culture, which type of culture is to be learned is the pressing decision faced with by any teachers and students. The most popular choice was British or American culture with a mix of small 'c' and big 'C' cultures for historical and economic reasons. Additionally, there is a clear bias toward British or American culture in the majority of worldwide English language teaching materials. Both the teachers and the students appear to have a simple decision to choose. It gets harder the more you explore the idea of culture in education. One issue is that there is not a single, homogeneous national culture. People can be categorised into any variety of cultural groups, including those based on their age, gender, regional origin, occupation, social status, religion, and ethnicity. Lack of awareness of this results in stereotypes being reinforced.

The issue of whose culture(s) should be included in English language training arises as a result of the fact that non-native speakers of English outweigh native speakers worldwide. The fluid

nature of international business communication in English and its hallmark of shared interests suggest that power is dynamic and reciprocally dispersed (Coskun, 2010). As a result, neither the laws of the British nor the American civilizations must be followed.

Therefore, the question of whether British or American culture is the target culture in the EFL environment arises. English has overtaken other languages as the most frequently spoken one, thanks to British colonialism before the middle of the twentieth century and the subsequent rise of the USA as a political, military, and economic superpower.
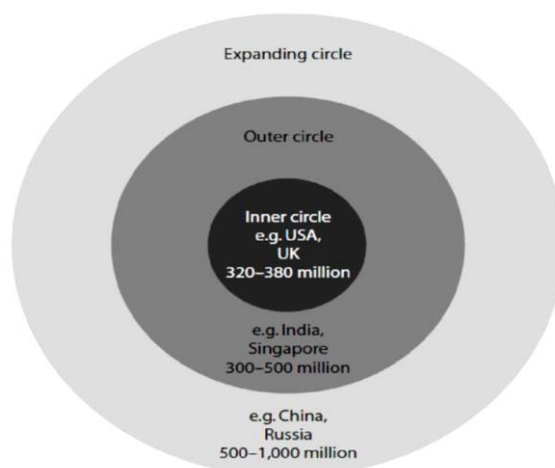
Figure 5. Kachru's (1985) 'Three Circles' model of English

The concept of World Englishes (Kachru, 1992), which consists of several variations of English used in various sociolinguistic situations, evolved as a result of the growth of English over the past century; it is not any longer a single, universal language. The first type of English is the English that is spoken in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia. According to Kachru (1992), this English is considered to be a part of the 'inner circle' and represents the historical and sociolinguistic roots of English in the nations where it is currently the dominant language. Then, in the 'outer circle', there are newly formed regional or indigenous types created in formerly British colonies like India, Nigeria, Caribbean Island nations, etc. China, Russia, and Brazil are included in the 'expanding circle', which is the last group (Kachru, 1992).

Table 2. Englishes of the three circles model

Inner Circle	English as Native Language (ENL)
Outer Circle	English as Second Language (ESL)
Expanding Circle	English as Foreign Language (EFL)

The nations where English is the mother tongue and the major language are included in Kachru's inner circle. The USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand are included in this circle. The post-colonial nations in the outer circle are those where English is widely used in government, education, and popular culture despite not being the native tongue. India, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Nigeria, and more than 50 more countries and territories are included in this broad group of countries. The expanding circle of nations recognises the importance of English as a language of international communication. English is frequently taught in these nations as a 'foreign' language with a focus on communication in international commerce. Russia, China, Japan, Korea, Vietnam, Indonesia, Iran, and many other nations are included in the growing circle (Kachru, 1992).

Additionally, it is true that English today holds a special place in the world as a language. The notion that English is exclusive to the nations that Kachru (1992) refers to as the 'Inner Circle'- Britain, the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand - has been disproved. This has prompted some to demand that English be taught as an international language in a neutral or supranational variation that is completely free of cultural character.

Others, however, contend that even the newly developed form of English used internationally is a North American sub-genre that imperils other languages and homogenises culture. However, given that culture is a key component of the core English curriculum in most schools, it can hardly be disregarded.

3.4. Integration of culture in language classroom

To increase intercultural competence, one should be able to do the following: negotiate and find common ground; avoid making assumptions or stereotypes; teach culture through language skills training; read literary works; enjoy music and movies; browse the internet and read web pages about learning English culture; engage in task-based activities like roleplay and drama; and use a variety of tools for teaching and learning culture. The core competency of intercultural communicative competence is the result of the three interrelated learning outcomes of cultural awareness, language awareness, and language skills, as represented in the diagram below (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Learning outcomes for a content-rich Modern Languages curriculum (adapted from Meesterschapsteam MVT's vision on the future of Modern Languages education by de Jong)

Being the most extensively spoken language, English is used more frequently in the interactions indicated above, making the cultivation of intercultural competence necessary. To become interculturally competent, one must first be able to identify distinctions and variations both within one's own culture and in other cultures. It is about taking up what is referred to as a third position, an objective viewpoint that cuts over cultural boundaries. It entails letting go of the notion that everyone has a similar perspective on the world. In order to encourage students to think about their own cultures and foster an environment of 'inter-culturality', McKay (2002) contends that cultural artefacts should be used in the classroom (Kramsch 1993). In this way, intercultural competence becomes more about abilities than it is about knowledge. The concern that students would be influenced by the target culture and lose their own identity since this may be viewed as linguistic imperialism is one of the issues brought on by the usage of the target culture in ELT. To overcome the drawbacks of employing only one of the cultures, some authors have proposed combining the cultures of the home language and the target language. According to Ariffin (2009), this concept is great because it encourages students to find connections between their culture and the culture of the target language.

4. Conclusion and Implications

There are other aspects of teaching English besides only grammar and vocabulary; it also involves helping students become aware of their own cultures and how to navigate them in cross-cultural situations. It is a pitiful reason to not teach culture or not be aware of culture in language classes on the grounds that language learning is culture learning; culture can easily be forgotten, disregarded, or given temporary attention in the classroom when teachers are not completely aware that cultural learning can considerably help their students in second language learning. One of the crucial objectives is to find areas of agreement amongst language users from various cultural backgrounds so that they can interact across cultures. In this way, the participants of communication can approach the conversation from two different angles by

recognising differences through intercultural awareness, and by comprehending culturally shared values.

Another significant point that needs to be highlighted is related to teacher training. That is, cultural preparation in teacher education programmes has to be prioritised more to enable teachers to provide students with the necessary skills to function outside of the classroom and become global citizens. Teachers should also encourage their students to avoid generalising about other cultures. Instead, teachers ought to assist their students understand a common culture so that they can utilise English in a variety of multicultural settings. This can be accomplished by embracing the notion that no culture is better to another and highlighting the fact that many of the values shared by most cultures have overlapping ancestral origins. Consequently, a key component of teaching English as a foreign language is cultural awareness.

Instead of spreading or demonstrating how the target culture is superior to the learner's own culture, the objective of culture training in EFL should be to strengthen students' intercultural communication skills. The student should be able to recognise elements of his own culture in the culture of the host nation. The student should be able to see her/his own culture reflected in the culture of the other country. An important step in appreciating otherness is for learners to comprehend what culture is and how it changes throughout the world. Learners must be open to learning about the mechanisms of culture if they are to comprehend why people from various cultures behave or react in different ways. This reduces assumptions and cultural gaps.

It is also crucial for native English speakers who teach English to be sensitive to the cultural norms of their students as part of the intercultural awareness process, for they need to be able to adapt to the cultural backgrounds of their students. They also need to learn about other cultures in addition to their own in order to be able to do this.

To conclude, understanding a culture should be an intentional, deliberate process in which the implicit is made explicit. Teaching culture is now considered to be a part of values education. Fostering critical thinking and tolerance for difference is emphasised. Culture learning is viewed as a comparative process in which students are encouraged to become aware of their own cultures and compare them to the target cultures.

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ASSESSMENT OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION CONTEXTS: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

Derya COŞKUN

1. Introduction

Su (2018) asserts that "The world has become more of global village in the 21st century" (p. 217). In this regard, Iswandari and Ardi (2022) draw attention to the emergence of English as a lingua franca (ELF) and World Englishes (WE) in the age of globalization, which requires teaching the varieties of language and also different types of communication. Likewise, Zheng (2014) underlines the fact that communicative competence has become more important in the field of foreign language learning in 21st century with the introduction and use of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and five Cs standards. In a similar vein, Garcia (2022) remarks intercultural communicative competence and cultural awareness in language teaching are really important terms in CEFR. Accordingly, the developments and advances in various fields from technology to education pave the way for the emergence of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), which has become an essential part of today's globalized world by enabling people to gain new perspectives towards differences, to interact with each other and so to develop their understanding about cultural sensitivity (Garcia, 2022).

According to Byram (2009), "Teachers of language need to become teachers of language and culture" (p. 331), which requires language teachers to integrate the components of ICC into their teaching and lesson plans by making use of appropriate methods and materials as it is suggested by Garcia (2022). Munezane (2021) puts forward that "Language classrooms have a great potential for developing learners' ICC" (p. 1676) by referring to the fact that culture is in constant change and evolves continually. Likewise, Zhai and Razali (2020) specify that language and culture are closely interrelated; therefore, ICC should be an integral part of foreign language learning and teaching. In this sense, they claim that teaching strategies based on intercultural communication should be used in language teaching and higher education programs should include issues such as international student advising, intercultural sensitivity and understanding. Further, Harsch and Poehner (2016) suggest learners to develop their intercultural skills by engaging in intercultural interactions with people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds in order to be able to cope with the challenges and changes in this globalized world. Therefore, it can be concluded that the communication channels and tools have changed and evolved with the developments in the globalized age, and special attention has been paid to teaching and assessing ICC. Accordingly, it is expressed that assessing ICC has gained importance in language education as well in the last two decades (Borghetti, 2017).

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Definition and models of ICC

Iswandari and Ardi (2022) remark ICC is composed of two terms, which are communicative and intercultural competence. While the first component is based on appropriate use of language depending on the variety of contexts, the second component is related to the interaction among people from different cultures. Accordingly, intercultural communicative competence is defined as "an individual's ability to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries" (Byram, 1997, p. 7). In line with this definition, the main ICC model was developed in 1997 by Byram with the intention of describing the main components of intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 2009). Byram's 1997 model which is composed of five components is regarded as "most influential in constructing ICC components" (Lei, 2021, p. 38).
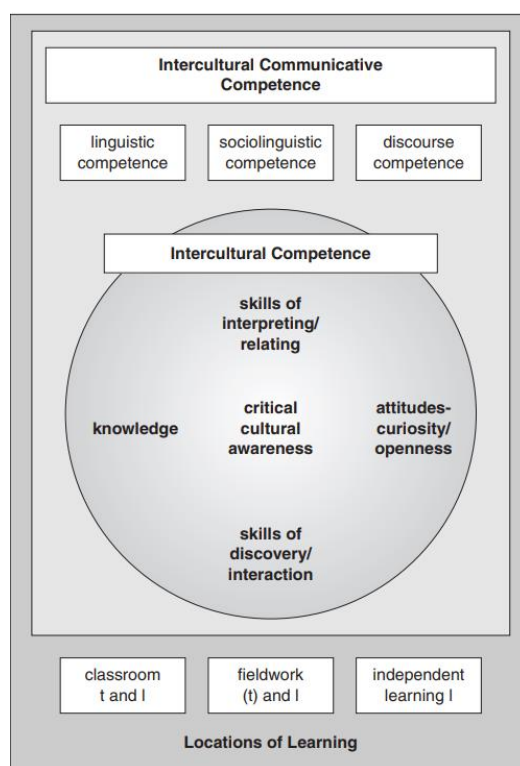
Figure 1. Intercultural communicative competence model (Byram, 2009, p. 323)

Another ICC model is Deardorff's (2006) pyramid model with three levels and it is based on the intercultural communicational knowledge and skills by providing "important methodological implications for the construction of an ICC assessment system" (Lei, 2021, p. 39). According to Deardorff (2006), this pyramid model focuses on both internal and external outcomes of intercultural competence.
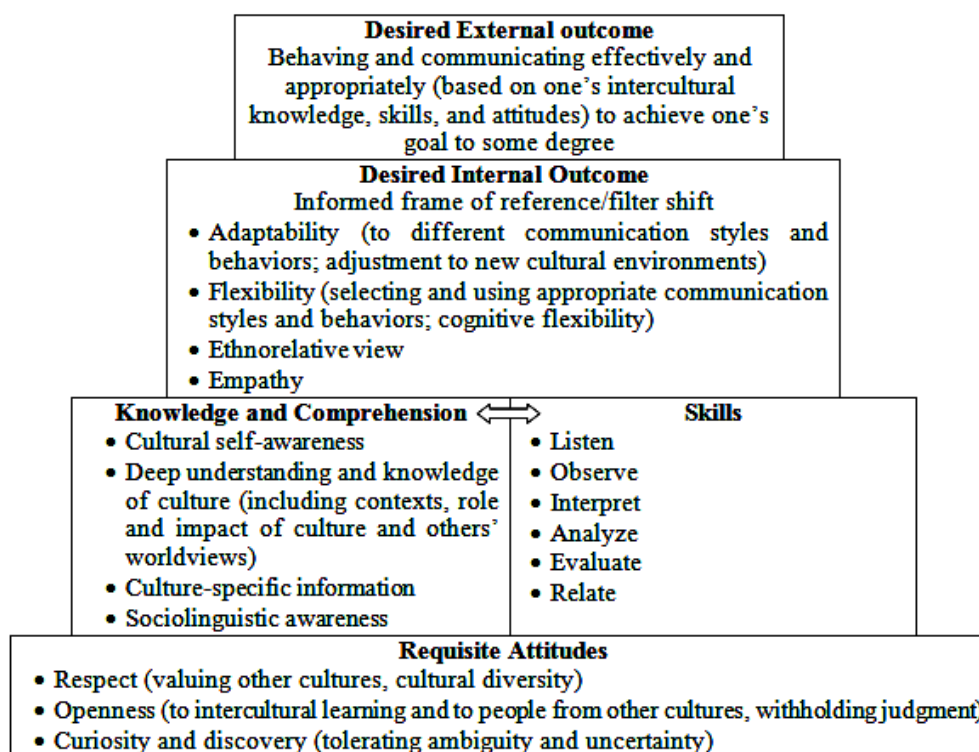
Figure 2. Pyramid model of intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2006, p. 254)

Further, Fantini (2009) defines ICC as a concept which requires learners to communicate effectively and appropriately with people from diverse cultures and backgrounds. On the other hand, he argues that there is no agreement on the definition of ICC; therefore, various alternative terms are used by different scholars. Although the list is not limited to these terms, some of the alternative concepts used for ICC are listed by Fantini (2009, p. 457) as *biculturalism, multiculturalism, bilingualism, multilingualism, plurilingualism, communicative competence, cross-cultural adaptation, cross-cultural awareness, cross-cultural communication, cultural competence, cultural or intercultural sensitivity, effective intergroup communication, ethnorelativity, intercultural cooperation, global competitive intelligence, global competence, international competence, international communication, intercultural interaction, metaphoric competence, transcultural communication.* Concerning the various definitions of ICC, Deardorff (2006) points out that "The definition of intercultural competence continues to evolve, which is perhaps one reason why this construct has been so difficult to define" (p. 258).

2.2. Assessment of ICC

Considering the differences among the definitions of ICC, various assessment tools or instruments have emerged. In this regard, the book edited by Paran and Sercu (2010) puts an emphasis on the necessity of assessing ICC by referring to the fact that testing and assessment are integral parts of learning and teaching, which is affected by the perceptions and understandings of the individuals. In other words, ICC includes affective, cognitive, and behavioural domains affecting the assessment type, format, and approach as it is discussed by Sercu (2010). Furthermore, he asserts that ICC assessment includes various sub-dimensions from critical thinking skills to reading ability; therefore, it is not possible to assess this term in a holistic way. Likewise, Deardorff (2006) notes that "it is important to measure intercultural competence for a period of time as opposed to one point in time" (p. 257) by claiming that ICC can be assessed and it is significant to assess the levels and components of it rather than holistic assessment. He also refers to the complexity and evolving nature of measuring ICC and suggests implementing both qualitative and quantitative assessment methods while measuring ICC. Another recommendation on assessing ICC is to make use of the combination of expert, peer and self-assessment tools and techniques (Borghetti, 2017). In line with these, many researchers have proposed different assessment models, techniques, and tools about the measurement of ICC. As for the rationale behind the use of various models and techniques to assess ICC, it is mentioned that scholars advocate different perspectives about the focus of intercultural assessment due to the disagreements about what should be assessed in the intercultural communicative context. To begin with Dervin (2010), he refers to the presence of various methods and techniques used for assessing ICC. One of these methods is the use of standard cultural tests which do not reveal sufficient information about intercultural competence. Other methods range from portfolios, self-assessment reports, narrative diaries, surveys to interviews. However, Dervin (2010) emphasizes that all of these methods have been criticized from different perspectives with respect to their drawbacks. So, he proposes two different models to assess ICC in the higher education context. The first model is the summative one which is based on otherization, representation, and identity. As for the second model, it is related to learners' needs and objectives; so, self-assessment is used as an assessment technique in this model. Likewise, Fantini (2009) indicates that various assessment techniques and strategies are used to assess ICC based on the goals and objectives of courses, programs, and individuals. He also draws attention to the evolving nature of intercultural competence, which means that it is a developmental process and the techniques and tools used for assessing ICC depend on many factors such as learner needs, curriculum objectives, and resources. Thirdly, Sercu (2010) underscores that different assessment techniques are used to measure ICC in foreign language context by highlighting the necessity of assessing ICC in order to reveal the effects of intercultural teaching on learners and on the society as well.

Furthermore, Griffith et al. (2016) claim there are various definitions of ICC in the higher education context. Therefore, they propose that ICC is defined and measured through five

models which focus on different aspects of intercultural communicative competence. After providing the varieties about the definition of ICC, it is underlined that portfolios and surveys are the most widely used assessment formats in terms of assessing intercultural communicative competence. Another important point is related to the challenging features of ICC assessment. In addition, it is underscored that deciding on the design and implementation of the assessment tool according to the validity criteria is a challenging task for the stakeholders. Based on these challenges of ICC assessment, a new three-dimensional conceptual framework which aims to refer to different characteristics of ICC is proposed by Griffith et al. (2016).

In addition, Sinicrope et al. (2007) indicate that the assessment of ICC is mainly based on self-reports in form of surveys among various indirect assessment tools. At this point, it is hypothesized that learners' perceptions about their own intercultural competence would be different from their actual performance. Therefore, some researchers suggest that direct assessment tools such as portfolios, interviews and performance based approaches should be implemented instead of indirect assessment techniques. On the other hand, there are some studies supporting the use of both direct and indirect assessment tools to provide a more detailed analysis of ICC as it is highlighted by Dervin (2010).

All in all, Zheng (2014) points out that "The assessment of ICC is a field that is rife with controversy" (p. 74). For instance, Borghetti (2017) asserts that assessment of ICC is a highly delicate matter which requires assessors to be careful about taking different dimensions, ethical issues, existing models, and recent developments into consideration. Based on the literature, it is presumed that scholars and articles assess various dimensions of ICC differently following affective, cognitive or behavioural focuses by means of different approaches. Regarding all these aforementioned studies and assessment perspectives about ICC, it is aimed to reveal how intercultural communicative competence is assessed in empirical research studies published in the last decade in higher education contexts. Since any consensus has not been built on the definition and assessment of intercultural communicative competence, the present chapter intends to provide a systematic review of updated developments and directions about the assessment of ICC by synthesizing up to date and peer reviewed articles in the last decade. As a consequence, it is hypothesized that the strategies and methods in previous studies will shed light on the current state of the issue and eventually will provide significant implications for future studies. Further, it is intended to provide some implications for the kinds of interventions and models which can be developed to assess intercultural communicative competence in future studies.

3. Findings

25 empirical, up-to-date and peer reviewed research articles published in the last decade were analysed within the scope of this present study (see Appendix A for details). The synthesis of these studies indicated that the studies differed in terms of participants, designs, and ICC assessment techniques and tools depending on their aims (see Appendix B for details). As it can be understood from Figure 3 below, most of the studies were designed as a qualitative study, while some of them were conducted by following the procedures of mixed-method or quantitative study deigns.
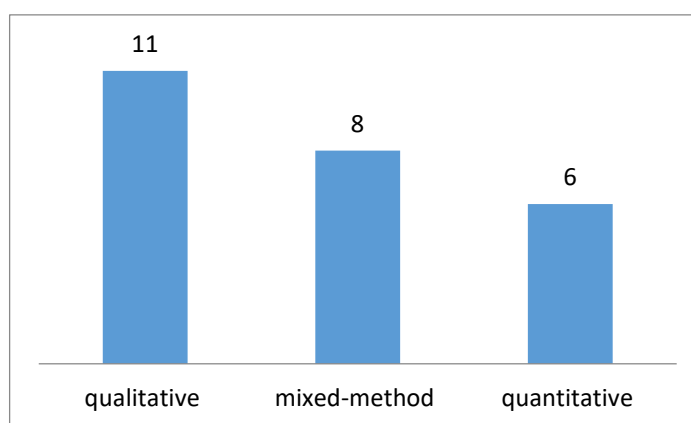
Figure 3. Designs of the studies included in the systematic review

Although the designs and assessment tools used in the studies were different from each other, the analysis of these research studies' findings were gathered around the following five main themes.

3.1. Development of ICC

Development of intercultural communicative competence was one of the main themes associated with the assessment of participants' intercultural competence skills and intercultural sensitivity levels. In this sense, some of the studies focused on the efficacy of study abroad programs, intercultural courses or interactions to assess participants' intercultural competence development, while some studies measured ICC by means of only one assessment tool or at one point in time.

To begin with the study conducted by Bloom and Miranda (2015), the aim was to analyze whether short term study abroad program changed students' intercultural sensitivity or not. The implementation of Intercultural Sensitivity Index before and after the program revealed that participants' intercultural sensitivity scores showed little significant difference in pre and post-tests. Additionally, the study conducted by Hauerwas et al. (2017) aimed to reveal pre-service teachers' development of intercultural competence with the help of a longitudinal teaching abroad program. The study showed that pre-service teachers regarded themselves as others in teaching abroad context at the beginning, but their intercultural competence and communication

were enhanced through the program. Furthermore, Gordon and Mwavita (2018) explored the effect of intercultural courses in undergraduate programs on students' intercultural sensitivity scores through pre- and post- tests. The statistical analysis of pre- and post-test revealed that taking an intercultural course did not make any statistically significant difference in students' intercultural sensitivity scores. On the other hand, the study conducted by Huang (2021) revealed that explicit instruction on intercultural themes such as identity, cross-cultural contacts culture, and stereotypes would help foreign language learners to develop their ICC levels. In a similar vein, it was observed that students' intercultural learning and intercultural competence scores improved with the help of internationalized courses and study abroad programs in Sierra-Huedo and Nevado-Llopis's (2022) study. As per the study conducted by Gómez (2018), it was concluded that news article discussions contributed to students' intercultural competence development by offering a critical stance towards intercultural issues. Likewise, Özdemir's (2017) study gathered data through intercultural effectiveness scale revealed that the students in Facebook group discussion improved their scores on intercultural communication effectiveness scale after the implementation of intercultural instruction compared to in-class discussion group.

Second of all, Lantz-Deaton (2017) explored university students' intercultural competence in England through a quantitative inventory. The findings of the study showed that students were at ethnocentric level in terms of developmental levels. In addition, Lei's (2021) study found out pre-service English language teachers' ICC levels were at moderate level, while female students feature higher ICC scores compared to males. Similarly, Pham and Pham's (2022) study showed that university students' ICC scores were not high; however, students in private universities had higher scores compared to public university students. Further, the findings indicated private university students were equipped with more intercultural interaction opportunities and more willing to engage in intercultural communication than public university students.

3.2. Gaining awareness about ICC

The second theme emerged from the data analysis was related to participants' awareness regarding the intercultural communicative competence. The studies in this category displayed the importance of enhancing intercultural competence by helping informants to gain awareness about intercultural issues and topics. To begin with Cheng (2012), EFL teachers' perceptions about intercultural competences showed that teachers became aware of the significance of otherness and cultural topics dealt in textbooks with the help of interviews. Likewise, the study conducted by Gómez (2018) proposed that discussing international news helped English language learners to be intercultural communicators and the findings revealed that news articles helped students to gain critical perspective about cultural and ideological practices by referring to conflicts and comparing other cultures. Furthermore, it was found out that discussing controversial issues such as prejudices, discrimination and racism enhanced English language learners' intercultural understanding and awareness. Another study focusing on improving

intercultural competence awareness revealed two groups of students' intercultural awareness about diversities among home and target cultures (Gutiérrez Almarza et al., 2015). The findings showed that the students in the British university were more aware of cultural differences and similarities in home and host cultures compared to Spanish students. Additionally, the study investigating Korean EFL learners' intercultural competence through participant observations and interviews revealed that EFL learners gain different perspectives and thus enhance their critical cultural awareness while dealing with differences between cultures (Jin, 2015). Furthermore, McKinley et al. (2019) explored the development of intercultural competence in academic staff and postgraduate students with the help of multiple sources of data and the findings reflected that both instructors and students were aware of cultural differences although being aware of these differences did not guarantee intercultural development. According to the study exploring Turkish university students' ICC, students were aware of the importance of ICC since some students favored non-native speakers and cultures along with native cultures. Besides, students agreed that intercultural components and home culture should be included into English language programs. When it comes to the efficiency of preparatory school English program, students remarked that the focus was on the native speakers and culture, and there was not enough stress on intercultural awareness in their classes. Finally, Nguyen's (2021) study also investigated English majors' perceptions about ICC and it was found out that ICC contributed to university students' cultural awareness, critical and communication skills development.

3.3. Factors affecting ICC

The synthesis of the studies revealed that there were some associated factors affecting or concerning intercultural communicative competence. Accordingly, it was observed that internal and personal factors were influential on ICC skills in some of the studies, while some focused on the effects of external and contextual factors on intercultural competence abilities.

Firstly, Bloom and Miranda (2015) suggested that age and proficiency levels were variables which can be associated with students' intercultural sensitivity scores. In addition, the study conducted by Chao (2016) in Taiwanese context intended to analyze non-native English teachers' ICC through self-assessment inventories and interviews. The results of the interviews showed that personal and socio-cultural factors were influential on teachers' ICC. Another study contributing to this theme was Gu's (2016) study and according to findings of this study, some concepts such as personal traits, teaching, experiences, environment and other were detected as external factors affecting intercultural competence of teachers. Additionally, sense of community, interest in culture, and being open to cultural diversities were mentioned as important factors correlated with intercultural competence development of instructors and students in another study by McKinley et al. (2019). Another study also implied that anxiety and perceptions were effective on students' intercultural experiences and intercultural communicative competences (Özdemir, 2017). Similarly, Su (2018) found out that although students had positive attitudes towards intercultural sensitivity, they did not feel confident while

communicating with people from different cultural backgrounds. Besides, the positive correlation between intercultural sensitivity and three variables; namely, students' learning interests towards English, their attitudes towards native English speakers, and ethnocentrism implied that these factors had an effect on participants' intercultural sensitivity levels. Lastly, the study conducted by Yetiş and Kurt (2016) analyzing English, French, and German language teacher candidates' intercultural sensitivity levels in Turkish context indicated that variables such as gender, grade, and language program were influential on participants' intercultural sensitivity.

Secondly, in a case study conducted in Korean context by Kim et al. (2017), the relationship between their intercultural sensitivity and perceptions regarding English as a medium instruction revealed the influence of perceptions on intercultural sensitivity scores. Moreover, the findings of Gordon and Mwavita's (2018) study showed that variables such as age, gender, ethnicity, and parents' cultural background did not significantly affect students' intercultural sensitivity. However, religion, travelling outside the US, studying abroad, and participating in cultural events in campus were the variables which contributed to students' intercultural sensitivity scores. Furthermore, taking many intercultural courses, travelling outside the US, studying abroad, and participating in cultural events in campus were significant predictors of students' intercultural sensitivity scores. In a similar vein, Odağ et al. (2016) investigated undergraduate students' perceptions about intercultural competence in a German international university. The findings of the study put forward that external and internal outcomes, knowledge, attitudes, interpersonal, and intrapersonal skills with their sub-dimensions were five factors referred to by university students to define intercultural competence. In addition, the study focusing on intercultural sensitivity showed that having friends from other cultures, passing a specific exam, and work experience were three individual factors influencing intercultural sensitivity levels of postgraduate students (Zhao, 2018). Huang (2021) also found out that English proficiency and overseas experiences were influential on the development of knowledge and skills components of ICC. Lastly, internationalized courses and study abroad programs were effective on university students' ICC development according to Sierra-Huedo and Nevado-Llopis' (2022) study.

3.4. Practices regarding ICC

There were also some studies dealing with practices used by teachers to assess intercultural communicative competence. To exemplify, Abduh and Rosmaladewi (2018) aimed to reveal strategies used by instructors in bilingual higher education institutions. The findings of the study showed that instructors claimed that they used some strategies to enhance intercultural competence through in-country and overseas immersion programs. While in-country programs included writing and language clubs, overseas immersion programs focused on guiding students to gain intercultural experiences with the help of short, mid or long term study abroad programs. In a similar vein, Gu (2016) implemented a study in higher education context in order to explore the assessment of ICC with the help of a nation-wide project in China. The findings of the study

revealed that EFL teachers were confused about the tools and processes of ICC assessment although they were aware of the importance of assessing ICC. The results also showed that the teachers mostly used traditional ways of assessment and they did not use alternative methods to assess ICC. Another study linked with this theme was implemented by Hauerwas et al. (2017) and the findings of post reflections revealed that pre-service teachers had difficulty in integrating cultural identitiy into their teaching. However, the study conducted by Liu (2021) revealed that using critical-incident technique as a reflective self-assessment tool in terms of assessing ICC would help learners to improve their ICC skills. Huang (2021) underlined that integration of explicit instruction with presentations, text analyses, and videos helped learners to develop their ICC and also to learn about own and other cultures. Lastly, the study conducted by Nguyen (2021) revealed that implementation of project-based assessment enabled learners to develop their ICC skills and cultural knowledge by means of presentations, discussions, problem-solving, critical thinking, and group-working skills.

3.5. Misperceptions about ICC

When it comes to the last theme, it was based on misperceptions about intercultural competence. The studies in this part revealed some contradictions between results and participants' perceptions about their own intercultural competence. To illustrate, Bloom and Miranda (2015) grouped students according to their intercultural experiences, like less and greater experienced students. Then, it was observed that there were some contradictions between students' intercultural sensitivity scores and self-assessment statements according to quantitative and qualitative data. For example, self-assessment of students who had less intercultural experience did not comply with their actual intercultural sensitivity scores. Also, students having more intercultural experiences got lower scores on ethnorelative statements compared to less experienced group according to intercultural sensitivity index results. The findings of the self-assessment inventory in Chao's (2016) study revealed that although teachers had positive attitudes towards ICC, their ICC-oriented teaching practices and self-reported ICC were not in line with each other. It was also found out that non-native English teachers in Taiwan seemed to prioritize the culture of English-speaking countries. Lastly, the data collected through semi-structured interviews in Cheng's (2012) study showed that Taiwanese teachers believed that intercultural competence and globalization were identical terms. Consequently, it was emphasized that teachers did not have deeper understandings regarding intercultural competence and teacher-centred classrooms hindered the development of intercultural competence on the part of learners.

4. Discussion

The systematic review of twenty-five articles revealed that most of the studies focused on assessing university students' ICC perceptions, understandings, and levels. At this point, it can be recommended that further studies can be conducted with the participation different stakeholders along with students. Besides, perceptions of teacher educators and curriculum

developers can be investigated to enhance intercultural communicative competence at each level of educational processes. To illustrate, ICC as a concept should be clarified with the help of administrative support and then available tools, new guidelines, and trainings should be provided as it is proposed by Gu (2016). Additionally, the systematic review study conducted by Iswandari and Ardi (2022) on pre-service and in-service teachers' ICC in EFL settings indicated that the assessment of ICC was a neglected field despite the abundance of the studies focusing on ICC. That is why, it can be suggested that future studies should be conducted in teacher training programs with the integration of different assessment tools and techniques.

As for the techniques and strategies, it was seen that many qualitative and quantitative data collection tools were used to assess intercultural competence with respect to the aims and designs of the studies. In this sense, many scholars referred to different methods and tools to assess intercultural competence (Dervin, 2010; Fantini, 2009; Sercu, 2010). To exemplify, Fantini (2009) emphasized that the needs and objectives of individuals and institutions are at the centre of ICC assessment tools and strategies and these tools differ because of the emergent features of intercultural competence. In this sense, Gordon and Mwavita (2018) claimed that intercultural sensitivity should be measured through qualitative and quantitative methods which require administrators to set clear and achievable goals. At this point, it is possible to see that some researchers favor the use of direct assessment tools (Sinicrope et al., 2007). As it can be inferred from these studies, the use of only one tool or method would not be adequate to assess intercultural competence. Further, Sercu (2010) indicated there was no holistic tool or instrument which could assess all dimensions and components of intercultural communicative competence; therefore, it can be concluded that using various techniques and tools provide rich data on this issue and it is better to collect data from multiple sources of data.

The synthesis of research articles revealed that there were some similarities and differences between studies conducted on the assessment of intercultural communicative competence. According to findings, it was found out that the studies can be grouped under five themes, which were development of ICC, gaining awareness about ICC, factors affecting ICC, practices regarding ICC, and misperceptions about ICC. The initial theme based on the development of ICC levels or scores of participants indicated that some studies made use of pre and post-tests to compare intercultural sensitivity levels (Bloom & Miranda, 2015; Gordon & Mwavita, 2018; Özdemir, 2017). Among these three studies, (Özdemir, 2017) found out that there were significant changes in participants' intercultural effectiveness scores when pre-test and post-test scores were compared, while Bloom and Miranda (2015) and Gordon and Mwavita (2018) did not report any significant change in students' intercultural sensitivity scores. At this point, Bloom and Miranda (2015) concluded that a short time study abroad program did not have much influence on students' intercultural sensitivity and individuals' personal experiences affected their scores, which can be connected to the influence of another theme; namely, factors affecting ICC. Further, some studies (Gómez, 2018; Hauerwas et al., 2017; Liu, 2021) emphasized the positive effects of discussions, study abroad programs and critical-incidents

respectively on the development of ICC. However, according to Lantz-Deaton (2017), students' intercultural sensitivity scores at ethnocentric level suggested that longitudinal studies assessing students' intercultural competences with interventions and control groups were needed. Also, it was highlighted that universities should include practical implementations to enhance intercultural competence development. In parallel with this, Altuğ et al. (2019) recommended implementing longitudinal and observational research studies to explore learners' perceptions about ICC.

The second theme emerged from the data was awareness of participants about ICC. To begin with the tools or environments which enhance intercultural competence of learners, Gómez (2018) underlined the contribution of intercultural news articles by claiming that article discussions improved learners' knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are critical components of intercultural communicative competence. Similarly, Jin (2015) revealed the effect of Facebook interactions on students' ICC development. Therefore, the study offered a novel way to enhance intercultural competence through online tools for future studies. Moreover, the study conducted by Cheng (2012) referred to the role of textbooks to enhance intercultural competence. Based on the findings of the study, Zhao (2018) suggested that there was a need for intercultural competence courses which put emphasis on global issues and intercultural awareness. On the one hand, these aforementioned studies focused on gaining awareness about intercultural competence. On the other hand, the studies of McKinley et al. (2019) and Mutlu and Dollar (2017) revealed that raising awareness among students was not enough by itself to support the development of intercultural competence. In this sense, providing opportunities for students to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds could help fostering intercultural competence. Likewise, Zhao (2018) claimed students should be provided with opportunities which enhance intercultural communication. Furthermore, it was suggested that curricula should be designed according to changing nature of students' attitudes and also some tools should be integrated into study abroad programmes in order to enhance students' awareness (Gutiérrez Almarza et al., 2015). At this point another study implied that other cultures should be introduced to students by teachers or instructors who are self-reflective and aware of multicultural differences (Gordon & Mwavita, 2018). In this regard, Pinzón (2020) claimed that integrating real-life situations and making use of authentic and culture-related materials would help learners to improve their ICC skills. She also suggested English language teachers to support students' professional and personal development by making connections between culture and the target language through the use of authentic materials. In a similar vein, Munezane (2021) asserted that increasing students' motivation through confidence-boosting activities and designing tasks to support learners' willingness to communicate would contribute to their ICC development. He also recommended teachers to make use of intercultural pragmatics and nonverbal communication strategies to reinforce students' ICC abilities. According to these suggestions and implications, it would not be wrong to conclude that raising awareness among teachers and students could the first step of enhancing intercultural

communicative competence, but it should be supported by all stakeholders with further attempts.

The next theme dealt with ICC assessment in terms of influential or interrelated factors affecting ICC. This theme was linked with most of the studies through personal, social or cultural variables. It was also possible to observe the effects of either internal or external factors on participants' intercultural competence. In terms of personal factors, it was observed that confidence was an influential element which enhances or hinders intercultural communication. To exemplify, due to students' lack of confidence, Su (2018) provided some suggestions for teachers to design international curriculums which help learners to develop confidence to be able to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds. In this sense, Zhao (2018) recommended that English teaching methods and activities should be designed by taking intercultural communication into consideration. However, in Chao's (2016) study, non-native English teachers' self-confidence to interact with host culture could be regarded as a positive factor affecting ICC development. As per gender variable, the study conducted by Gordon and Mwavita (2018) revealed that it was not an influential factor on students' intercultural sensitivity scores. On the contrary, one study found out that gender affected intercultural sensitivity scores of teacher candidates (Yetiş & Kurt, 2016). Based on these results in relation to gender, it can be claimed that the differences in females and males' intercultural sensitivity scores can be adhered to objectives and needs of individuals. Actually, it can be inferred that various factors associated with the enhancement of ICC were dependent on many different reasons such as context, individuals, time, and so forth. Therefore, it was reasonable to come across with many factors, components and elements affecting intercultural communicative competence directly or indirectly.

Another theme focused on practices implemented by teachers and teacher candidates to enhance ICC. In this regard, the use of critical incidents with the purpose of improving students' ICC was recommended by Liu (2021). In a similar vein, Harsch and Poehner (2016) claimed making use of dynamic assessment approach with the combination of critical incidents would be beneficial for learners' intercultural development. Further, the findings of three studies (Abduh & Rosmaladewi, 2018; Gu, 2016; Hauerwas, et al., 2017) underscored the importance of guiding students to become intercultural communicators and to gain intercultural experiences. Sercu (2010) also suggested that ICC was necessary to observe the influences of teaching on learners. In this regard, language teachers, curriculum designers, and teacher educators play important roles, to keep record of positive or negative effects of these programs. Therefore, Garcia (2022) stressed the importance of integrating ICC into language teacher training programs with the intention of equipping pre-service language teachers with the necessary pedagogical and content skills regarding teaching. In this sense, it was recommended to evaluate other language policies, course syllabi, and learning materials to understand how to integrate ICC into the processes of syllabus design and materials development in language teaching (Garcia, 2022; Lei, 2021). Hence, it can be claimed that more studies should focus on

intercultural competence assessment to see both short and long term effects of intercultural experiences on students. At this point, it was seen that study abroad programs, reflective practices, intercultural communicative competence trainings, and interventions would enable learners to improve their ICC (Sierra-Huedo & Nevado-Llopis, 2022). Accordingly, study abroad programs come to the fore as crucial supporters of language learning. In this regard, Altuğ et al. (2019) found out students participating in an exchange program had more positive attitudes towards ICC and their ICC scores were higher than the students who did not have any Erasmus experience.

Nguyen (2021) also proposed that teachers should design their teaching plans and lessons in accordance with intercultural communicative competence practices, students' needs, and teaching content. It was also recommended to integrate problem solving skills, real-life situations, and cultural exchanges through virtual classrooms or video calls into language teaching contexts. Additionally, some suggestions such as joining culture clubs and virtual or real field trips were provided for students to improve their ICC. Besides, it was seen that many studies dealt with development of intercultural development concerning language learning perspective as it was the case in two studies (Bloom & Miranda, 2015; Gutiérrez et al., 2015), but fostering intercultural in teaching was as important as intercultural competence development in learning. In this regard, according to Chao (2016), it is important to integrate intercultural perspectives to English curriculum, and assessment of ICC should be an integral part of teacher education programs. In addition, the study conducted by Hauerwas et al. (2017) was a good example showing the difficulties encountered by pre-service teachers in this process. The study also showed that pre-service teachers felt empathy for students during teaching experiences when they became aware of the cultural differences influencing classroom practices; thus, this theme can be associated with the necessity of another theme, which is gaining awareness about ICC. For that reason, there is a need for conducting more studies exploring perspectives and perceptions of pre-service, in-service, and experienced teachers to reflect on the role of study abroad programs on teaching practices. In order to achieve this aim, needs analysis can be regarded as a way of enhancing intercultural competence on the part of teachers to serve for their professional development.

The last worth mentioning theme regarding assessment of ICC according to main study findings was the contradictions between participants' self- assessment and study results. In this sense, the studies conducted by Bloom and Miranda (2015), Chao (2016) and Cheng (2012) displayed the controversial results based on participants' own assessment and their intercultural competence scores and levels. In line with these study results, Sinicrope et al. (2007) drew attention to the contradictions between actual performances and perceptions about intercultural competence as well. As it can be understood from these study results, sometimes collecting data through only one instrument may not be enough or it may cause misinterpretations. That is why the use both direct and indirect methods by combining qualitative and quantitative designs can be one of the implications of this review study. In this regard, Kömür and Akdoğan (2021)

remarked that using only one tool or instrument would not be enough to assess ICC; therefore, the assessment of interculturality should be based on process-oriented tools and context. They also suggested that interviews, observations, logs, portfolios, and performative tasks could ensure comprehensive and multidimensional assessment of ICC. In this vein, Zheng (2014) noted that ICC was not assessed comprehensively because it was defined in many different ways. Therefore, he proposed to assess ICC by referring to both formative and summative methods such as portfolio assessment, performance evaluation, and written tests.

5. Conclusion

The present study aimed to provide a systematic review of up-to-date and empirical research articles on the assessment of ICC. Following the procedures of thematic analysis, the findings of these studies were gathered around five main themes. Accordingly, it was concluded that the aims, designs and tools used in all these studies depended on the approaches and techniques adopted by researchers. It was also inferred curriculum objectives and available sources could change the way of assessing ICC. As a result, it did not seem possible to reach a consensus on the assessment of ICC. Concerning the limitations of this study, it was limited to the revision of twenty-five articles in higher education contexts; therefore, further studies can be conducted by referring to the primary, secondary and high school contexts. In addition, this study reviewed the studies assessing ICC through different methods and designs. However, further studies can also focus on particular assessment tools or methods in relation to specific conceptual frameworks such as synthesizing the studies conducted through intercultural sensitivity scales by referring to developmental models built in this regard.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The list of journals used in the systematic review

Journal	Frequency	Author(s)
Language and Intercultural Communication	3	Bloom & Miranda (2015)
		Gu (2016)
		McKinley, Dunworth, Grimshaw & Iwaniec (2019)
Journal of Studies in International Education	2	Kim, Choi and Tatar (2017)
		Odağ, Wallin & Kedzior (2016)
Taiwan Journal of TESOL	2	Chao (2016)
		Liu (2021)
Computer Assisted Language Learning	1	Özdemir (2017)
Educare Electronic Journal	1	Sierra-Huedo & Nevado-Llopis (2022)
Educational Research and Reviews	1	Yetiş & Kurt (2016)
English Language Teaching	1	Lei (2021)
English Teaching: Practice and Critique	1	Cheng (2012)
European Journal of Educational Research	1	Nguyen (2021)
Gist Education and Learning Research Journal	1	Gómez (2018)
Higher Education Studies	1	Zhao (2018)
Intercultural Education	1	Gutiérrez Almarza, Durán Martínez &Beltrán Llavador (2015)
International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction	1	Mutlu & Dollar (2017)
International Journal of Intercultural Relations	1	Huang (2021)
Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies	1	Pham & Pham (2022)
Language Learning and Technology	1	Jin (2015)
Sage Open	1	Abduh & Rosmaladewi (2018)
Studies in Educational Evaluation	1	Gordon & Mwavita (2018)
Teaching and Teacher Education	1	Hauerwas, Skawinski & Ryan (2017)
Teaching in Higher Education	1	Lantz-Deaton (2017)
The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher	1	Su (2018)

Appendix B: Articles included in the systematic review on ICC assessment

Author(s)	Aim	Participants	Design	Technique(s) & Tool(s)
Abduh & Rosmaladewi (2018)	to explore IC perceptions and strategies ofteachers in Indonesian higher education context	8 teachers in Indonesia	Qualitative (case study)	semi-structured interviews
Bloom & Miranda (2015)	to explore IS development of learners through a four-week study abroad program	12 undergraduate and graduate students inSpain	Mixed-method	Intercultural Sensitivity Index (ISI) and self-assessment questions
Chao (2016)	to explore attitudes and perspectives related to ICC	356 teachers in Taiwan	Qualitative	self-assessment inventories and interviews
Cheng (2012)	to explore EFL teachers' understandings regarding IC and their pedagogicalpractices in language classroom	5 EFL teachers in Taiwan	Qualitative	interviews and teaching materials
Gómez (2018)	to investigate the contribution of international news to ICC development	4 Colombian EFL learners	Qualitative (case study)	questionnaire, artifacts and field notes
Gordon & Mwavita (2018)	to see the effect of intercultural courses in undergraduate programs in terms of students' intercultural sensitivity	259 USuniversity students	Quantitative	Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS)
Gu (2016)	to assess ICC with the help of a nation-wide project	1170 Chinese EFL teachers	Qualitative	nation-wide survey
Gutiérrez Almarza, et al. (2015)	to explore ICC of university students	55 British and Spanish university students	Mixed-method	pre and post questionnaires, blogs and interviews

Hauerwas, et al., (2017)	to determine pre-service teachers' IC development	9 pre-service students in Italy	Qualitative (case study)	written reflections, focus groups and prompts
Huang (2021)	to explore the effect of explicit instruction on learners' ICC	54 Taiwanese English-major students	Mixed-method	self-assessment tool-questionnaire and video task
Jin (2015)	to understand the benefits of Facebook intercultural exchanges in terms of IC	32 EFL students at a Korean university	Qualitative (ethnography)	online tasks, participant observations and interviews
Kim, et al. (2017)	to explore IS of international students and to reveal the relationship between EMI and IS	213 college students in Korea	Qualitative (case study)	questionnaires and interviews
Lantz-Deaton (2017)	to explore students' intercultural experiences and to assess their IC	122 first year UK and non-UK university students	Mixed-method	Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) and Intercultural Experiences Questionnaire (IEQ)
Lei (2021)	to explore ICC levels of pre-service teachers	186 pre-service English teachers	Quantitative	Intercultural Communication Competence Self Rating Scale (ICCSRS)
Liu (2021)	to examine a pedagogy of using a critical incidents-based method to teach and assess intercultural learning	19 non-English majors	Qualitative (The Critical Incident Technique - CIT)	student-authored critical incidents, reflection, and interviews
McKinley, et al. (2019)	to explore UK students' experiences and perceptions regarding their IC development	24 international postgraduate students and 8 academic staff in the UK	Qualitative (multiple case design)	observations, preliminary and focus group interviews

Mutlu & Dollar (2017)	to reveal English language learners' perceptions about IC	93 preparatory school students in Turkey	Mixed-method	interviews and surveys
Nguyen (2021)		124 English major students and 36 EFL teachers from Vietnam, Thailand and Malaysia	Mixed-method	assessment project, questionnaires and interviews
Odağ, et al. (2016)	to determine how international students define IC	130 German undergraduate students	Qualitative	short responses to a written question
Özdemir (2017)	to explore ICC development of language learners through Facebook to improve IC effectiveness	40 first year ELT students in Turkey	Mixed-method	Facebook discussions, interviews and Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES)
Pham & Pham (2022)	to measure development of IC by means of courses and study abroad programs	14 university students	Mixed-method	Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) and interviews
Sierra-Huedo & Nevado-Llopis (2022)	to explore ICC levels of university students	336 university students	Quantitative Descriptive	questionnaire
Su (2018)	to assess IS, to see the relationship between IS and variables, to determine the predictors of IS	1191 college studentsin Taiwan	Quantitative	ISS, General Ethnocentrism Scale and Motivation Test Battery
Yetiş & Kurt (2016)	to explore IS scores of foreign language prospective teachers	1.049 English, French and German teacher candidates in Turkey	Quantitative	survey, ISS
Zhao (2018)	to discover IS levels and to explore factors affecting IS scores	102 postgraduates majoring in English	Quantitative	ISS

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A SYSTEMATIC SYNTHESIS OF THE ACADEMIC STUDIES THAT EXAMINED THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE SPEAKING ANXIETY

Namık Ülkersoy

Basri Şimşek

1. Introduction

To date, a wide variety of definitions emphasizing different features of language have been made. According to great philosopher Plato:

> Language is an aspect of man, of nature, and of nations, the transfiguration of the world in thought, the meeting-point of the physical and mental sciences, and also the mirror in which they are reflected, present at every moment to the individual, and yet having a sort of eternal or universal nature (Jowett, 2008).

The more enhanced the communication among people has been the smaller our world has become, by this way language has been a meeting point not only in physical and spiritual sciences, as Plato emphasized, but also in every aspect of life. The new age that is called 'communication age' brought new necessities with itself. One of the most important of them was a common language which connects people from different parts of the world. Meanwhile, the process of English language conquering many areas of life, such as politics, art, sports, popular culture, and economy, has been going on slowly but surely for two centuries. Thus, the common language that people from different countries need for cooperation was presented to the service of modern people on a golden platter. Graddol (2006) states that more globalization means more use of English and more use of English means more globalization. Nevertheless, the only problem now was how to effectively teach this language to the youth, who were seen as the future minds of countries, in order not to fall behind the times. Here, linguists stepped in and began to develop theories on how to learn the language most effectively. Studies that started with the Grammar-Translation Method, which has been used in Latin and Greek teaching for centuries in Europe at the beginning of the 20th century, still continue on its way by changing the winds and sands (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). It is unthinkable for language teachers to escape from this change while even languages themselves cannot escape from it.

As a matter of fact, the main reason for these changes in the English teaching tradition is the student's needs, namely what the government as the main decision-maker on education expects from them. Thus, in order to teach a foreign language, in different phases of history, different methods have been tried. Turning its direction to the West after the proclamation of the Republic, Turkey took its place in the Kachru's third circle, which Kachru (1992) calls it as the 'expanding circle', by starting to teach her students the Western languages; English, German and French instead of the Eastern languages; Arabic and Persian, with her new education law and modern schools.

Actually, speaking has been considered the most difficult part of the puzzle in skill learning by most people for many reasons. As Pinter (2006) stresses:

> This is because to be able to speak fluently, we have to speak and think at the same time. As we speak, we have to monitor our output and correct any mistakes, as well as planning for what we are going to say next (p. 55).

Further studies on this subject indicate that there are many affective factors that create anxiety and prevent students from speaking English inside and outside the classroom. Anxiety is seen as a character of Neuroticism (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The increase in studies on anxiety in Turkey and in the world shows that anxiety is a notion that attracts constant attention in second language studies and this trend is not likely to change in the future. Anxiety is seen as a key component of the Neuroticism/Emotional Stability dimension of the Big Five personality model by Norman (1963) and Goldberg (1981). In addition, Gray (1982) has stated there is no doubt that anxiety is an emotion, but when one reads the abundance of studies on anxiety and the work of psychologists, one may doubt whether it is the only emotion in our thought system.

Besides, a great amount of evidence shows that high levels of language anxiety decrease the language achievement (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). When the personal experiments on SLA processes are taken into consideration with the effect of anxiety, it might be difficult to remember what has been learned since one might be disconnected from the context and get exposed to similar problems for proper communication. Instead of meeting urgent communication needs, the brain tries to handle the problems that anxiety creates. It has been determined that anxiety arising from many factors manifests itself at different levels and stages and causes people to temporarily or permanently quit their language learning (Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009).

Furthermore, anxiety has been seen a worthwhile concept to study on the L2 area especially for the last decade in Turkey with regard to its harmful consequences. In spite of the fact that anxiety is mostly mentioned with its potentially damaging consequences, some researchers claim that the overall consequence of being anxious might really be useful, especially at milder levels, since an increase in effort is an urgent response to anxiety (MacIntyre, 2002). In a different study focused on the same issues, Jean-Marc Dewaele and Peter MacIntyre's (2014) findings have revealed that low level of anxiety does not necessarily mean high level of fulfillment.

On the other hand, Horwitz et al. (1986) described the anxiety in L2 as foreign language anxiety and to measure the level of it, they also developed a 33-item, 5-point Likert-scale type instrument, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS hereafter). According to MacIntyre (1999, p. 27) anxiety is the "worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language". From this definition, it can be deduced that anxiety is a personal trait and manifests itself at various stages of language learning. Lotherington (2007) proposes some tools like print-oriented writing conventions to reduce the anxiety of the language learners who do not feel themselves ready to talk in synchronous environments. By providing a stress-free environment for practicing conversational English, such a tool helps language learners.

Accordingly, a significant increase has been observed in studies on speaking anxiety in Turkey in recent years. However, the independent evaluation of these studies, which differ in their types, objectives, participants, target groups, and academic levels despite being on the same subject, prevents us from seeing the big picture and thus obtains accurate, comprehensive and consistent information about speaking anxiety. If a systematic analysis of these studies is put forward, on the one hand it will serve as a practical resource for the relevant researchers. On the other hand, all stakeholders also will benefit from it. In the light of what is mentioned above, this study aims to conduct a systematic qualitative synthesis of the studies conducted in Turkey that examined the speaking anxiety in L2.

2. Studies Conducted on Types of Anxiety

Speaking anxiety, being one of the most important obstacles in front of foreign language learning, a considerable number of researchers have conducted studies on the subject. To investigate the phenomena from different perspectives, they have tried to understand its causes by shedding light and collecting data on speech anxiety.

In this section, the literature on foreign language speaking anxiety (hereafter it will be mentioned as FLSA) is reviewed. In the first instance, the necessary definitions related to the topic and the types of anxiety are explained. Then, the causes and effects of foreign language anxiety are discussed. Lastly, the FLSA is reviewed, with particular emphasis on its sources and recommendations for reducing it.

2.1. Anxiety

Anxiety is described in Encyclopedia Britannica as, "a feeling of dread, fear, or apprehension, often with no clear justification". According to Austrian neurologist Sigmund Freud; "anxiety is the symptomatic expression of the inner emotional conflict caused when a person suppresses (from conscious awareness) experiences, feelings, or impulses that are too threatening or disturbing to live with" (Encyclopedia Britannica).

Since the second half of 20th century, anxiety has been studied by many researchers in the field of psychology intensively. Spielberger (1966) states that Sigmund Freud was the pioneer of scientists trying to understand the importance of anxiety in psychology. When Freud's definition is examined, firstly it can be understood that anxiety is a symptomatic expression. Thus, when it is expressed by a person it also consists of some symptoms. Freud differentiates them from anger, grief and sorrow by explaining these symptoms as rapid heart rate, difficulty in breathing, sweating, shuddering, vertigo, and feeling nervous, weak or tired (Freud, 1936, as cited in Spielberger, 1966). Secondly, Freud argued that these symptoms are the off-springs of inner emotional conflict. Hence, it can be said that as an abstract concept, the conflict which is experienced by a person inside his mind reflects outside as some physical concrete symptoms.

According to Geçtan (1998), anxiety occurs when the ego faces any danger or threat. These threat situations might be classified firstly as fear caused by an unsettling sensation brought

about by the knowledge of a potentially dangerous situation in the outside world. The anxious situation sourced by fear is called 'reality anxiety'. Second, there is a fear of conflicting with the moral ideals of the general population, which is called 'moral anxiety'. The third is a fear which is called 'neurotic anxiety' that is aroused when the ego loses its control over the instincts' sudden desire.

While Hall (1955) describes anxiety as the physiological reactions of the human body that are governed by the autonomic nervous system and triggered by a potential danger, Shri (2010) sees it normal, emotional, reasonable and expected response of the mind and body. Therefore, it is inevitable to experience a certain level of anxiety by people in their daily life. As a matter of fact, the level of anxiety determines our behaviors to certain situation. On the other hand, the World Health Organization (WHO, 2009) gives some kind of physical indications of anxious individuals such as shortness of breath, headache, fatigue, chest pain, increased heartbeat and sweaty palms. That's why people who experienced anxiety in the past tend to stay away from same kind of situations (Barker, 2003).

2.2. Trait, state and situation specific anxiety

Anxiety has been investigated from different perspectives by researchers for a long time. As a result of these researches, they commonly agreed to classify the types of anxiety as trait, state and situation specific anxiety. If a person tends to become anxious in every different situation, it is described as trait anxiety (Pappamihiel, 2002). Without having a specific reason, these kinds of people experience anxiety in any situation that they encounter. People who have trait anxiety or structural anxiety not only experience negative feelings such as fear and worry in almost any situation, but also they experience same feelings by explaining and reporting these situations (Gidron, 2013). Apart from this, Riasati (2011) has argued that as soon as trait anxiety is related to the learning process, this situation which might be positive at the same time prevents students from learning a language if that person cannot overcome their anxiety.

Contrary to trait anxiety, state anxiety occurs when the individual feels the situation is dangerous or threatening. Spielberger (1983) and Pappamihiel (2002) describe it as the tendency to be anxious in specific situations at a certain moment. Moreover, Riasati (2011) builds a relationship between language learners' reluctance to speaking with state anxiety and he argues that if this situation might be directed with a logical way state anxiety that individuals have might be beneficial for them. Apart from them, Keramida and Tsiplakides (2009) maintain that state anxiety is a social type of anxiety that is specific to certain situations but trait anxiety is a universal type of anxiety because it is free from any condition. In addition, Wiedemann (2015) states that changing from person to person in terms of duration, level, and repetition, every human being may have state anxiety more or less.

On the other hand, situation specific anxiety is deeply connected with specific conditions (Aida, 1994 & Young, 1991). The effects of a special situation may lead to this anxiety, that is, it occurs only in a certain condition such as giving a speech in front of the classroom (MacIntyre

& Gardner, 1991). Furthermore, Horwitz et al. (1986) underline that situation specific anxiety should be treated differently from the other types of anxiety and seen as a distinguishing phenomenon from other theoretical worries. On grounds that second language learning is a specific kind of condition, it has also been approached as a situation specific anxiety by some researchers (Price, 1991 & Young, 1991).

2.3. Facilitating and debilitating anxiety

Although anxiety is generally considered a mental disorder and may seem like an unwanted feeling, it can sometimes be beneficial. For instance, Alpert and Haber (1960) differentiate them as while facilitating anxiety encourages people to overcome a problem or to manage something, debilitating anxiety suppresses them from learning something new. Additionally, Scovel (1978) suggests "facilitating and hindering" anxiety types depending on the effects of anxiety on learning and performance, and thus while facilitating anxiety leads to struggle and "approach behavior", inhibitory anxiety is referred to "avoidance behavior" in new learning environments. As a result, it is the level of anxiety that determines facilitating or debilitating learning in a person. Even though the same task can be easily accomplished by a person who is moderately anxious, a highly anxious person might experience great difficulty to do it. Accordingly, Krashen (1982) in his "Affective Filter Hypothesis" maintains that some emotional variables such as motivation, confidence, and anxiety facilitate L2 acquisition. He also states that low anxiety is helpful to a great degree in succeeding in L2 acquisition for students.

According to descriptions mentioned earlier, it is expected that there is a positive and negative correlation between facilitating and debilitating anxiety in terms of performance and learning. Indeed, facilitating anxiety enhances students' performance by paying their attention to ongoing situation, and engaging them to the learning process (Kleinmann, 1977 & Scovel, 1978). Furthermore, some of the researchers have discovered that the students with facilitating anxiety show better performance than other students (Eysenck, 1979 & Kleinmann, 1977). In addition, Moyer (2008) who has compared students with facilitating anxiety and students with debilitating anxiety in his study discovered that the latter group made more errors than the former group.

Apart from this, Scovel (1991) indicates that both anxieties work in a harmony, while facilitating anxiety motivates the learner, debilitating anxiety makes the learners become aware of a new or changing issue in the learning environment. In a like manner, Horwitz et al (1986) have maintained that whether facilitating anxiety is beneficial for language learning depends on the task difficulty level and its contribution to the learning is not sufficient. In a similar way, Price (1991) stressed that while the facilitating anxiety helps the students to show a good performance during the course, this performance does not transform a better outcome at the end.

3. Anxiety in Foreign Language Learning

One of the reasons why anxiety in foreign language learning has gained popularity among scholars in recent years is that it has been viewed as an effective source behind language learning achievement, especially in skill learning (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Actually, Horwitz et al. (1986) are the pioneers of anxiety-related studies in foreign language learning. According to them, anxiety is caused by learners' negative feelings toward foreign language and three main sources of foreign language anxiety are fear of communication, fear of test and fear of negative evaluation. The psychological and physical symptoms that the anxious learners have are "perspiring, palpations, trembling, tenseness, and sleep disturbances". Foreign language classes are at the leading position in which anxiety is felt most intensely (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Apart from that, Woodrow (2006) has explained that learners react to anxiety in two different ways: cognitive reaction involves factors such as worrying and physiological reaction involves any emotional reflection that hinders communication significantly. It is claimed that the anxiety is deeply related to the context in second language learning such as speaking (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). In line with these researchers, Young (1991) has argued that anxiety is context-specific and it has many characteristics of language learners such as personality and community that they belong to.

Even though some of the learners have great amount of knowledge about the foreign language they are learning, they experience a significant amount of difficulty to use that knowledge because of the anxiety which effects their performance in language learning. Furthermore, high level of anxiety could debilitate the learners' success in second language learning and it has been put forward by related studies in the area that there is negative correlation between SLA and high level of anxiety (Aida, 1994; Foss & Reitzel, 1988; Gardner et al., 1976; McCoy, 1976; Philips, 1992; Wilson, 2006; Woodrow, 2006).

3.1. Foreign language speaking anxiety

Speaking is a productive skill through which people convey their messages, exchange information and express their feelings by producing verbal utterances (Nunan, 2003). It can be said that the ultimate aim of language learning is producing something in that language. As a matter of fact, one of the main indications that shows a person has efficiency in that language is speaking ability. Moreover, through communication, a message can be conveyed directly. Therefore, speaking skill has gained a great deal of importance in language learning. For the same reason, students might feel anxious, since speaking demands to think and speak simultaneously (Pinter, 2006). These physical and mental processes include to pay attention to context, grammar, pronunciation, intonation, stress, rhythm, vocabulary, syntax, self-error analysis etc. That is why, this complex system of language and socio-cultural rules may prevent learner from communicating effectively. Indeed, when Young (1991) has interviewed some of the specialists in language learning, he has discovered that speaking is the main anxiety-creating

activity and this view has been supported by other researchers (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner 1991; Wilson, 2006; Woodrow, 2006).

From a different perspective, studies have shown while anxious learners have developed a negative attitude towards foreign language classes, they remain uninterested during the lesson and more importantly they also skip the class entirely (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Philips, 1992). Moreover, FLSA may result in reluctant learners, who do not want to participate in speaking activities and the tasks that need to use communication skills (Bekleyen, 2009). Furthermore, Horwitz et al. (1986) stated that the anxious learners lose their interest in the lesson and they do not care about being prepared for the class. On the contrary, they wish to drop out of the class. For this reason, students who suffer from anxiety experienced difficulty in reaching and using the information in their memory. Therefore, they make great effort to deal with this problem (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

The physical symptoms of speaking anxiety reveal itself as sadness, anger, fear, a rapid heartbeat and sweating (Demir & Melanlıoğlu, 2014). From another perspective, Price (1991) states that one of the main reasons leading to speaking anxiety is error in pronunciation. Moreover, speaking also demands you to complete the task understandably in a short time. Even so, beforehand preparation and being familiar with the topic are the factors that affect speaking anxiety negatively (Ay, 2010). It can be concluded that speaking as a complex skill in language learning plays an important role in foreign language anxiety.

In a nut shell, anxiety is a symptomatic expression caused by threatening or a disturbing situation. There are three types of anxiety; trait, state and situation specific anxiety. FLSA has been categorized under the situation specific anxiety by some researchers. Although anxiety is approached mainly as a mental disorder and an unwanted feeling, to a certain degree, it might be beneficial. Anxiety is caused by learners' negative attitudes toward foreign language. Speaking anxiety is a natural phenomenon which is felt by learners in foreign language learning process. Independent of the nationality, first language, gender or other variables it is experienced by all learners to a certain degree. Finding out its reasons would be a great step to prevent its devastating effects to language learners.

With regard to its negative consequences, anxiety has been regarded as a concept worth studying among L2 researchers. Therefore, a significant increase has been observed in studies on speaking anxiety in recent years. However, since the number of qualitative studies is quite limited, their contribution to clarify the subject is not sufficient. On the other hand, the findings obtained from quantitative studies are inadequate to gain a perspective for an in depth understanding of the subject. If a deep understanding of the sources of speaking anxiety is gained and systematic analysis of it is put forward, on the one hand, it will serve as a practical resource for the relevant researchers, on the other hand all stakeholders also could benefit from it. In the light of the reasons mentioned above, this study aims to conduct a systematic

qualitative synthesis of the studies made in Turkey that examine foreign language speaking anxiety in L2.

In the light of the literature on the FLSA, our goal is to identify the characteristics of the theses conducted in Turkey about foreign language speaking anxiety. In order to gain deeper understanding and to analyze qualitative data collected from 47 researches on speaking anxiety, the systematic review method is employed to examine the studies deeply. Systematic review is used to see the findings of the original studies from different perspectives and to produce an initial synthesis of the findings to some extent in the included studies (Hanley & Winter, 2013). On the other hand, Petticrew and Roberts (2006) describe systematic review as: "At its core, a systematic review is a method of critically appraising, summarizing and attempting to reconcile the evidence" (p. 15). The review was conducted in five steps in the light of the definition by Gough et al. (2013). In the first step, a specific need is determined after the literature review. Second, the research question is formulated in terms of the method to be followed and the answers to be sought. Third, to choose the researches which are relevant to the subject, inclusion-exclusion criterion is determined and during this process a screening formation has been adapted. After that, the researches have been coded and described in maps. In the last step, a synthesis of the researches is made according to their findings in an integrative way instead of forming a list.

An inclusion-exclusion criterion is formulated to reach optimal number of studies. To narrow down the studies, firstly the keywords are determined. While searching, keeping the aim in mind, following key terms related to FLSA are used; 'anxiety', 'speaking anxiety', 'foreign language anxiety', 'foreign language speaking anxiety', 'FLSA', 'FLCAS' and 'EFL speaking anxiety.' After determining the key words, an online search at the Council of Higher Education Thesis Center official website has been conducted.

Specifically, the studies including following criteria were taken into consideration;

1. The ones that focused on English speaking anxiety,

2. MA theses or PhD. dissertations,

3. The ones conducted in Turkey,

4. The ones related to educational science,

5. The ones published between the years 2000-2022

After the first internet research, 71 publications have been found. To adopt the inclusion-exclusion criterion, full-texts of studies have been downloaded and grouped in an excel page under the certain titles such as aim, participants, methodology, data collection tools, year and so on. Regarding the criteria mentioned above, some studies have been excluded and the others have been included. After this process, the number of studies has been reduced to 47.

4. Results of the Studies Conducted on FLSA

The academic studies conducted in Turkey on FLSA that had been examined within the scope of this project consist of 47 MA theses and doctoral dissertations.

4.1. The studies examined in terms of dates

In this section, the studies' distribution of years is investigated. 47 studies which focused on FLSA have been conducted between 2000 and 2022. Graphic 1 and Table 1 show the outcomes of this distribution.

Table 1. Distribution of studies according to years

Year	Frequency	Percentage (%)
2003	1	2,13
2008	1	2,13
2009	1	2,13
2011	1	2,13
2012	2	4,26
2014	5	10,64
2015	1	2,13
2016	2	4,26
2017	2	4,26
2018	6	12,77
2019	14	29,79
2020	6	12,77
2021	5	10,64
Total	47	100,00
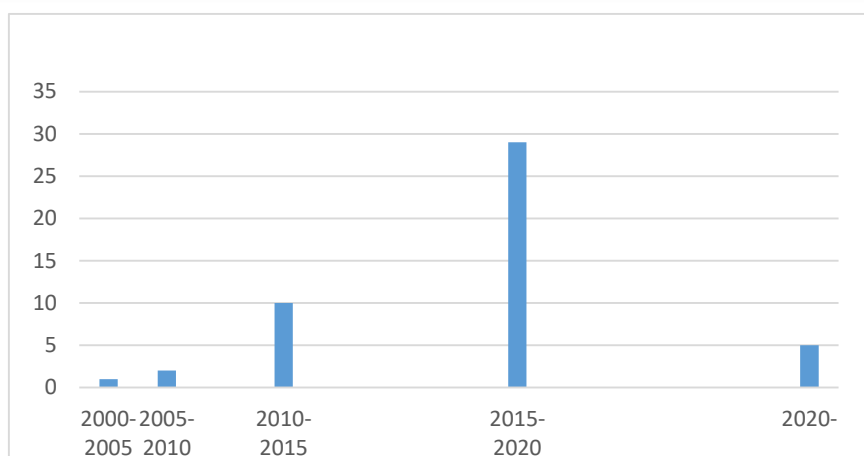
Graphic 1. Distribution of studies according to years

Table 1 and Graphic 1 display that at the beginning of the last decade, the number of the researches shows an increase and reaches its peak between 2015 and 2020. Almost %30 percent of all studies were conducted in 2019. However, between the years 2003 and 2008 the subject matter had not interested any researchers. We expect that the increase will keep its pace in the current decade.

4.2. The studies in terms of types of analysis

The results of the studies regarding types of analysis are given in Graphic 2.
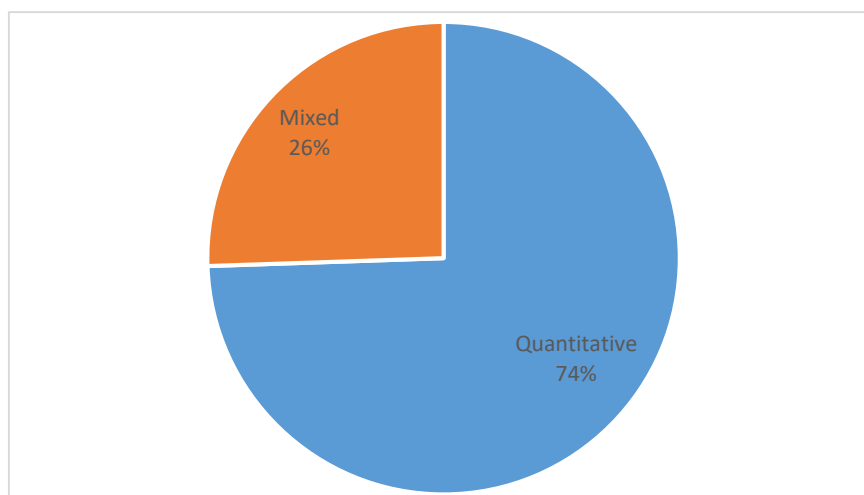
Graphic 2. Number of studies by types of analysis

As it can be seen in Graphic 2, all of the theses and dissertations which have been taken into consideration in this study have been conducted either quantitatively or mixed. Graphic 2 clearly indicates that no researcher has preferred to conduct only-qualitative type of study. While quantitative publications make up three-quarters of all research, this ratio leaves the remaining quarter to mixed studies.

4.3. The studies in terms of academic level

The studies are analyzed in terms of academic level and the findings are given in the graphic below.
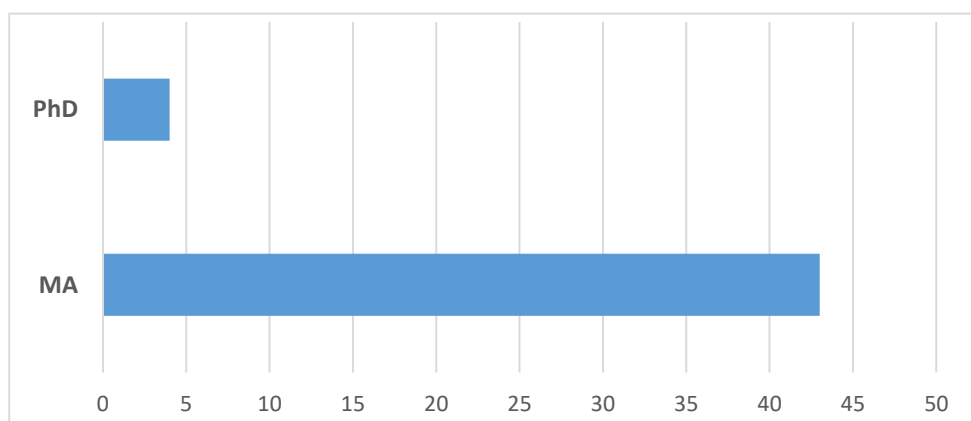
Graphic 3. Number of publication by academic level

Graphic 3 shows the number of PhD dissertations and MA theses. As the Graphic shows MA theses make up more than %90 percent of all publications. If the dates of researches are taken into consideration, it is likely that in a near future an increase in the number of both groups is likely to occur in the near future.

4.4. The studies in terms of sample

After analyzing studies in terms of sample, it was found that they are grouped under six titles. The results are given at the Graphic 4.
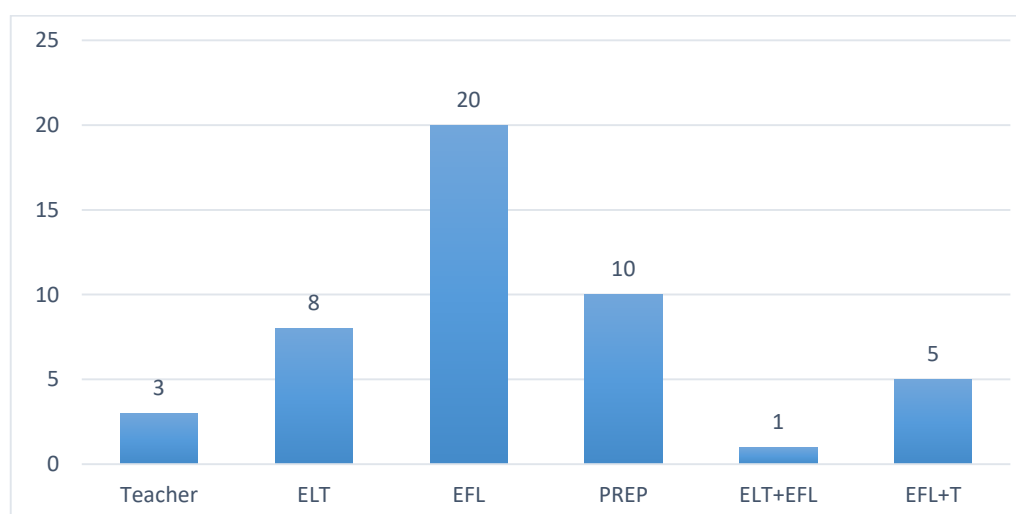
Graphic 4. Number of publications by sample

The graphic shows while a great majority of studies related to FLSA have been conducted for students, among them, English as a foreign language (EFL hereafter) students have emerged as the most studied group consisting of nearly 50% of all publications. Although it seems that there is only one publication studied with both students of English language teaching (ELT hereafter) and EFL as participants together, the number of studies including them separately as participants is significantly high. However, the studies conducted on Prep-School Students consist of 21% out of the total. Furthermore, the studies having teachers as participants draw attraction as the second least studied group.

4.5. The studies in terms of participants' level of education

In this part, the studies have been analyzed considering the participants' level of education. Graphic 5 shows the number of publications by educational level
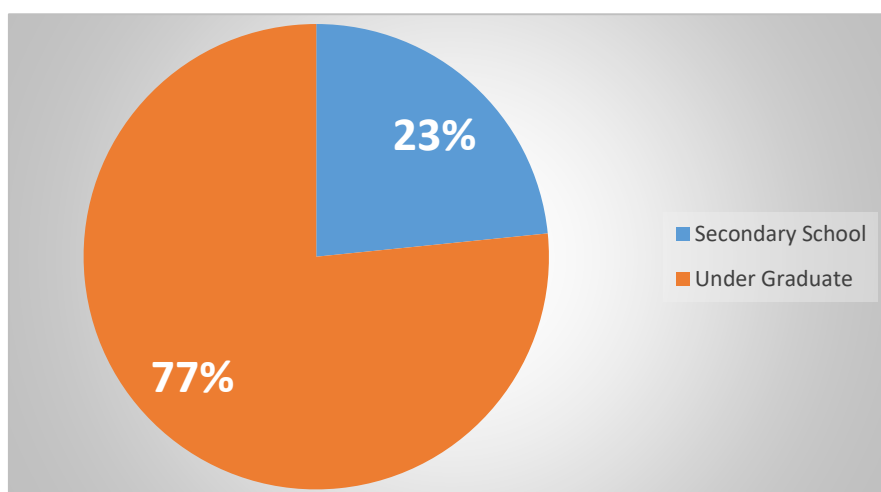
Graphic 5. Number of studies conducted according to level of education

As it can be seen in Graphic 5, the researchers focused on FLSA in secondary school and university students. No research, however, has been conducted with students who study at primary school and post-graduate. This is probably due to fact that the MA or PhD students have conducted their studies either at secondary schools or at the universities where they work at. The number of studies which employed undergraduate students is three times as high as the number of publications which include secondary school students.

4.6. The studies in terms of data collection tools

In table 2, we classify the studies in accordance with their data collection instruments.

Table 2. The studies in terms of data collection tools

Data collection tools	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Questionnaire	10	21,28
Questionnaire Interview	15	31,91
Questionnaire Semi-structured interviews	2	4,26
Questionnaire Pre and post test	2	4,26
Questionnaire Proficiency exam	1	2,13
Questionnaire Observations	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Diary	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Proficiency exam	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Report-writing tasks	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Reflective journals	2	4,26
Questionnaire Interview Pre and post test	2	4,26
Questionnaire Focus group interview Reflective journals	1	2,13
Questionnaire Discussion Assignments	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Diary Observation	1	2,13

Questionnaire Interview Proficiency exam Researcher notes	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Proficiency exam Reflective journals	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Diary Researcher notes	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interviews Analytic memos Student's reports	1	2,13
Questionnaire Interview Pre-evaluation forms Reflective journals	1	2,13
Questionnaire Self-evaluation forms Observation Classroom diaries	1	2,13
Total	47	100,00

Since one of the key terms is FLCAS, naturally all of the researches include FLCAS as a data collection tool. Nevertheless, regardless of their method, majority of researchers also used qualitative data collection instruments. The number of studies having only a questionnaire or a questionnaire and an interview consists of slightly more than %50 percent of all studies.

4.7. The studies in terms of university types

The studies have been analyzed according to where the study was conducted. Graphic 6 shows the types of universities and their percentage.
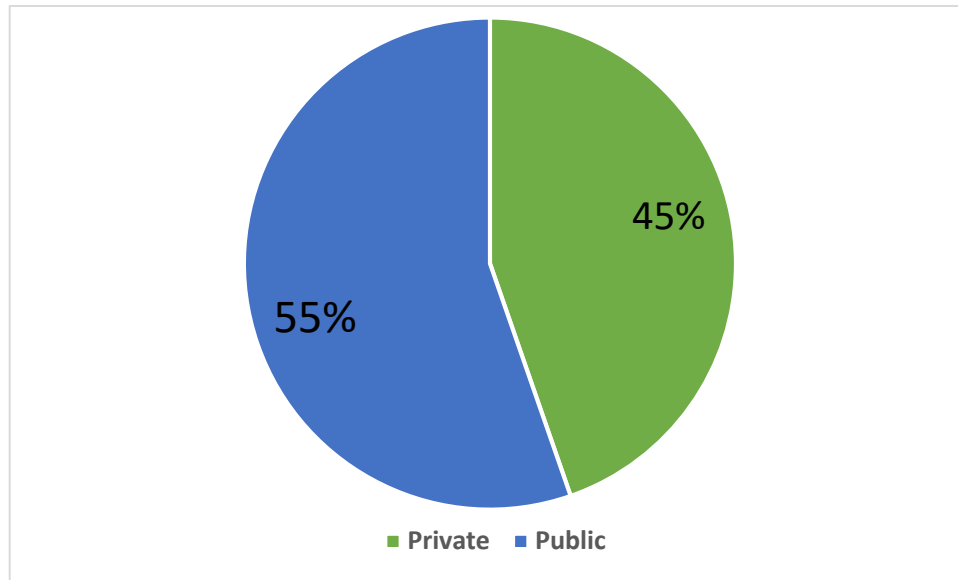
Graphic 6. Number of publication by university types

According to the Council of Higher Education, the percentage of private universities among all universities is 36,76%. However, it can be seen on Graphic 6, the percentage of publications in private schools' is 55%. While at the top of the list Bahçeşehir University takes place (with 9 studies), the universities which have more than one study are respectively Çağ University (with 5 studies), METU, Gazi University and İstanbul Aydın University (with 3 studies), Atatürk University, Balıkesir University and Başkent University (with 2 studies).

4.8. The studies focusing on aim

The studies have been analyzed according to their aims and grouped under the codes. The Graphic 7 shows the distribution of studies by their aims.
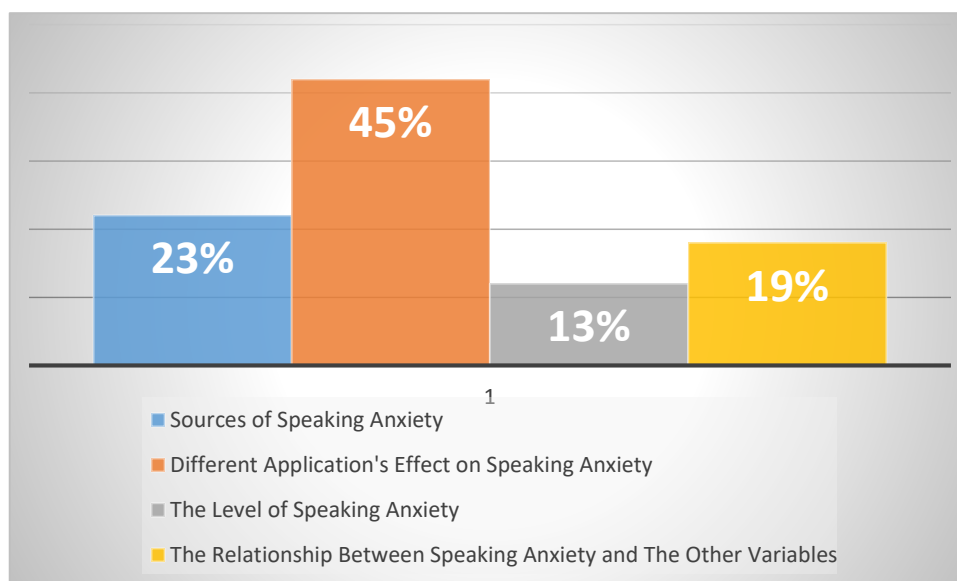
Graphic 7. Number of studies by aim

As it can be seen in Graphic 7, the studies have been collected under four main groups according to their aims. The first group consists of 45% of the total researches. This group focuses on the effects of different tools such as drama and conversation clubs on speaking anxiety. The next group focusing on to find out sources of speaking anxiety consists of 23% of the total. The third group which has 19% of all studies analyzes the relationship between speaking anxiety and different variables. The last group including the studies which determine the level of EFL learners and teachers has 13%. In this part of the systematic review, similar publications which have used different methods and participants will be examined under the same codes.

4.9. The studies focusing on the anxiety level

This group approximately consists of fifteen percent of all theses. Although the studies focus on level, most of them also include the information which relates to other categories. Thus, same studies will be mentioned under other groups. To find out the participants' anxiety level, all researchers have implemented either original version of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scales (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) or adapted versions of it. When it comes to the extent and degree of FLSA, the most widely used tool by researchers is FLCAS. Since its Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is measured as .93, it can be said that its reliability is highly acceptable.

To investigate systematically, the studies have been grouped under two main categories; students and teachers. Students are also classified according to their grade level. The studies in both categories are given respectively.

Table 3. The publications focused on the anxiety level

Study	Grade Level	Participants	Anxiety Level
Korkmaz (2019)		149 5th grade students	
Zambak (2016)	Secondary School Students	250 8th grade students	Moderate
Takan (2014)		102 high school students	
Özcanlı (2021)		920 6th, 7th and 8th grade students	High
Saltan (2003)		100 EFL students	
Balemir (2009)		164 prep-school + 70 first and second grade students	Moderate
Oksal (2014)	EFL University Students	41 EFL students	
Doyman (2020)		60 prep-school students	
Öztürk (2012)		383 prep-school students	Low
Kılıç (2014)		56 EFL students	Moderate
Ülker (2021)		184 EFL students	
Zerey (2008)		39 ELT students	
Tanrıöver (2012)		355 ELT students	
Çölkesen (2015)	ELT Students	631 ELT students	Moderate
Bozok (2014)		172 ELT students	
Aksu (2018)		98 ELT students	
Akkuş (2021)		315 ELT students	Low
Karakaya (2011)	Instructors	150 Instructors	Moderate
Çokay (2014)		123 Instructors	Moderate

Table 3 indicates that the studies focused on anxiety level mostly include EFL and ELT university students as participants. Instructors, however, were the least preferred group by researchers to study. Besides, participants have been discovered mostly to be moderately anxious. While two studies have revealed their participants had low level anxiety, only one study has found that secondary school participants had high level of anxiety.

4.10. The studies focusing on comparing demographic differences

To pursue the aim of investigating the anxiety level, some studies in this group have also investigated whether there is any significant relation between demographic differences. Table 4 shows 11 studies in four category investigate this difference between the variables.

Table 4. The publications focused on comparing demographic differences

Study	Demographic differences	Result
Balemir (2009) Tanrıöver (2012) Bozok (2014) Çölkesen (2015) Boldan (2019) Korkmaz (2019) Ülker (2021)	Male	Female	Female participants have higher level of anxiety than males.
Zambak (2016) Öztürk (2012)			Male participants have higher level of anxiety than females.
Korkmaz (2019)	Intensive foreign language classroom	Traditional classroom	Intensive foreign language classroom students are less anxious than regular classroom students.
Vural (2017)	ELL Department	ELT Department	The English speaking anxiety level of ELT students is lower than ELL students.
Yentürk (2019)	Private University	Public University	Private university students are more anxious than the public university students.

%80 percent of all studies in this category have investigated the difference between male and female participants in terms of anxiety level. Although only two studies have found that males have a higher anxiety level than females, seven of them have found vice versa. What's more; university types, department types and the curriculum types stand out as subjects which were investigated by researchers.

4.11. The studies focusing on relationship between flsa and other variables

The group focusing on relationship between FLSA and other variables consists of 20% of all the publications. This group examines the relationship between speaking anxiety and different factors such as demographic differences, internal and external causes. In the light of the research conducted by the group, table 5 explicitly depicts which studies yield statistically significant results and which ones did not in terms of speaking anxiety.

Table 5. The publications investigated the effects of variables on speaking anxiety

Study	Variable	Result	Correlation
Karakaya (2011) Çölkesen (2015) Bozok (2014)	Experience of visiting English speaking countries in advance	Statistically significant	Negative
Karakaya (2011) Çölkesen (2015) Ülker (2021) Yentürk (2019)	Starting to learn English at lower stages Spending a lot of time to teach or learn English in the past	Statistically significant	Negative
Bozok (2014)		Non-effective	
Çölkesen (2015) Korkmaz (2019) Özkan (2019)	Academic Success	Statistically significant	Negative
Korkmaz (2019)	Taking an English course out of school	Statistically significant	Negative
Zambak (2016)		Non-effective	
Karakaya (2011)	L2 learning contexts	Statistically significant	
Çölkesen (2015)	English medium of instruction	Statistically significant	Negative
Zambak (2016)	Feeling sympathy in English lesson Teacher's teaching method, Activities inside the classroom such as singing, playing, question & answer, Preparing for a test, Taking English studying to outside the class Extracurricular activities like sending e-mails in English, using social media tools, surfing on English internet pages	Statistically significant	
	English is spoken by other family members	Non-effective	
Korkmaz (2019)	Family income level	Statistically significant	Negative
Ülker (2021)	Loving English and loving studying English after class	Statistically significant	
Akkuş (2021)	Communication apprehension	Non-effective	
	Attempting to think in English Message abandonment strategies	Statistically significant	
Yentürk (2019)	Age	Non-effective	
Gürbüz (2019)	Students' attitude of oral presentations	Statistically significant	Negative

Öztürk (2012) Takan (2014) Oksal (2014)	Motivation	Statistically significant	Negative
Oksal (2014) Balemir (2009) Khalil (2018)	Proficiency level	Non-effective	
Karakaya's (2011)	Competency in listening and speaking	Statistically significant	Negative
Aksu (2018)	Grade	Non-effective	
	Oral communication strategy utilization Perceived oral proficiency	Statistically significant	Negative
Vural (2017) Özcanlı (2021)	Individual characteristic (extraversion) Foreign language speaking self-efficacy	Statistically significant	Negative
	Individual characteristic (neuroticism and agreeableness)		Positive
	Individual characteristic (conscientiousness and openness)	Non-effective	
Gerçekçioğlu (2019)	Teacher-centered lesson	Non-effective	
	Learner-centered lesson	Statistically significant	
Aldabeeb (2021)	Foreign language enjoyment	Statistically significant	Negative
Bozok's (2014)	Gender	Statistically significant	
Yentürk (2019) Aksu (2018)		Non-effective	
Öz (2017)	Mindfulness	Statistically significant	

Table 5 indicates that some of the studies focusing on the same variable have come up with different results. For instance two out of three studies focusing on gender yielded statistically non-effective result. Furthermore, the correlations between variables and FLSA are mostly negative (it is positive only in one case).

4.12. The studies focusing on the sources of speaking anxiety

After investigating all of the researches, it has been found that the sources of speaking anxiety could be analyzed under four codes; individual, curriculum, environment and instructor.

Table 6. The publications focused on the sources of speaking anxiety of learners.

Study	Source of Speaking Anxiety	Category of Source
Ataş (2014) Özdemir (2018)	Lack of self-confidence	
Saltan (2003) Tanrıöver (2012) Kılıç (2014) Çokay (2014) Ataş (2014)	The belief of mistakes The beliefs about using L1 or L2 The beliefs about language learning The beliefs about native speakers or teachers The belief of self-ability Negative self-assessment Notion of giftedness	
Çokay (2014)	Fear of interaction	
Ak (2021)	Proficiency problems	
Çokay (2014) Bozok (2014)	Mispronunciation	
Ülker (2021)	Introvert character	
Saltan (2003) Ataş (2014) Kılıç (2014) Oksal (2014) Korkmaz (2019) Bozok (2014) Özkan (2019) Ak (2021)	Fear of making mistake	Individual
Tanrıöver (2012) Çokay (2014) Bozok (2014) Özkan (2019)	Lack of vocabulary	
Bozok (2014) Kılıç (2014)	Number of grammar rules Grammar knowledge Applying the rules	
Doyman (2020)	Getting left behind	
Bozok (2014) Doyman (2020)	Perfect speech Perfectionist approach language	
Ataş (2014) Doyman (2020) Ülker 2021	Fear of being laughed	Environment
Doyman (2020) Ülker (2021)	Peer pressure	

Balemir (2009) Tanrıöver (2012) Bozok (2014) Ataş (2014) Ak (2021) Ülker (2021)	Aware of being evaluated Negative evaluation	
Balemir (2009) Tanrıöver (2012) Bozok (2014) Ataş (2014) Ak (2021) Ülker (2021)	Fear of public speaking Speaking in front of a group	
Saltan (2003) Tanrıöver (2012) Kılıç (2014) Çokay (2014) Doyman (2020)	Self-comparison to others Comparison of language classes with other classes	
Balemir (2009) Tanrıöver (2012) Kılıç (2014) Oksal (2014)	Testing procedures Oral tests	
Saltan (2003) Tanrıöver (2012) Bozok (2014) Kılıç (2014) Ataş (2014) Doyman (2020) Ülker (2021)	Activity types Topics	Curriculum
Saltan (2003) Tanrıöver (2012) Bozok (2014) Kılıç (2014) Ataş (2014) Doyman (2020) Ülker (2021)	Teacher's manners Teacher's feedback type Randomly being called on Not understanding what the teacher says Negative reactions by the teacher	Instructor

It can be concluded from Table 6 that the sources of speaking anxiety can be examined under 37 themes and 4 codes. Among themes, mostly mentioned ones are; 'fear of making mistake', 'speaking in front of a group, 'negative evaluation' and 'activity types'. The four codes are individual, environment, curriculum and instructor. The number of sources caused by curriculum and instructor were significantly less than the sources caused by individual and environment.

Table 7. The publications focused on the sources of speaking anxiety of instructors.

Study	Source of Speaking Anxiety	ategory of Source
Saltan (2003) Oksal (2014) Çokay (2014) Ataş (2014) Korkmaz (2018) Ak (2021) Ülker (2021)	Past learning experiences Being unprepared for the class Teaching experiences Lack of practice Insufficient knowledge about the subject The failure to motivate the students	Individual
	Students' unexpected questions	Environment
	Unattractive topics	Curriculum

The FLSA has also been by instructors as well as learners. Thus, some studies focused on the sources of FLSA experienced by language instructors. Table 7 reveals that the sources could be classified as 8 themes under 3 codes. Most of themes have been collected under individual sources. Interestingly, as a source of anxiety, the subject of 'unattractive topics' has been experienced not only by the learners but also by the instructors.

4.13. The studies focusing on the anxiety decreasing applications

Besides understanding the anxiety level and sources that lead to the FLSA, some studies in this area have tried to decrease the anxiety by using some tools. These studies make up the majority of anxiety research. Such studies are generally conveyed in experimental methods. The applications were investigated under two sub-categories as non-technological and technological.

4.13.1. Non-technological methods

Even though modern times have been described as the age of technology, the effect of some traditional methods in education is undeniable. Some researchers who share same idea tested these methods' impacts on FLSA. Table 8 shows these methods and their effectiveness.

Table 8. Non-technological applications' effect on FLSA.

Study	Method	Effect on Speaking Anxiety
Zerey (2008)	Original-text theater application	Decreasing
Ataş (2014) Okandan (2019 Turgut (2019) Sarıaltın (2019) Uyumaz (2020)	Drama	Decreasing
Öz (2017)	The Mindfulness Meditation-Based Intervention Program (MMCI)	Decreasing

Khalil (2018)	Using debate during English classes	Decreasing
Altın (2018)	Quantum learning model	Decreasing
Bozkurt (2019)	Role-play Story-telling techniques	Non-effective
Boldan (2019)	Speaking club	Decreasing
Aydın (2019) Gençer (2020)	NLP-based activities (Mirror, Look and Guess etc.)	Decreasing
Kırsaç (2020)	Lead-in activities (Discussion through pictures)	Decreasing

Table 8 gives us the fact that drama is used as a non-technological tool by researchers. Except for one case, all methods help to decrease participants' anxiety level. In total, 10 different non-technological tools have been tested by researchers until today. 13 of 14 studies were conveyed after 2015. It means that no matter how much technology effects our lives deeply, traditional methods will keep their value as useful applications in the classrooms in the years to come.

4.13.2. Technological methods

It is inevitable for most of the researchers to utilize technological methods to decrease FLSA of their participants. Table 9 reveals what these methods are and how they affect the FLSA.

Table 9. Technological applications' effect on FLSA.

Study	Method	Effect on Speaking Anxiety
Oksal (2014)	Cooperative learning with technology-related activities	Decreasing
Güzel (2016)	Second Life (a virtual second language learning platform)	Non-effective
Özdemir (2018)	Asynchronous Video-Recorded Speaking by Voice Thread	Decreasing
Koçer (2019)	English film activities	Non-effective
Koç (2019)	Multicultural awareness raising instruction	Decreasing
Uyumaz (2020)	Digital Videos	Decreasing
Nayir (2020)	Synchronous learning	Decreasing
Darıyemez (2020)	Flipped Classroom Model	Decreasing

It can be understood from Table 9 that technological methods do not draw researchers' attention in the field of FLSA as much as non-technological methods. While non-technological methods have been studied by 14 researchers, this number reduces to 8 when it comes to the technological methods, which also represents the number of technological tools. Moreover, six

of them managed to reduce FLSA. Thus, this result left two tools as ineffective which are Second Life (a virtual second language learning platform) and English film activities.

5. Discussion

FLSA has been extensively searched by local and foreign researchers since 1980s. While some of them have tried to understand underlying causes of it, others have come up with solutions to decrease its effect on both learners and teachers. This study aims to systematically examine the theses related to FLSA conducted in Turkey. 47 MA theses and PhD dissertations have been found related to aim of this study.

We have taken into consideration the theses which have been conducted during last two decades. The table of frequency shows that two thirds of all the theses have been conducted in last four years. The theses which have been conducted in 2019, consists of nearly one third of all theses. Even though the number tends to decrease in 2021, it is expected that FLSA will continue to be an attractive research subject for the researchers.

The researchers have three ways in front of them to conduct their studies, the findings have unearthed that they have employed only two methods; mixed and quantitative which consists of three fourth of all researches. A qualitative study might be very helpful for the researchers who especially focuses on the sources of FLSA. It may give a deeper understanding about anxiety with its qualitative data collection instruments such as interview, dairy, open ended questions. One reason why most researchers have preferred the quantitative method might be Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. Since it was developed by Horwitz et al. in 1986, it has been commonly used to determine anxiety level of participants and it gives useful figures to the researchers.

When it comes to the academic level, the MA theses outweigh PhD dissertations. There are only four PhD dissertations among all 47 studies. Nearly half of the studies have been conducted at private universities, all of the doctorate dissertations have been conducted at public universities. The reason of that might be that most of the private universities in Turkey have not PhD programs in ELT.

As a sample approximately in half of the studies, EFL learners have been used as participants while teachers remained as the least preferred group as participants. It could be caused by the mindset that mostly the students are thought the group who experienced FLSA, not the teachers. Even so, the teachers might be a precious source to understanding the sources of anxiety caused by the instructors. While some studies have preferred to study with a single group such as prep-school students others have conducted their studies with EFL learners and teachers.

The sample's education levels show that they all have come from two stages of education system; secondary school and university. It means that the students who study at other stages apart from these two stages have not participated in the FLSA studies. The reason why primary school students have not preferred as participants might be that both they are not expected to

speak in English during English classes and their anxiety level could be misleading because of their affective characteristics deeply related to their ages.

Questionnaire and interview are two mostly common data collection instruments which have been preferred by researchers. To understand the different aspects of anxiety, along with the FLCAS, several various qualitative data collection tools have been implemented. Among them; test, observation, reflective journal, researcher notes and self-reflection forms draw the attention as frequently used instruments.

Studies are divided into two classes according to the place of research; public and private universities. While they share the publication number more or less equally, most of the recent researches related to FLSA have conducted at private universities. At times, their ratio could have been increasing. As it was mentioned before, these numbers only include MA theses but through starting the PhD programs, it is expected that some of these theses will form the basis of PhD dissertations.

We have found that the studies are gathered under four main groups according to their aims. These are the studies which determine the level of EFL learners and teachers, the researches that aim to find out sources of speaking anxiety, the studies analyzing the relationship between speaking anxiety and different variables, the researches focusing on the effects of different tools such as drama and conversation clubs on speaking anxiety.

At the first category, the findings indicate that both the students and instructors have generally moderate level of speaking anxiety. Nevertheless, even if their numbers were significantly less, there are some studies whose findings indicate a contradiction with those studies. For instance, Özcanlı (2021) has found high level of FLSA in his participants, while Öztürk (2012) and Akkuş (2021) revealed that their participants have low level of FLSA. In some of the researches at this category also compare the demographic differences in terms of FLSA. 80 per cent of them focus on gender difference and great majority of them find female participants have higher level of anxiety than males. Only two studies; Öztürk (2012) and Zambak (2016) have found the opposite.

At the second group, some of the researches have unearthed that speaking anxiety and motivational orientations are negatively correlated. Moreover, there is significant relations among FLSA and personality traits, foreign language speaking self-efficacy of the participants, gender and experience of abroad, gender, grade and perceived language proficiency. However, the level of learners' language proficiency and the period of language education have not played an important role in their degree of FLSA.

The studies at the third category reveal that the sources of speaking anxiety are caused by four different variables; learner, instructor, education system and environment. 'Fear of making mistake', 'speaking in front of a group, 'negative evaluation' and 'activity types' are found as mostly FLSA creating factors for the learners. The number of sources caused by education system and instructor are significantly less than the sources caused by individual and

environment when the learners are taken into consideration. On the other hand, the studies focus on the FLSA sources experienced by instructors reveal that they suffer from eight different anxiety-creating factors in three main category.

At the last category, some techniques and methods which are used to decrease anxiety level have been identified. Among them; non-technological methods such as theater, drama, meditation etc. and technological methods such as virtual language learning programs, asynchronous video-recorded speaking programs and English films come to the fore. In particular, drama stands out as the most implemented method by researchers. Among non-technological methods, role-play and story-telling techniques were found as ineffective tools in terms of FLSA, while Second Life (a virtual second language learning platform) and English film activities were found ineffective at the other category. However, it may be too early to say certainly ineffective for the technological methods, as these methods were only implemented once, unlike traditional methods whose effectiveness has been tested several times. Another interesting point about technological methods is that no application has been implemented by no more than one researcher. This might be due to the fact that every single new day brings new developments in technology. So, the researchers have innumerable options to implement.

6. Conclusion

This study has employed the systematic review method to find out the characteristics of the theses about foreign language anxiety conducted in Turkey. Keeping the aim in mind, the research question is formulated as 'What are the characteristics of the theses about foreign language anxiety conducted in Turkey?' To reach this goal and to find out an answer to the research question, a systematic review is employed. It includes five steps; determining a specific need, formulating the research question, choosing the researches which are relevant to the subject, determining an inclusion-exclusion criterion, coding and describing the researches in maps and make a syntheses of the researches.

An inclusion-exclusion criterion is formulated to reach optimal number of studies. Firstly the keywords have been determined. After determining the key words, the studies have been searched in the Council of Higher Education Thesis Center official internet site according the following criteria; have focused on English speaking anxiety, MA theses or PhD dissertations, employed in Turkey, related to educational science, published between the years 2000-2020. After all this process, it has been found that 47 researches have focused on speaking anxiety. The studies have been investigated according to their aims, data collection tools, academic levels, samples, education levels, university types, dates and their methods.

This research provides a systematic perspective to the studies which are related to FLSA conducted in Turkey. It connects the different studies on the same concept in a single study. It shows the prospective researchers the way they might follow to conduct research on a similar subject. It shows language teachers and language learners suffering from FLSA which sources they can use in order to have a better understanding of their anxiety. In addition, it provides a

detailed picture of academic studies related to FLSA conducted in Turkish universities. It shows the deficiencies and problematic areas of the mentioned researches. Moreover, these gaps could be helpful for further researchers to bridge them with their prospective studies. Besides, the findings of the researches could light the way for the stakeholders to understand the nature of FLSA and to develop coping strategies with it.

The people who are related to the field of FLSA should read the relevant literature to understand what anxiety is and what the types of anxiety are. They also should look at the sources of FLSA which were unearthed by previous researches. After determining the sources, they should look at the instruments of FLSA which succeeded to decrease anxiety level of the participants.

As far as limitations of the research is concerned, although the subject has been studied since 1980's, the present study has merely focused on the last two decades to understand the characteristics of current researches; however, without any time limitation, the study could provide a better picture of the related field. Also, the present research focuses on only the MA theses and PhD dissertations conducted in Turkey. It could be more useful to see the articles and other academic publications published not only in Turkey but also in other countries.

Keeping the common problematic areas of the researches, following suggestions for the further researchers could be mentioned. While most of the researcher incorporated in learners to their studies, few of them studied with instructors. Nevertheless, they could be precious sources to understand the phenomena. Besides, all of the studies are conducted as quantitative or mixed data collection tools but none of them were conducted as merely qualitative method. It is known that a qualitative study could give a deeper understanding than a quantitative method. So, it might be useful to employ a qualitative method for the prospective researchers. In addition, the underlying causes of the difference between demographic variables could be studied with qualitative instruments to find out for instance why females have higher level anxiety than males. Furthermore, experimental studies could pave the prospective researcher's way to implement untried technological and non-technological methods or they can implement similar tools with different group of participants.

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PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS' EMERGENCY REMOTE MICROTEACHING EXPERIENCES AND ADJUSTMENTS: GROWING GAINS AND LESSENING PAINS

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1. Introduction

The outbreak of COVID-19 has remarkably affected the domain of education on a global scale. According to the reports of UNESCO (2020), 1.5 billion students and 63 million educators had to leave their educational environments all around the world. The school closures were followed by a transition to emergency remote teaching (ERT) in which "courses [are] offered online in response to a crisis or disaster" (Hodges et al., 2020, p. 1) through web-conferencing platforms. Higher education institutions and teacher training programs were no exceptions. During the lockdown in Turkey, higher education institutions had ERT for three consecutive semesters, in which students had to attend courses via their computers, tablets or mobile phones. Although online teaching was already in practice within some of the higher education institutions, "it was the first time in the educational history of Turkey that face-to-face education was interrupted countrywide" (Bozkurt et al., 2020, p. 83). At the faculties of education, planning teaching was relatively complicated, as the teacher candidates had to learn how to teach. While creating online platforms for pre-service teachers, decision-makers had to consider not only the future teachers' expectations, but also the general requirements of teacher training, and the feasibility of the training in the conditions provided by universities and schools (Flores & Gago, 2020). Against this backdrop, teacher educators resorted to alternative ways of delivering practical courses to equip pre-service teachers with the skills that will help them transfer their knowledge into practice upon taking part in teaching practicum. In this sense, one common teacher training technique was remote/online microteaching through which pre-service teachers practise and refine their teaching skills in a low-risk environment under the auspices of lecturers with follow-up feedback from the teacher and peers (Richards & Farrell, 2011).

The transition to ERT had even more complex implications for the teacher training professionals working at ELT departments as they had to take action for educating pre-service English teachers on teaching how to communicate in a foreign language in a virtual classroom. In other words, training prospective English teachers was more complicated given that they were learners of language teaching, rather than mere language learners (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Hence, remote microteaching was integrated into the curricula of ELT departments and mostly utilised for courses, such as "approaches to teaching English as a foreign language" or "ELT methodology". During the online classes, prospective English teachers had mini-teaching sessions in which they presented target structures and materials to their peers, and they recorded the meetings for further reflection. Although the technique was a commonly used pedagogical tool before the pandemic, its remote applications and ramifications for English teachers call for further research. To this end, the present study aims to investigate 30 pre-service English

teachers' remote microteaching experiences, particularly their adjustments to practices, in response to the challenges posed by COVID-19 in Turkey.

2. Distance English Language Teacher Education

In recent years, more English teachers have been needed with English becoming a lingua franca for education, commerce, and employment (Christison & Murray, 2021). However, it is not always possible to receive a traditional education for teachers in a face-to-face setting due to limitations, such as time constraints and geographical barriers (Murray, 2013). Besides, advances in computer technology and the Internet have made it possible for not only practising English teachers but also candidate teachers to get credentials online without attending quality institutions. Distance education as an alternative is perfect for English language teacher candidates in rural, secluded, or underprivileged areas, as well as those with limited access to regular educational institutions. Therefore, distance language teacher education programs enabling teachers to earn certificates online have been expanded with the help of those affordances that computer and internet technologies have gained over the last decades.

Recent growth in the number of distance language teaching education (DLTE) programs has accompanied the emergence of new concerns over the overall quality of DLTE. The lack of DLTE-specific accreditation and research makes it difficult to find effective courses and curriculum designs, implementation, and pedagogical approaches, particularly activities focused on learner outcomes. However, fortunately, researchers and teacher educators have access to Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Computed Mediated Communication (CMC) literature to better understand the characteristics of DLTE and the factors that may influence its quality (Christison & Murray, 2021). Similarly, pre-service language teachers have also started taking advantage of various Web 2.0 tools and mobile applications for the betterment of their linguistic and teaching competence (Karakaş & Kartal, 2020).

Several issues have been put forth regarding objectives, teaching and learning experiences, and assessment in distance language teacher education programs and its characteristics. One of these issues has been how to define and classify distance language teacher education programs. The bulk of information in a fully online course is often delivered online, without face-to-face sessions. Online education courses typically use synchronous or asynchronous delivery to assist teaching and learning while the instructor and the student are physically apart (Shin & Kang, 2018). A blended/hybrid course often consists of a decreased number of face-to-face sessions while also providing students with access to a significant quantity of knowledge via online resources. A web-facilitated course utilises the web to facilitate a face-to-face course in which the curriculum and assignments may be posted on a course management system or website (Murray & Christison, 2017). A flipped classroom, on the other hand, presents key information online and uses face-to-face time for problem-solving.

Preparing teachers for online teaching is one of the issues to handle in order to secure the quality of DLTE. In order for DLTE to yield successful outcomes, language teachers or teacher candidates should obtain an alternative skills framework for distance language teaching skills besides their existing framework. Compton (2008) put forth four major recommendations to aid in preparing language teachers for distance language teaching. The first is to enhance skills in online language teaching by utilising current courses. This covers technology use in distance language teaching and its pedagogy and evaluation. The second suggestion is to improve distance teaching skills with varying degrees of proficiency and responsibility for multiple roles. While varying degrees refer to novice, proficient, and expert online language teacher educators, multiple roles include teachers, teacher educators, coordinators, and administrators. Modernising current technology training is the third suggestion which emphasises integrating CALL technology training into the current teaching schema. The last recommendation is to administer early field experiences in distance education including virtual practicum.

Another concern in DLTE is to balance social interaction and learner autonomy. For a successful distance language teacher education program in different contexts, it is vital to communicate via the mediation of computer technology in virtual classrooms (Shin & Kang, 2018). Shin and Kang (2018) emphasize that DLTE programs pose new challenges when compared to face-to-face classroom interaction regarding the diverse cultural background of the participants. They provide Chinese students' avoidance of disagreeing with Canadian instructors and their unwillingness to post messages stating any disagreement with their peers as an example to show the influence of Chinese students' cultural background on a virtual classroom (Zaho & McDougall, 2008). DLTE may support learner autonomy with the facilities, such as learning based on students' own pace and having the opportunity to reach recorded sessions, especially with the use of mobile and technological devices (Karakaş & Kartal, 2020). However, it may also pose a threat to required social interaction, which can be overcome through building a virtual community and collaborating by distance.

Enhancing engagement and social interaction is of paramount importance to obtain successful outcomes in DLTE programs. Therefore, building community and collaboration is another issue to be handled. This may mainly be achieved through instructors' initiative within the role of a facilitator promoting collaborative enterprises of the class participants. Rather than being an authoritative figure, the instructor should approach specific contexts with sensitivity and empathy (Pawan et al., 2016). In addition to the teacher's role as a facilitator, participants of distance classes can also take part in building a distance community in which they can collaborate and cooperate with one another or in groups. To provide an example regarding the writing skill component of language learning, such online facilities as online peer feedback, wikis, blogs, electronic mails, and virtual classrooms enabling constant interaction can be utilized for instructional purposes (Yeşilyurt & Kartal, 2018). In addition to that of the students, it is vital that the instructors/faculty build an online community and cooperate and collaborate.

Another critical aspect to which particular attention must be paid in DLTE is to provide the required feedback during the practicum (Murray & Christison, 2018; Karam et al., 2020). Practicum and field experience enable prospective teachers to observe how teaching and learning take place in real-life contexts and to acquire direct experience through applying theoretical knowledge to actual teaching practice. Here, it should be kept in mind that the practicum in DLTE should cover experiencing teaching both in conventional and virtual instructional settings (Shin & Kang, 2018). Although distance-only language teacher education programs lack actual classroom practice, Cheng (2010) states that there are advantages on the part of in-service teachers since they have the opportunity not only to apply what they learn theoretically to their real classes but also to study at their own pace. In order to closely monitor the virtual practicum and provide feedback to prospective teachers, instructors in DLTE have them video-record their own teaching practices. These videos may then be analyzed in order to give way to not only instructors' comment and feedback but also self- and peer reflection as the positive impact of video-mediated microteaching sessions on pre-service teachers' critical reflection were reported before the transition to ERE (e.g. Karakaş & Yükselir, 2021; Kohen & Kramarski, 2012; Kourieos, 2016; Önal, 2019). This can also enable receiving feedback from other related parties like collaborating teachers.

One other issue covers designing DLTE programs with the aim of producing reflective practitioners. Reflective practices include establishing a connection between what we attempt to accomplish and what we obtain as a result (Farrell & Kennedy, 2019). Since distance education provides great opportunities for monitoring and capturing videos of classes, it contributes a lot to reflective practices. As mentioned above, video recordings of teaching practicum of prospective teachers enable them to critically reflect on their teaching practices (Kourieos, 2016). Recording virtual setting practicum of prospective teachers can even be organized through a robust framework in which very detailed micro-moments of teaching activities are analyzed closely and meticulously (Sert, 2021). Thus, prospective teachers can have the opportunity to evaluate their teaching in and outside the classroom more objectively and to learn lessons for further teaching.

The final issue in DLTE is to define and measure quality in order for its evaluation. In order to secure a quality education by distance, researchers, such as Lee (2020) and Koruyan, Meri-Yilan and Karakaş (2022) suggest that the challenges faced should be overcome. They draw attention to the main challenges on the part of students which are acquainting learners with online teaching, evaluating them in an online setting, and providing necessary virtual assistance. They conclude that both course-external and course-internal quality assurance strategies should be applied within which not only summative but also formative assessments are included. Likewise, Shava and Ndebele (2019) observed that inadequate resources and quality management procedures were among the most significant obstacles to the delivery of quality distance education. Angolia and Pagliari (2016), on the other hand, attract attention to university infrastructure and faculty support system. According to them, it is highly critical that program

administrators constantly challenge the existing online teaching paradigms and adjust pedagogy to newly adopted technologies in order to maintain quality and success. This quality issue and the other issues mentioned above can be considered inevitable components of a DLTE program to achieve sustainable success.

3. Microteaching in Language Teacher Education

Microteaching requires pre-service teachers to plan and deliver small, simplified lessons to their peers under the supervision of a lecturer (Wallace, 1991). It is an efficient way of transferring theoretical knowledge into practice, receiving feedback, and exchanging ideas (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Kılıç, 2010; Mergler & Tangen, 2010). After they observe their peers' way of teaching, pre-service teachers have the chance to engage in a process of self-reflection, which will allow them to plan and implement their own microteaching sessions more effectively. Starting from the 60s, microteaching has been widely used to train pre-service teachers in different teacher education programs all around the world (Amobi, 2005). Before prospective teachers start teaching in real life, they find opportunities to develop their professional skills in a less challenging environment. Despite the fact that microteaching sessions cannot fully match what future teachers might experience in real classrooms (Grudnoff, 2011), they are considered highly effective in preparing pre-service teachers for their professional lives (Benton-Kupper, 2001; Payant, 2014).

Teaching English as a second/foreign language is likely to pose additional challenges for pre-service English teachers as they have to pay attention not only to their teaching skills but also to their own ways of using the target language. Given the fact that prospective teachers practise English mostly in the academic settings in the Turkish (EFL) context, it could be argued that microteaching sessions are valuable tools for preparing future ELT professionals in the country.

In line with the global evidence, research conducted in the Turkish academic settings shows that Turkish pre-service teachers of English generally find microteaching quite beneficial in terms of their language proficiency, self-confidence, teaching skills and classroom management (e.g., Coşkun, 2016; Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2010; Kılıç, 2010; Ögeyik, 2009; Önal, 2019). Microteaching, when supported with video recordings, allows pre-service teachers to watch and reflect on their teaching experiences in a more objective way (Karakaş & Yükselir, 2021). They could analyse the process and evaluate feedback by distancing themselves from the classroom environment (Kokkinos, 2022). In addition, video-supported microteaching could help teacher candidates control their anxiety levels (Büyükkarcı, 2014), and could be used to initiate classroom discussions about the optimal ways of teaching in a specific situation (Kokkinos, 2022).

So far, several studies have investigated the outcomes of microteaching experience among prospective English teachers (e.g., Bağatur, 2015; Coşkun, 2016; Karakaş & Yükselir, 2021; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2010; Ögeyik, 2009; Önal, 2019; Savaş, 2012). For example, Bağatur (2015) aimed to examine the general attitudes of 72 pre-service teachers of English towards

microteaching and investigated whether a number of variables such as GPA, gender, and year of study had any effects on these attitudes. The findings of the study showed that students had positive attitudes regardless of their gender, GPA or year of study. Some students reported that they learned different methods and techniques from their peers and others favoured microteaching as it gave them an opportunity to have self-reflection and to improve their ways of teaching.

In another study, Coşkun (2016) investigated the perceptions of 86 teacher candidates about the microteaching sessions which lasted fourteen weeks. The results showed that the participants had positive feelings about microteaching in general. They reported that the sessions helped them improve their English proficiency, teaching skills and lesson planning. On the other hand, some participants argued that microteaching took place in an artificial environment, and they felt pressure as they had to perform in a limited time, knowing that they were being graded. They also highlighted that preparing materials took too much time and money for such a limited period of teaching practice. Another shortcoming reported by the teacher candidates was the nature of feedback they received from their peers. Some suggested that structured feedback forms, rather than open-ended evaluation sheets, could work better as some of their friends made unfair and personal comments about their teaching performance.

In a similar study, Kavanoz and Yüksel (2010) investigated the views of 38 pre-service English teachers about microteaching. Their findings showed that the participants found microteaching useful as it facilitated learning, provided opportunities for self-reflection and helped them improve their teaching and evaluation skills. However, some of the teacher candidates acknowledged that the process was stressful, especially at the beginning of the semester. Others reported that it was difficult to implement microteaching in crowded classrooms and to keep their peers' attention in the class. In another study, Ögeyik (2009) examined the perceptions of 57 pre-service teachers of English about microteaching. Her findings indicated that the participants found microteaching beneficial in terms of personal and professional development. More specifically, the participants reported that microteaching facilitated self-reflection and self-confidence; it boosted creativity and helped them with material development, classroom management, lesson planning, online decision making and efficient application of teaching strategies. On the other hand, a few students complained about the unrealistic environment and the costly procedure of material production while preparing for the microteaching sessions. In a different study, Savaş (2012) found that pre-service teachers of English (N = 40) mostly had highly positive attitudes towards video-supported microteaching and believed that it improved both English proficiency and the teaching skills of teacher candidates. In the domain of proficiency, the participants mostly reported that microteaching helped them improve their pronunciation, followed by speaking, vocabulary, grammar and listening. In the domain of teaching skills, they mostly believed that microteaching had a positive influence on giving instructions, followed by other skills such as time management, monitoring students, board use, giving feedback and activity/material design. A study by Önal (2019) on the advantages of the

integration of smart phone video-recording into pre-service EFL teachers' microteaching sessions indicated that they showed remarkable progress in the areas of reflective skills. Additonally, the participants were found to be relatively positive about their sessions' being recorded for several reasons (e.g. managing classroom, adjusting classroom talk, non-verbal language use and L1 use). In a more recent study, Karakaş and Yükselir (2021) studied pre-service EFL teachers' engagement in reflection and reflective practice via video-recorded microteaching sessions and found that post-microteaching guided-focus group discussions and watching their own and others' sessions emerged to be helpful in terms of involving them in reflection on their practices and noticing several issues, which they did not notice at the time of teaching.

Overall, the studies reviewed so far show that Turkish pre-service teachers of English generally have positive attitudes towards microteaching. However, the case of online microteaching, as a relatively new and challenging way of training prospective English teachers, needs further investigation. The following section reviews the recent research on online microteaching, which was a commonly used tool for training teacher candidates during the pandemic.

3.1. Online Microteaching

The increasing adoption of online or remote teaching has necessitated the adaptation of traditional face-to-face classroom practices for online classes. Especially during the COVID-19 pandemic, education institutions at almost every level resorted to online teaching (Koruyan et al., 2022; Meri-Yilan, Koruyan & Karakaş, forthcoming). Most of the teacher education programs in higher education followed the same fashion. Therefore, these programs tried to reflect the practices that they carry out in face-to-face classrooms to online classes in distance education.

One core practice that teacher education programs have attempted to adjust is microteaching practices where pre-service teachers try to put what they have already learnt theoretically into practice. Hence, online microteaching sessions became part of the courses in online teacher education programs. As in other components of the language teacher education process, which have been tried to adapt from real-life classes to virtual classes, both advantageous and disadvantageous aspects have arisen in online microteaching.

The relevant literature includes studies on microteaching in English language teacher education regarding the dimensions such as fostering autonomy and learner engagement (Bodis, Reed & Kharchenko, 2020), overcoming challenges in microteaching (Kokkinos, 2022), the effectiveness of virtual microteaching (Dharma et al., 2022), prospective English teachers' microteaching experiences (Handayani, 2022), real-time feedback in online microteaching practices in English language classes (Hidayah & Idriani, 2021), online microteaching and reflective thinking (Ambarini et al., 2022), and a transformation of teaching practices (Mahmud, 2021). Each one of these studies reports both positive and negative aspects of online microteaching in English language classes. Based on the above studies, we can briefly look into

both sides of the coin; the challenges and benefits of online microteaching in distance English language teacher education.

Regarding the positive aspects, Bodis et al. (2020) reported that online microteaching boosts cooperation and collaboration. They also added that it fosters learner engagement and autonomy. Afrijon and Rosita's (2022) study revealed that despite the weaknesses of the computer-mediated medium, microteaching lectures are run at a level very close to certain standards. In addition, Hidayah and Indriani (2021) found that real-time feedback from peers helped pre-service student teachers to obtain different beneficial perspectives. Finally, Pham (2022) and Bodis et al. (2020) reported that online microteaching practices helped pre-service teachers learn teaching and digital competencies and improve ICT skills, respectively.

Studies also reported some challenges that pre-service teachers and teacher educators have faced in online microteaching practices. Jin (2022) found out that preservice teachers had difficulty sustaining children's active participation during online microteaching. Pham (2022) determined three major challenges that preservice teachers have faced in their online microteaching practices. These challenges are constant assessment of learners' progress and concentration in learning, fostering students' active involvement and engagement, and using technology. Kokkinos (2022) reported that preservice teachers complained about being not visible to their learners at the time of material presentation and not having the opportunity to have eye contact with them as well as lacking the support of body language in interaction. Based on the findings of her study, Zalavra (2022) listed some other challenges regarding preservice teachers' online microteaching practices. These are the inability to adopt the nature of online microteaching, difficulty in adopting digital tools for implementing online teaching, difficulty in selecting appropriate digital tools, and problems with timing.

The literature has put forth evidence of utilising online microteaching by pre-service language teachers. The relevant studies discovered both challenges and benefits of online microteaching practices. While the benefits encourage teacher trainers to make more use of this facility, the challenges imply the requirement of coping strategies on the part of both preservice teachers and teacher trainers.

3.2. Exploring Emergency Remote Microteaching

In this study, within the scope of a mixed-methods research design, online surveys with open-ended and closed-ended questions were used after the delivery of student microteaching sessions, which lasted 6 weeks. The participants (n=30) were third-year pre-service English teachers from the Education Faculty of a state university located in a southwestern Turkish city. As part of the language teacher education program in Turkey, they were required to attend the mandatory course entitled '*Teaching Language Skills',* an English language teaching methods course. This is a three-credit course that lasted 14 weeks in total, eight weeks of which were spared for theoretical foundations about major language skills and the rest for microteaching sessions. As part of the course requirements, students were placed into different groups to

perform online microteaching by means of a web-conferencing platform, i.e. Zoom. Additionally, before their microteaching sessions, students were required to prepare a lesson plan they would follow during their teaching sessions. Their assessment was done through a ready-made rubric consisting of the following sections: organization of content, clarity of presentation, communication (voice, eye contact), interaction with the audience, use of computer aids and overall effectiveness, each being judged on a 1-to-5 scale (1= poor – needs much improvement and 5=excellent – little or no room for development).

At the end of the term, pre-service teachers were sent semi-structured online questionnaires adapted from Ismail (2011) regarding their microteaching experiences (e.g. benefits, challenges, adjustments) followed by group discussions. Ethical issues, such as informed consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality and anonymity of the responses, were addressed before the data collection commenced. The questionnaire consisted of 32 items on issues ranging from developing self-confidence in language production and skills, bridging existing knowledge with course methodology, and boosting motivation to practising their theoretical knowledge. The data from the closed-ended items from the questionnaires were subjected to descriptive statistics (frequency and mean scores) and the data from the open-ended items were analysed through thematic analyses. For practical purposes, while presenting the questionnaire data, we only provided the frequencies and percentages of the responses to the items with Agree/Strongly Agree options. However, when needed, we also elucidated on the Neutral and Disagree options, especially when the majority of the participants did not show a positive orientation to the items.

4.1. Online microteaching experiences and adjustments

The 32 items in the questionnaire were analysed thematically with respect to their content as follows: a) language improvement and course satisfaction, b) teaching practice competence and management, c) preparation and management and d) attitudes and personal feelings. These themes are followed by the exploration of the challenges participants faced and the likely adaptations they would make to maximise their microteaching and teaching behaviours.

4.1.1 Language improvement and course satisfaction

There were eight items in this theme and it was found that most participants perceived gains in the area of language improvement and course satisfaction (83%). When inspected individually related to language-related matters, it became clear from each item that the majority of the participants felt improvement in developing confidence in their speaking ability (90%), developing their vocabulary knowledge (80%), discovering and fixing their language problems (e.g. pronunciation) (76.7%) and learning to speak clearly (73.3%). Concerning course satisfaction, most participants reported that online microteaching experiences encouraged their eagerness to work harder for their classes (70%), increased their motivation in the methodology course (90%) and accordingly helped them to better grasp different teaching methods to be employed in the act of teaching English (86.7%).

Table 1. Experiences in language improvement and course satisfaction

Items	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Online Microteaching: helped me develop confidence in my speaking ability.	27	90
helped me learn to speak clearly.	22	73.3
encouraged me to develop my vocabulary.	24	80
allowed me to apply ideas I learned from different courses.	29	96
encouraged me to work harder.	21	70
raised my motivation in the present methods course.	27	90
helped me to better understand different teaching methods.	26	86.7
helped me discover and fix my language problems.	23	76.7

Such gains were also mentioned by several participants in their answers to open-ended items in the questionnaires. For instance, one participant noted how s/he increased her/his speaking self-confidence in public speaking due to engaging in online microteaching sessions:

> I have gained self-confidence thanks to the presentation assignments. Now I feel more relaxed while I speaking in front of people (P. 15)

While speaking of fixing language-related problems, another participant highlighted the importance of learning from the mistakes of others through critical observations: "I saw my mistakes by looking at my classmates and learned how to correct them." (P. 18).

4.1.2. Teaching practice competence and awareness

There were seven items concerning this theme and it was found that most participants perceived gains in teaching practice competence and awareness as a consequence of running online microteaching (85%). To be more precise, the data indicated that online microteaching experiences increased participants' awareness of their teaching competence (90%), what makes someone a good teacher (90%) and their instructional strengths and weaknesses (76.7%). Moreover, all participants reported developing teaching skills needed in their future careers (100%) and a vast majority admitted seizing an opportunity to learn by observing their peers (90%) and to apply their teaching skills (83.3%). Probably, thanks to such gains in their teaching practice with increased awareness about the profession and the 'ideal' teacher identity, the majority of the participants (73.3%) believed that online microteaching enabled them to develop autonomy.

Table 2. Experiences about teaching practice competence and awareness

Items	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Online Microteaching:		
helped me develop an awareness of my teaching competence.	27	90
helped me develop the actual teaching skills I'll need later.	30	100
gave me an opportunity to learn by observing others.	27	90
made me aware of what makes a good teacher.	27	90
gave me a valuable opportunity to apply my teaching skills.	25	83.3
encouraged me to develop autonomy.	22	73.3
helped me discover my teaching strengths and weaknesses.	23	76.7

Substantiating the quantitative findings, the qualitative data revealed that most participants developed a positive view of themselves as teachers-to-be as one participant said:

> I get an idea of how to proceed with a lesson. I gained self-confidence because I used to think that I was not ready to be a teacher but after this experience, I think I am ready (P. 5).

> Online micro-teaching was a platform for beginner teachers to improve teaching competencies. It effectively increased our confidence level of us (P. 11).

Most also reported improving their professional self-confidence by constructing a teacher professional identity thanks to engaging in critical reflection on their own and peers' sessions as noted by some participants below:

> Online microteaching improved my self-confidence and it made me feel like a teacher. So I could see my mistakes clearly (P. 1).

> I have learned the stages of preparing an effective microteaching and presenting and also I tried to find the pros and cons by examining the microteaching of my classmates (P. 24).

A few students also mentioned becoming more aware of the nature of the teaching profession and what challenges and commitments lie in wait for them. In this regard, one participant said "I learned what is it like a being teacher and its difficulties especially in the case of teaching online" (P. 8) while another mentioned learning "how to be a good teacher and how to approach my [his/her] students" (P. 27).

4.1.3. Preparation and management

This theme also had eight items in the questionnaire, mainly concerned with time management, classroom management, lesson planning, writing lesson objectives, developing materials and tasks, and appropriately using technological tools in their microteaching sessions. In terms of time management, most participants highlighted the positive impact of online microteaching in their effective organization of time while teaching (86.7%) and management of the class (76.7%). Perhaps, it is thanks to their gains in classroom management that almost all (90%) reported learning how to predict potential classroom problems in classes. Similarly, a great majority (90%) felt that they obtained an opportunity to run an actual solo lesson under the

supervision of an experienced teacher (course tutor) in front of an audience (classmates). Besides running a practical lesson, they reported achieving improvement in writing good performance objectives (86.7%), well-thought lesson plans (90%), developing suitable activities and materials (83.3%) and using technology appropriately (96.7%) in line with the instructional purposes.

Table 3. Experiences in preparation and management

Items	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Online Microteaching:		
helped me learn to organize my time.	26	86.7
helped me learn how to manage the class.	23	76.7
offered me a practical opportunity to teach a lesson.	27	90
gave me an opportunity to improve my lesson planning.	27	90
helped me write good performance objectives.	23	76.7
encouraged me to develop teaching activities and materials	25	83.3
helped me learn how to predict classroom problems.	27	90
helped me learn to use technology appropriately.	29	96.7

It is not surprising that participants felt gains the most in the domain of technology use since, during the COVID-19 era, they have become familiar with technological devices as one participant wrote:

> I used a laptop computer, camera, the internet, telephone and speaker. Because these were what I needed to prepare for online microteaching. I couldn't prepare online microteaching without using them (P. 13).

From their responses to the open-ended items, it becomes obvious that the qualitative data lend further support to the quantitative findings. For instance, one participant made the following remarks as to his/her perceived gains related to running an effective class.

> We learned how we can prepare a lesson plan. We learned how we can manage our time. We managed our lesson plan according to our teaching point. I believe that my friends and I learned very well online microteaching process (P. 8).

Likewise, in terms of developing activities for target student groups, one participant told: "I learned to prepare activities suitable for the language skills that need to be acquired and to present these activities to students" (P. 21). Another felt improvement in the design of the course, i.e. what to do in each stage of the lesson: "I think that what I gained most importantly is how I should organize the course" (P. 26). One can conclude from these remarks that most participants observed, due to online microteaching sessions, a high level of advancement in their knowledge of teaching methodologies, and communication of course content to students.

4.1.4. Attitudes and personal feelings

Regarding this theme, students answered nine items in the questionnaire which were mainly about participants' attitudes towards and feelings about how microteaching sessions were run, their impact on their psychological states, and their overall success in bridging methods courses with practices. In this respect, it emerged that most (70%) considered that their sessions were carried out in a non-natural environment due mainly to the absence of real students in their sessions. Participants were not decisive about whether online microteaching led to the negligence of key activities in the methods since slightly more than half (53.4%) perceived that they could not perform the key activities they learned in the methods course in their teaching thanks to the online nature of the microteaching sessions whereas several others (44.4%) did not share this view, stating that they managed to take advantage of essential activities in their teaching sessions without much difficulty. However, as for the time issue, some students were a bit hesitant about whether online microteaching sessions were time-consuming (30%), yet more than one thirds (40%) did not deem that online microteaching consumed a lot of time whereas the rest (30%) found them to be time-consuming.

Table 4. Attitudes and feelings about online microteaching experiences

Items	*Frequency (f)*	*Percentage (%)*
Online Microteaching:		
was carried out in an artificial environment.	21	70
resulted in neglecting key activities in the methods course.	10	33.4
consumed a lot of my time.	9	30
made me feel bored.	3	10
forced me to do difficult tasks.	5	16.7
was time limited and controlled.	21	70
made me feel embarrassed when teaching my colleagues.	6	20
forced me to think of the evaluation criteria while planning.	9	30
forced me to think of the evaluation criteria while teaching.	11	36.7

Regarding the impact of online microteaching on participants' emotional and psychological state, it was observed that more than half (63.3%) did not feel bored during microteaching sessions while the rest was largely neutral (26.7%) and just a few perceived them to be boring (4%). Most (66.7%) also reported being comfortable while teaching their classmates although around one-fifth of the participants admitted that online microteaching made them feel embarrassed during their sessions. While engaging with tasks for preparing their microteaching sessions, most participants (63.4%) thought that they did not have to deal with difficult tasks while a small number of them (16.7%) reported that online microteaching forced them to do difficult tasks. However, it appeared that the time limitation and controlled nature of the microteaching sessions turned out to be a vital issue for most participants (70%). Finally, as regards the evaluation component of their sessions, a small ratio of participants (30%) held the view that they had to think of the evaluation criteria while planning their online microteaching

sessions; however, almost half of them (46.7%) surprisingly did not report if they were compelled to be concerned about the evaluation criteria during the planning stage. Slightly more than one-fifth (23.3%) did not feel that they were forced to think of the evaluation criteria while planning their sessions. Likewise, the majority (43.3%) were unsure about being forced to think about the criteria while running their sessions whereas more than half of the rest (36.7%) expressed being concerned about the evaluation criteria while teaching and only a small group (17.3%) reported not being bothered by the assessment throughout their teaching sessions.

The qualitative data supplemented the above findings indicating that most participants saw microteaching as a technique that would add to their existing teacher knowledge base and sharpen their teaching skills through the 'practice and more practice' premise. Speaking of their views about microteaching, some mentioned the following views about their experiences with online microteaching:

> Microteaching was a good method to improve the teaching process of pre and in-service because today there are many innovations in the field of education, and I learned how to prepare skilled teachers in a short time (P. 23).

Several students also expressed their satisfaction with online microteaching sessions by alluding to how they became more cognizant about themselves and their strengths/weaknesses and what they could achieve even before getting into the profession in the real sense as student teachers. In line with the questionnaire results, several students reported being rather comfortable in their teaching. Below are some sample views expressed in these respects:

> I am satisfied because it made me know my skills and myself, also learned my mistakes at the end of my microteaching, also I saw the fundamental parts of microteaching, not only after my microteaching but also while watching the others (P. 4).

> My lesson was suitable for the level of learners and my lesson plan was well prepared the tools [activities] that I used were also suitable for my learners' level and learners' age. My videos and activities were interesting and good for my learners (P. 9).

From these results, it would be feasible to conclude that albeit having mixed feelings and attitudes toward online microteaching, the vast majority of the participants appeared to be considerably contented with their online microteaching experiences.

4.1.5. Troubles faced

The perceived challenges faced were asked of participants in one of the open-ended items in the questionnaires. There were various challenges reported in the data. Most participants mentioned issues that originate from the ineffective use of technological devices (e.g. laptop, camera, and microphone) and the external problems caused by the Internet providers.

> The only challenge was the poor internet connection. Thanks to my internet provider I couldn't even join the online courses I watched all the recordings after the class (P. 6).

> Because of the laptop, my voice is not clear for a teacher (P. 17).

> Camera and mic problems were common because of the platforms we are using. Different apps need different settings for the same device (P. 22).

Several participants related the troubles they experienced to lacking the required information and communication technology (ICT) skills.

> Figuring out how to use and record on the zoom was quite challenging (P. 2)

> I didn't know anything about the programs like loom. I have to check the tutorials before using them (P. 9).

> I used the loom program. As I used it for the first time, I had some problems solving the contents of the program. And I couldn't upload the audio recording to my ppt file because of the computer (P. 19).

A few participants were untroubled by the limited time given for preparing online microteaching.

> Time was too limited that's why I had to take a video again and again because time was not enough (P. 14).

The reported challenges are summarized in the following figure:

Figure 1. The most frequently mentioned challenges

Nevertheless, albeit such challenges, most participants (f=27) expressed satisfaction with remote microteaching experiences as they could see their strengths and weaknesses regarding lesson planning and putting their plans into practice. More strikingly, they were considerably content with experiencing running online microteaching in line with the current practices at schools (e.g. "It was a great opportunity to do something like this. First I thought that it would be hard and boring. When I started to do I enjoyed a lot" P. 13).

4.1.6. Further adjustments for future practices

The final open-ended item in the questionnaire was about the kind of changes the participants would make if they were given a chance to run another online microteaching session, especially considering the range of troubles they experienced in their teaching. Out of 30 participants, only four students stated that they would not make any changes in their original lesson plans and teaching while the rest mentioned a large number of areas where they would either make minor

or major adjustments to improve their performance. Among the areas of amendments, what became the most notable were the choice of appropriate technological tools, time management and key changes in the lesson plans which lacked the consideration of potential problems that might arise in classes:

> I would buy a new laptop. Because I experienced a bad and hard process in my microteaching session (P. 1).

> I would find a proper camera and proper microphone (P. 9).

> I would include more speaking skills in the lesson plan. I would manage time better (P. 17).

> I would make my lesson plan more detailed (P. 23)

Several participants referred to the selection and development of classroom activities and the need to use more diverse activities in their teaching.

Some students reported that they would accommodate their language use and materials to the language proficiency of their target student groups bearing in mind the time constraints in classroom communication:

> I took a video only myself it took 17 minutes but interacting with students too much made me lose control of time. So next time I need to consider interaction time too and also, in general, I will take a shorter time for A1/A2 students (P. 20).

Lastly, a couple of students expressed that they would integrate different skills in their teaching rather than basing their lesson on a single skill throughout their teaching in order to capitalize on student learning outcomes.

> I would change some of my activities a little bit and I would definitely integrate more than 2 skills. I would use listening, speaking, reading and vocabulary teaching (P. 3).

It is evident from the above remarks that most participants became aware of what went wrong and well in their initial online microteaching sessions and felt ready to make changes in their lesson plans, classroom communication, activity selection and time management most probably as a result of critically reflecting on their practices and the feedback received from the course tutor at the end of each session. The role of feedback was highlighted by a few participants about their satisfaction with online microteaching. To illustrate, a few participants offered the following accounts:

> Feedbacks are the best way to improve. It enabled us to gain instant feedback from the teacher. Also, it broadened our knowledge about a variety of techniques of teaching (P. 14).

> The teacher was cool and experienced in the lesson, his feedback helped improving myself (P. 15)

> I'm happy with my online microteaching because I've had positive feedback from my teacher and that's made a big difference (P. 29)

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings suggest that albeit the inherent challenges of ERE, pre-service teachers find online microteaching valuable for their professional learning. This finding corroborates the previous evidence indicating that microteaching is an efficient tool for teacher education (Benton-Kupper, 2001; Payant, 2014). The teacher candidates mostly had positive views about online microteaching in the aspects of language improvement/course satisfaction, teaching practice competence, preparation/management, and attitudes/personal feelings.

In terms of language improvement, the majority of the participants reported that microteaching helped them put their theoretical knowledge into practice, as suggested by researchers (e.g., Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Kılıç, 2010; Mergler & Tangen, 2010). Most of them also emphasised that thanks to microteaching, they became highly motivated for the course, and gained self-confidence in English speaking abilities. This finding is in line with the results of Savaş (2012), who reported that pre-service teachers benefited from microteaching mostly for their speaking and pronunciation skills in English. The participants of the current study also believed that microteaching allowed them to understand a variety of teaching methods (Bağatur, 2015), develop their vocabulary, notice and fix their language problems, speak more clearly, and work harder.

Regarding teaching competence, all the participants reported that microteaching allowed them to develop teaching skills they would need later in their lives. This finding parallels the results reported by Ögeyik (2009) and Karakaş and Yükselir (2021), who found that teacher candidates found microteaching highly useful for their professional development. The participants also indicated that they became aware of their teaching competence, learned new things by observing others, applied their teaching knowledge, gained autonomy, and discovered their strengths and weaknesses with the help of microteaching.

As for preparation and management, the majority of the participants reported that microteaching contributed to their skills in technology use, which was in line with the suggestions of Bodis et al. (2020). They also believed that microteaching was useful for planning lessons, predicting potential problems in the classroom, practising teaching, organising their time, developing activities and materials, writing good objectives and classroom management.

For the attitudes/personal feelings part, the participants mostly reported that the microteaching sessions took place in an artificial environment, which replicated the findings of Ögeyik (2009). Another drawback emphasised by the majority of the teacher candidates was that online microteaching was a time-limited and controlled activity, which was also reported in previous studies (e.g., Coşkun, 2016). Although limited in number, some of the participants considered microteaching time-consuming, boring, embarrassing or difficult. Some believed that microteaching forced them to think of the evaluation process during planning and teaching while others argued that it resulted in neglecting some of the important activities in the course.

The qualitative findings of the current study supported the quantitative ones, showing that the teacher candidates mostly enjoyed the process of online microteaching, and they found it useful for improving their language and teaching skills. On the other hand, there were some negative experiences, mostly stemming from technical problems or the participants' problems with ICT skills as was observed in previous studies on ERE (e.g., Koruyan et al., 2022).

Overall, the findings indicate that online microteaching could be used effectively with pre-service English teachers and they are ready for online teaching if COVID-19 continues in the years to come or if any other emergencies that disrupt face-to-face teaching arise. Based on the commonly reported difficulties regarding ICT skills among the teacher candidates, it could be suggested that ICT courses might be revised and updated for a more efficient implementation of ERT at higher education institutions. The present study was conducted with a limited number of participants throughout one semester. Further research is needed for a deeper insight into the role of online microteaching in language teacher education. For instance, future studies could compare the perceptions of pre-service teachers studying at different universities or cities across different years of study. Likewise, follow-up studies could be conducted to see how experiences of online microteaching are put into practice after the participants start their teaching careers.

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PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS' EMERGENCY REMOTE MICROTEACHING EXPERIENCES AND ADJUSTMENTS: GROWING GAINS AND LESSENING PAINS

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CHALLENGES OF MEASUREMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

İdil SAYIN

1. Introduction

Measurement can be defined as "the assignment of numerals to objects or events according to rules" (Stevens, 1946, p. 677). In a more well-defined way, measurement is "a process producing one or more property values that are attributed to the measurand with the aim of representing it" (Mari et al., 2015, p. 207). In addition to the general definition of measurement, it is noteworthy that conditions and assumptions of measurement may differ according to the field. In the physical sciences, measurement is expressing the observable attribute, events, objects, or their particular properties with numerical data. Whereas in social sciences, even though there is also quantification in the measurement, this is only possible on various assumptions. Accordingly, although the measured attribute in social sciences, unlike in physical sciences, cannot usually be directly observed, the measurement is made on the assumptions that the measured attribute exists in a certain amount in nature and can be quantified (Chadha, 2009). Another difference between the measurement in physical and social sciences is how the measurement takes place. In the physical sciences, measurement occurs through the direct interaction of objects with measurement tools (Pendrill & Fisher, 2013). Contrariwise, as what is intended to be measured in social sciences is in the human mind, the individual interacts with the measurement tool; that is, the measured phenomenon is indirectly measured (Salzberger, 2018). In summary, all sciences make use of measurement, they just use different methods and tools for this purpose. Although measurement methods and tools used in each science are similar, their features are different. Surely, this difference arises from the distinct nature of the hard data (physical properties, observable attributes) and soft data (non-physical properties, unobservable attributes) (Mari et al., 2015). It is noteworthy that challenges are encountered in all kinds of measurements, even where observable attributes are the subject of measurement (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). However, when unobservable attributes are at the center of measurement, challenges are far more complex and different. It is because the challenges found in the sciences where measurements are on unobservable attributes are either absent or largely eliminated in the physical sciences (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

Challenges still present in social sciences flaw the interpretation of our measurement. These challenges have also led to frequent criticism of social sciences. Occasionally, social sciences has been criticized for not being a real science or even for being a pseudo-science per retaining measurement challenges (Feynman, 1981). Further, there are researchers who suggest that only observable attributes can be measured (for a comprehensive discussion see Mari et al., 2015). There are also those who call the measurement processes in social sciences in which observations are converted into numeric data a "black box" and referring this issue as the "Achilles' heel" of social measurements (Salzberger, 2018, p. 2). Although it may be impossible to completely eliminate these challenges, being careful when making the measurements and interpreting the results can minimize the adverse effects of these challenges.

One of the fields that requires the measurement of unobservable attributes is foreign language education. Measurements in foreign language education is conducted for various purposes such as diagnosis, placement and selection. However, these measurements may suffer from decreased understanding or flawed interpretation of the measured attribute due to several challenges. Therefore, raising consciousness regarding the issue can enable practitioners to be more careful in the planning and interpretation of measurements. Thus, this chapter aims at contributing to a better understanding of the complexity of such measurements and diverting attention to these by briefly describing the challenges of measurement in foreign language education. Even though categorization of these challenges may change, it is possible to gather these under three main categories. These categories are attribute/construct based, tool/method based, and human factors based. Attribute/construct based challenges arise from the complexity of identifying and describing the measured attribute. Tool/method based challenges concern the robustness of the tools and methods developed and used to measure these complex and unobservable attributes. Human factors based challenges originate from the individuals who are being measured or who make the measurement. The following sections will detail the related challenges.

2. Attribute / Construct Based Challenges

In measurement, measurand is not a person nor object, it is an attribute/construct of the object or person (Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2014). Hence, attributes/constructs that are subject to the measurement hold great importance. The first challenge with attributes/constructs in foreign language education is that they can only be measured indirectly (Crocker & Algina, 1986). Measurement is conducted by assuming that psychological attributes/constructs manifest themselves through observable behaviors and that these observable behaviors are objective and countable (Chadha, 2009). In other words, we infer attributes/constructs by observing the ones that we assume are a manifestation of the attribute/construct in focus (Blanton & Jaccard, 2006). For example, a learner's foreign language proficiency cannot be observed, but this competence is supposedly measured by a set of observable behaviors (writing, listening, e.g.). This causes the measurement to be limited and vague (Chadha, 2009). Another challenge arises from the dynamic nature of attributes/constructs. Capturing and quantifying these non-static and constantly changing attributes/constructs at a point in time can also be considered a threat to the validity of the measurement (Chadha, 2009).

Another major challenge is conceptualizing. Before designing the measurement process, the attribute/construct to be measured must be determined and conceptualized (Doğan, 2020). Accordingly, a conceptual definition of the attribute/construct is required. The conceptual definition is the description of the attribute/construct in general terms. However, for a practitioner in social sciences, this is no easy task (Bulmer, 2001). It is because having numerous definitions for a single term is not exceptional in social sciences. For instance, a term that refers to the language "English" is hard to define. As the World Englishes view has started to be accepted more widely, this term has gotten harder to define (Hall, 2020). Who can

confidently define the English language? Whose English is the *real* English? Even if we claim that *real* English is the one that is spoken as a first language, we return to the previous question. Which one? While English is so difficult to define, even though it may seem like a fairly simple and perhaps superficial term, it is even more difficult to define various foreign language education-related terms. "Language" is another example of this polysemy. As Cook (2010) mentioned, the concepts of "language" differ across the different second language acquisition (SLA) theories. He even presented six different meanings of "language" used in SLA research (see Table 1).

Table 1. Different Meanings of "Language" (Cook, 2010, p. 7)

No	Meaning
1	a human representation system
2	an abstract external entity
3	a set of actual or potential sentences
4	the possession of a community
5	the knowledge in the mind of an individual
6	a form of action

According to him (Cook, 2010), all these various meanings ascribed to these terms affect the methods and tools that can be used in studies, especially because the meanings of these terms are often incompatible with each other. He argues that this polysemy causes practitioners to follow "separate paths on different maps" (p. 22).

After the conceptual definition, the operational definition must be determined. Operational definition refers to the procedures the phenomenon will be measured with. The operational definition of a measurement is determined after the conceptual definition. Because in cases where the variable to be measured cannot be directly observed or measured (latent variable), another variable that is assumed to represent this variable, namely the manifest variable, is measured. Since there is no consensus on conceptual definitions, it is normal for different people to have different definitions of the same structure and consequently different operational definitions. Later, a logical and numerical relationship of the structure with this manifest variable should be established (Lord & Novick, 2008). Therefore, measurements with different measurement procedures that claim to measure the same structure may have different results (Crocker & Algina, 1986). Another challenge stemming from the conceptualization issue is being unable to determine the scope of our measurement tools. It is not possible to measure the whole attribute/construct that we want to measure. As a result, only the "carefully chosen sample of behavioral dimensions" of that case is measured (Chadna, 2009, p. 18).

According to Bulmer (2001), the complexity of measurement in the social sciences stems from the existence of different positions that do not have much in common. A similar pluralism exists in SLA in terms of theories (Ellis, 2010). However, Ellis (2010) does not interpret this pluralism as negative; on the contrary, he argues that this is an indication of the intense interest towards

and richness of SLA. Conversely, considering this lack of unity as a limitation, Duncan (1984) argues that the absence of similar units similar to those in physical sciences (e.g. mass, length, etc.) in social sciences (except for economics) may be related to the fact that theories in social sciences are "fragmentary" and "undeveloped", and information is correlational rather than theoretical (p. 162).

Also relevant to the following section, not having a uniform conceptualization regarding any term incapables practitioners to adopt or develop an explicit measurement unit. This brings measurement tool development to a halt since it is expected that conceptualization instructs the development of measurement tools (Salzberger, 2018). Another similar criticism is resonated by American Physicist Richard Feynman (1981). Feynman (1981) argued that the social sciences are a pseudoscience that collects data without any rules (pseudoscience claims to be both scientific and factual, but consists of statements, beliefs, or practices that are incompatible with the scientific method (Curd & Cover, 1998)).

Another challenge in measurement is not having an absolute zero for a unit. Unlike a physical structure where an absolute zero can be easily appointed, it is not possible to determine an absolute zero in psychological structures (Chadha, 2009). In relation to this, absolute zero is required to interpret the ratio. Therefore, it would not be suitable to interpret the ratio in such measurements. For example, we cannot deduce that a student who scores 0 on a language ability exam does not have any language ability. It can only be said that the student could not answer any item correctly on the exam.

3. Tool / Method Based Challenges

Challenges encountered in the measurement also stem from tools and methods. The first related challenge arises from the lack of clear unit of measurement. As mentioned in the previous section, the absence of unified conceptualization fails to provide a clear unit of measurement (Salzberger, 2018). The absence of equal units may cause the same structure to give different results in different measurement procedures (Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2014). In addition to the fact that these units are not unified, they are also arbitrary (Blanton & Jaccard, 2006). This arbitrariness prevents us from knowing how much a unit change in the observation transforms into the variable/construct in focus (Blanton & Jaccard, 2006). Consequently, having no absolute zero and working on an arbitrary one limit us. We cannot interpret a zero as an absence of a construct. Therefore, lack of an absolute zero requires us to work with measurement tools that are based on nominal, ordinal and at most interval scales of measurement (Doğan, 2020). This restricts the statistical operations that can be used when interpreting the latent variable that is assumed to be measured through the manifest variable with ordinal or nominal data. For example, a student who scored 100 on a language ability test cannot be interpreted as having twice the foreign language proficiency of a student who scored 50 on the same test. Likewise, it is not possible to interpret the real amount of an observed unit

of rising in measurement; it can only be said that there has been an increase (Blanton & Jaccard, 2006).

Another of the main challenges is to ensure that the measurement tool is suitable for measuring the assumed attribute/construct. In order to assure this, evidence should be collected on whether the measurement tool indeed measures the attribute/construct it claims to measure (Başokçu, 2020). It is also important to keep in mind that selecting the tool to be used is another complex issue. As there are tools that can better measure each attribute/construct, each tool also has its advantages and disadvantages. This affects the difficulty or ease of measurement and whether the measurement results are meaningful or not (Başokçu, 2020). One more challenge is that the measurement of an attribute/construct depends on the "composite scores" of measures of different attributes/constructs (Furr & Bacharach, 2014, p. 43). Although composite scores are convenient, it is difficult to determine which attributes/constructs represent the measured attribute/construct (Furr & Bacharach, 2014; Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2014).

Relevant to the previous section, another challenge is being unable to measure the entire scope of an attribute/construct (Chadha, 2009). Capturing the entirety of an attribute/construct is not achievable because of the indefinite boundaries of the attribute/construct. Therefore, it is essential to note that inferences are made from only a limited sample of behavior that is believed to manifest the attribute/construct and this is not a complete presentation of it (Crocker & Algina, 1986). In this regard, Bachman (1995) points out a specific limitation that language testing faces, which is the requirement of teachers to measure their students' language abilities in controlled and limited conditions. However, it is unclear to what extent students' test performance is an accurate and effective indicator of their performance in real or non-test conditions. Furthermore, it is also quite difficult to determine the levels to be used to interpret the manifest variable (Chadha, 2009). Here, too, a threshold problem arises. What degree of performance can accurately represent students' language ability? Being able to answer this question brings us back to the conceptualization challenge (Bachman, 1995).

Score sensitivity is another challenge related to measurement tools. The precision of the scores in measuring the attribute/construct is important. Although this challenge exists in all areas of sciences, often poor sensitivity can easily be detected in physical sciences (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). On the other hand, determining such a problem is more complex in social sciences. That is because the presence of such a problem may not be noticed even after completing the measurement (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). Correspondingly, Başokçu (2020) states that test sensitivity is the main source of error.

Başokçu (2020) listed some features that challenge the accuracy and effectiveness of measurement tools. These are as follows;

- Unclear instructions (defects standardization in practice)
- Using sentence structures and words that are not suitable for the target audience,

- Not ordering the test items properly (easy questions should be presented at the beginning and at the end)
- Presence of response patterns (p. 64).

Also relevant to the following section, bias can be another challenging issue that can flaw the measurement process. Bias is systematically putting a group's performance at a disadvantage (Shepard et al., 1981). Bias can be in favor or against according to the group's gender, educational background, knowledge regarding a specific area, first language, or ethnicity (Elder, 2012). According to Kunnan (2007), there are three elements that contribute to bias in testing;

1. Using content or a language variety that is considered offensive or insulting to a group of people.
2. Causing a specific group of people to perform poorly on a test item.
3. Lacking standardization for measurement conditions.

A practitioner may unwittingly prefer a measurement tool or method that is biased. This is a great danger to the fairness of the test which also creates validity issues. Although there are various attempts to eliminate or minimize test bias, according to Elder (2012), the absence of bias in language assessment is unrealistic and unachievable.

Considering the above-listed challenges, we can say that there is a chicken-and-egg problem. While these challenges may result in utilizing measurement tools with flawed psychometric properties, the lack of understanding of psychometric properties may also cause poorly constructed tools to be used in measurement (Furr & Bacharach, 2014) that can also be mentioned as another challenge.

4. Human Factors Based Challenges

While procedures and tools are important for measurement, another important factor is the people involved in the measurement. This is because people make decisions in measurement, not procedures or tools (Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2014). Therefore, human factors are considered one of the sources of the challenges experienced in measurements. These challenges can be caused by the person making the measurement or the person being measured. Bias, which was mentioned in the previous section, may also be dependent on human factors. Bias that the rater has about a particular group or person may affect the measurement results and cause a systematic error. Notions such as halo/horns effect (rater's tendency to evaluate a person positively or negatively according to a single feature being positive or negative), central tendency bias (rater's effort to gather measurement scores while scoring people at the center on a scale), leniency/strictness bias (rater's tendency to give overly high or overly low scores), similar-to-me effect (rater favoring people that is similar to him/her) can affect the type of bias. This remains a threat to the validity of the measurement as it is difficult to determine the amount and direction of bias. In some cases, people participating in the measurement may have the

impression that there is a bias in the measurement, even if there is none. For example, Kaplan and Saccuzzo (2018) note that the specific demographic information demanded in the measurement or the stated purpose of the measurement may cause minorities to experience "self-doubts" which cause poor performance due to stereotypes (stereotype threat) (p. 518). This may prevent the measurement from achieving its purpose (Chadna, 2009). It is also noteworthy that while there are researchers who argue that race may cause bias in measurements or cause different effects, it is still debated whether these differences are due to race or chance (Letukas, 2015).

Another issue is the preparation of measurement tools in accordance with the group that usually constitutes the majority of the population. Therefore, whether these groups have the same educational goals and a similar amount of motivation is one of the questions raised in this regard (Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2014). For example, the essentiality of learning English as a foreign language may not have the same importance for a minority student as for others. Thus, the measurement of these students with different motivations, priorities, and educational goals by the same English exam may not yield correct results.

Challenges can also stem from the people being measured. People can react in ways that can flaw the measurement process. Participant reactivity is a well-known challenge in regard to this issue. Participant reactivity, also known as observer's paradox or Hawthorne effect (Furr & Bacharach, 2014), is the influence of measurement itself on the psychological state or process being measured. This influence may cause people being measured to behave differently due to various reasons. For example, people being measured may try to understand the purpose of the measurement and try to give answers that they think are desired (demand characteristic), people may try to change their behavior in order to influence the person conducting the measurement (social desirability), some individuals may consciously change their behavior in a bad/poor way (malingering) (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

5. Conclusion

This chapter aims to briefly present the reflections of the challenges of the measurements in social sciences on the measurements in foreign language education. Challenges influence the measurement and prevent us from interpreting the results confidently. It becomes crucial, considering that measurement is at the heart of both education and sciences. Therefore, being aware of and understanding those challenges may help to minimize the effects of those challenges. To this end, challenges are sorted into and separately described under three categories. Although there are different challenges under these three categories, all of these categories are actually interrelated and contain overlapping challenges. These three categories are attribute/construct based, tool/method based, and human factors based.

It is obvious that a teacher must be careful when measuring, and interpreting results. That is because measurements in social sciences present special challenges and the measurement can only provide results that are convergent to reality and not the exact reality itself. Therefore, a

teacher being conscious of these challenges while taking action according to measurement results would be prudent and responsible. Moreover, it may be appropriate to develop the measurement processes very carefully with informed decisions and perhaps accompanied by an expert. In summary, these challenges should always inform our understanding and interpretation of our measurements. Additionally, we should always generate informed decisions to reduce the effects of these challenges.

Despite the impossibility of completely getting rid of those challenges, it may be possible to minimize those or reduce their effects. For example, even though many of these challenges arise from the nature of the attribute/construct, new studies can improve our operations for the better (Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2014). Furthermore, we can raise the awareness of pre-service teachers through related courses during teacher training. Moreover, considering that measurements in foreign language education have unique challenges (authenticity, real-world performance, etc.), these challenges, and their influence should be one of the main topics to be covered in both pre-and in-service teacher training. Lastly, considering that the studies in the field of foreign language education shape language education and foreign language teacher education, it is very important to raise awareness among researchers about these challenges.

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TEACHING AND ASSESSING SPEAKING

Ahmet ÖNAL

1. Introduction

The integral role played by the skill of speaking in the process of communication cannot be overstated and it can be argued that we speak more than we write. However, most of the learners especially in English as a foreign language contexts (including Turkey) state that *they can understand but they cannot speak* when it comes to communicating in English. Accordingly, this chapter aims to provide pre-service and in-service English language teachers with some useful ideas for teaching and testing the skill of speaking. More specifically, the chapter outlines the process and different types of speaking, identifies the difficulties encountered when teaching/testing speaking and offers solutions, reviews alternative ways of testing speaking and focuses on the use of rubrics and the responsibility of the test designers and raters throughout the process of assessment of speaking.

Traditional view of second/ foreign language teaching literature divides four language skills into two; namely, listening and reading are regarded as *receptive* skills whereas speaking and writing are considered as *productive* skills since users of a language are expected to produce written or spoken texts as a consequence of their performance. Although both writing and speaking are seen as productive skills, differences between speaking and writing have been highlighted by many researchers (Louma, 2004; Nunan, 2015; Richards, 2015). For instance, while writing is primarily based on sentences, speech is more organized around idea units (Louma, 2004). We make use of punctuation to organize our writing; however, in speech, intonation, pitch and stress substitute punctuation. In writing, we have the chance and time to modify and improve our product until we feel satisfied with it in most cases; however, speaking is similar to first draft writing and we rarely have the chance to do a second draft (Nunan, 2015). This inventory of differences can be extended even to the people addressed. When we write, most of the time, we do not see the instant reactions of our readers; however, when we speak to some people (as long as it is an interaction that involves at least two parties), we generally get some clue from the facial expressions of the interlocutors even if they do not respond to our message orally.

2. What does Speaking Involve?

It has been observed by Richards (2015) that learners take hundreds of hours of English courses, learn (or, in some cases, *memorize*) hundreds or even thousands of new words and/or grammatical structures and sit for and pass many written – often multiple choice – exams; however, they tend to evaluate their progress and the efficiency of the English program on the basis of how much they have improved their speaking skills. Thus, it has been argued that knowing a language is assumed as being able to speak that language (Nunan, 2015) and the crucial role played by speaking in the whole process of communication has been frequently highlighted (Richards, 2015; Yaman & Özcan, 2015). A judicious command of vocabulary and grammar is essential, but not sufficient for effective communication (Nunan, 2015) and such other competences as sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences, phonological skills,

speech function, interactional skills, extended discourse skills, and conversation management strategies are also needed (Bohlke, 2014; Goh, 2007; Szymańska-Czaplak, 2015; Yaman & Özcan, 2015).

More precisely, the act of speaking involves, first of all, having an opinion to express; and then, finding the appropriate words and organizing them into units in one's mind. Speech organs should be employed to articulate and convey the message and it should be constantly monitored and corrected if any mistakes are committed. The speaker should also be aware of social, cultural, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and discursive conventions while planning and delivering his/her message (Watkins, 2005), which further complicates the whole process. Put differently, as has been put forward by Levelt (1993), four stages (conceptualization, formulation, articulation and self-monitoring) are essential for oral production. The speaker, first of all, needs to plan or *conceptualize* the content of his/her message. The content should be *formulated* in appropriate words and/or phrases in line with grammatical conventions. Then, the message should be physically produced or *articulated* using the speech organs and the speaker needs to control the whole process with the help of his/her *self-monitor*. This four-stage process may seem extremely laborious and time-consuming; nevertheless, as the speaker practices and gains automaticity, his/her fluency as well as accuracy will also develop (Harmer, 2007).

3. Types of Speaking

The skill of speaking has traditionally been regarded as an individual entity in itself; however, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) draws a line between *productive* and *interactive* speaking (Council of Europe, 2001). Interactive speaking refers to spontaneous exchange characteristic of conversation whereas productive speaking involves preplanned and/or rehearsed, mostly monologue type of speech (Green, 2021). In this respect, in interactive speaking tasks, the speakers should also be effective listeners and process the input so that they can construct their own output (Galaczi & Taylor, 2021). In a similar vein, Nunan (2015) distinguishes between *reproductive* speaking, where the speaker repeats or imitates the model form s/he hears, and *creative* speaking, where speakers construct and produce their original ideas. Similarly, Louma (2004) divides speaking tasks as *structured* (in which what the learners say is precisely specified) and *open-ended* (in which various ways of fulfilling the task is allowed). According to Nunan (2015), teachers need to make the best use of both types of speaking by arranging the proportion with a specific view to the context (including the interests, aims, needs, proficiency levels of the learners) in which they function.

It should not go without saying that the skill of speaking comprises of a wide variety of *genres*, defined as "…knowledge of different types of spoken interaction, including the discourse conventions of each kind of interaction, as well as the sociocultural and pragmatic dimensions of different genres" (Richards, 2015, p. 408). Effective speakers need to engage in a diversity of genres from small talk and casual conversations to debates and transactions when communicating in their daily lives; therefore, a wide range of speaking activities that learners

may engage in their real lives need to be offered to the learners (Nunan, 2015; Watkins, 2005; Wigglesworth & Frost, 2017). To exemplify, learners should be required to describe, narrate, instruct, inform, explain, complain, persuade, predict, decide, compare and/or contrast when speaking because people speak with such aims in mind in real life (Louma, 2004). It should also be noted that some individuals are naturally good at, let's say, narrating, but not so good at complaining. Therefore, providing them with a variety of speech acts, types and genres will possibly help them improve their weaknesses.

4. Activities to Teach / Practice Speaking

The ideas presented in this section of the chapter should be taken as suggestions based on the review of the relevant literature since the array of activities that can be utilized when teaching or practicing speaking is only limited to the creativity and imagination of the teacher. To start with, it has been recommended that activities that feature an *information gap* should be employed because they promise to generate real conversation by encouraging negotiation of meaning, which is regarded as vital for language acquisition (Harmer, 2007; Nunan, 2015). It should also be noted that speaking lessons that encourage creativity provide the learners with an ideal and protected environment, which enables them to improve their self-confidence (Watkins, 2005) and learners at lower levels (CEFR A1 – B1) may need verbal or visual interactional support (or *scaffolding*) when they are asked to speak (Galaczi & Taylor, 2021). As to the dichotomy between *fluency* and *accuracy*, it has been asserted that fluent but inaccurate, or accurate but disfluent speakers cannot be regarded as effective communicators; hence, teachers should try to provide the learners with practice for both fluency and accuracy (Nunan, 2015). Furthermore, *integration* of four skills in the processes of both teaching and testing has been strongly advocated since, in our real lives, we rarely use one skill in isolation (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Harmer, 2007; Louma, 2004). Likewise, input on which the learners may construct their output should be presented in various forms and modalities and teachers need to try to make the best use of the latest innovations in technology (Nakatsuhara et al., 2022). As an example, the topic for a discussion activity may be related to a video that learners have been assigned to watch prior to the class. Likewise, web 2.0 tools may be effectively utilized to provide the learners with the necessary input and encourage oral production.

Traditional activities such as reading aloud, sentence repetition/completion, ordering activities and cued dialogues – though lacking creativity and information-gap – may be employed to practice speaking. Similarly, picture description, question and answer, story-(re)telling, personal recounts, class questionnaires/surveys, 'find the difference' pictures may also be used as speaking practice activities (Baker & Westrup, 2000; Harmer, 2007; Louma, 2004; Nakatsuhara et al., 2021; Nakatsuhara et al., 2022; Richards, 2015). Elicited imitation tasks, in which learners are asked to read aloud written sentences or listen to utterances and repeat them, have recently regained their popularity as well, as a response to the developments in automated speech recognition and evaluation technology (Nakatsuhara et al., 2022). Furthermore, problem

solving activities, oral presentations, role plays, simulations, reacting in given situations, (group/pair) discussions, games, competitions, interviews, moral dilemmas and debates may be used to encourage and improve learners' speaking skills (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Galaczi & Taylor, 2021; Harmer, 2007; Louma, 2004; Watkins, 2005).

As has been reported by Nunan (2015), more than half of the class time is occupied by teacher talk; however, speaking is learnt and improved by speaking, which implies that students' talking time needs to be maximized. One way of achieving this, especially in crowded classrooms, is to carefully organize pair- and group-work, which may contribute to the interactional competence of the learners by enhancing their skills in agenda, turn and topic management, non-verbal behavior (including eye contact, facial expression, posture, etc.), negotiation of meaning, turn-taking, back-channelling, speaker selection and change, among many others (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Galaczi & Taylor, 2021; Nakatsuhara et al., 2022; Richards, 2015). Furthermore, as opposed to teacher-to-learner or learner-to-teacher interaction, such learner-to-learner interaction will be more real life-like as learners can be considered in equal power positions (Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015; Louma, 2004). It should be cautioned at this point that there are several drawbacks of pair-/group-work activities such as increased native language use, deviation from the actual activity or domination of the activity by an individual student; thus, teachers should closely monitor their students to ensure that each student is on task and offer scaffolding when needed. In this respect, the effect of the interlocutor has been regarded as a decisive factor for the success of the communication process because interlocutors need to collaborate and negotiate meaning throughout the process (Brown, 2012; Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Gablasova, 2021; Galaczi & Taylor, 2021; Green, 2021; Louma, 2004; Nakatsuhara et al., 2022; Nunan, 1991; Ross, 2012). More precisely, specific features of a partner such as his/her gender, personality, appearance, accent, communication style and even language level may exert either constructive or destructive influence on the performance of his/her partner (Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015; Louma, 2004). Therefore, when pair-/group-work activities are to be employed for instructional and/or assessment purposes, the effects of the interlocutors need to be taken into account.

5. Problems in Teaching Speaking

The main problem in the teaching of speaking, according to Watkins (2005), is that when a lesson is focused on speaking, some learners may feel dissatisfied and some teachers may feel guilty due to not learning or teaching something with a clear and tangible outcome. In other words, some students cannot quite see the point of the class unless they take notes, deal with structures or do some rote memorization. In this respect, the task of the teacher is, first of all, to transform the classroom into a '*talking classroom*' by building a classroom culture of speaking (Harmer, 2007) because teaching a second/foreign language and language skill is quite different from teaching geography or physics. It is true that students can learn geography or physics by listening to lectures, taking notes, memorizing formulae and solving problems; in contrast, students can learn speaking in a second/foreign language only by speaking.

Additionally, the context in which the instruction is offered should be taken into consideration by the teachers because learners in a second language context have greater opportunities to get exposed to and use the target language when compared with their counterparts in a foreign language context (Nunan, 2015). Put differently, classroom is possibly the only place where they can get exposed to, practice and speak English for learners in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, which has significant implications for the teachers.

Another point to consider is that speaking is generally regarded as the most anxiety-provoking aspect of second/foreign language education (Büyükkarcı, 2017; Cheng et al., 1999; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Kitano, 2001; Marzec-Stawiarska, 2015) and some students may feel shy and anxious to speak (Watkins, 2005). A supportive and encouraging classroom atmosphere is essential for such students to overcome their negative feelings and mistakes committed by learners should be handled with great care so as not to discourage them. It has been observed by Louma (2004) that teachers tend to offer informal feedback for speaking, which is hardly organized and informative to the learners. However, useful feedback should be concrete, descriptive, instructive and constructive. As the focus is on fluency when teaching speaking, correction for the mistakes should be offered positively and without discouraging the learners (Baker & Westrup, 2000; Harmer, 2007; Nunan, 2015).

6. Assessment of Speaking

Before we start our discussion on *how* to assess speaking, a more central question awaits its answer: *Should we assess speaking?* The reason why this section of the chapter begins with such a question lies in the experiences and observations of the author of the chapter. Strictly speaking, some English language teachers in Turkish context (and possibly in many other contexts) simply do not assess their learners' speaking skills. Some of these teachers blame the strict and overloaded curriculum and/or textbooks mandated by the Ministry of National Education, crowded classrooms, tight schedule, lack of time and/or expertise, centrally organized (high-stakes) exams and even their students (as they lack the interest and motivation) for not testing speaking. They may be justified to some extent; yet, it would not be possible to improve learners' speaking skills and encourage positive washback unless the skill of speaking is tested (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Louma, 2004). This implies that English language teachers should certainly assess speaking whatever obstacles they encounter if they are to improve their learners' speaking skills.

The assessment of productive skills, in particular the skill of speaking, has been attached greater significance (Richards, 2015), yet it presents several challenges for the test designers and teachers since it is an expensive, time consuming, logistically-complex and resource-intensive endeavor (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Hingle & Linington, 2002; Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015; Nakatsuhara et al., 2021; Önalan, 2020) and the best way of testing speaking is getting learners to speak directly via well-organized tasks (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Green, 2021; He & Young, 1998) since it features higher content validity (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018).

Put differently, just asking the test-takers to *speak* is not the proper way of testing speaking because assessment of speaking also involves the assessment of pronunciation, intelligibility, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, coherence, cohesion and the ability to interact and adjust one's speech to a particular social context (Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015). Therefore, it would be justified to argue that the design, delivery and scoring of speaking tests demand a great deal of planning, effort, expertise, investment and time. As an example, it has been suggested that developers of speaking assessments should *a)* define the kind of speaking they want to test in a particular context; *b)* develop tasks and rating criteria that test this (including instructions and materials, pictures, role cards, etc.); *c)* inform the examinees about what they test; and *d)* make sure that the testing and rating processes actually follow the stated plans (Louma, 2004, pp. 28-29). This clearly shows that a paradigm shift is called for in the assessment practices and non-traditional, or more precisely, *alternative* ways of assessment need to be designed and adopted.

6.1. Modern ideas for assessment of speaking

Activities suggested for the teaching of speaking skill can also be effectively adapted and employed for the assessment of speaking. Considering the level of the learners and the purpose of the assessment, traditional techniques such as reading aloud, sentence repetition, cued dialogues, picture description and story-(re)telling, among a plethora of others, can be utilized (Harmer, 2007; Louma, 2004; Richards, 2015). On the other hand, techniques that embody information-gap and call for more creativity such as problem-solving, role plays, simulations, debates, discussions and interviews may also be used to test learners' speaking skills (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Galaczi & Taylor, 2021; Harmer, 2007; Louma, 2004; Watkins, 2005). More specifically, oral interviews have been regarded as good examples of performance-based language assessment techniques (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018) and they can be implemented face-to-face or, thanks to the innovations in technology, through web-conferencing programs or applications, which enable two or more users in different locations to see and hear each other and interact in real time via high-speed internet connection and mobile tools such as smartphones, tablets or laptops (Lim, 2018; Loranc-Paszylk, 2015; Louma, 2004; Nakatsuhara et al., 2021; Nakatsuhara et al., 2022). One big advantage of such technology is the possibility of recording the meetings, which allows the rater to watch and re-watch the performances of the learners and score them more accurately rather than relying on his/her memory as to the performance of a specific learner (Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015). During the global COVID-19 pandemic, almost all kinds of social, professional and educational interactions had to be conducted online and it seems highly likely that the conveniences offered by the internet and computer technology will not be discarded in the *new normal* period; thus, the use of web-conferencing tools for both teaching and testing speaking contributes to authenticity since it reflects real-life experiences of the learners (Nakatsuhara et al., 2022).

6.2. Alternative assessment of speaking

Traditional assessment usually deals with what learners know (declarative knowledge); however, alternative assessment focuses more on what learners can do (procedural knowledge) in the target language (Huerta-Macías, 2002; Ross, 2012). As has been reported by Brown and Abeywickrama (2018), a more student-centered agenda is kept by language teachers and testers across the globe and the use of alternative assessment methods such as portfolios, interviews, journals, project work, self- or peer-assessment, checklists of student behaviors or products, reading logs, videos of role plays and discussions, self-evaluation questionnaires, work samples, and teacher observations or anecdotal records has been suggested (Huerta-Macías, 2002; Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015; Louma, 2004; Richards & Renandya, 2002) because they give the learners the chance to control and regulate their own learning by involving them more in the process and placing them in the center (Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015; Richards, 2015; Richards & Renandya, 2002). In other words, students become more *autonomous* and develop more engagement in their own destiny (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018). Peer-assessment, for instance, encourages learners to learn from and collaborate with each other by paying more attention to what their peers are saying when they are not speaking themselves (Jankowska & Zielińska, 2015; Louma, 2004). As a result, teachers get the chance to save some time and effort by sharing the responsibility of giving feedback. It should be highlighted that this does not come to mean that self- or peer-assessment should replace teacher assessment but they can certainly supplement it.

6.3. Rubric use in the assessment of speaking

For the assessment of performance, a *scoring rubric* (or a rating scale) that includes the criteria upon which the scoring is based is essential (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Fulcher, 2012; Galaczi & Lim, 2022; Kuiken & Vedder, 2021; Richards, 2015; Wigglesworth & Frost, 2017; Xi, 2012) although many other less reliable ways of scoring performance such as *impression scoring* (in which an arbitrary score based on the highly subjective judgment of the rater is assigned to performances), *error counts* (in which points are deducted for each error in the performance) and *checklists* (which include descriptors of the desired level of performance that need to be ticked or crossed by the rater) have also been utilized (Green, 2021). The main problem with impression scoring is its highly subjective (and thus, unreliable) nature. Similarly, learners tend to avoid taking risks by producing shorter and simpler sentences so as not to make mistakes if they know that their errors are counted. Checklists, on the other hand, can be regarded as precursors of rubrics as they also involve performance descriptors; however, checklists do not allow the raters to grade or weigh the descriptors in line with the requirements of the test purpose and context. At this point, the design and wording of the descriptors has been addressed by many researchers in that they should be brief, clear, explicit, concrete, practical, consistent, transparent and standards-based (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Council of Europe, 2001; Kuiken & Vedder, 2021).

Owing to the problems associated with impression scoring, error counts and checklists, raters and test-designers more commonly employ holistic and analytical scoring rubrics. In *holistic* scoring, a single number is used to score a speech sample and that specific number is a generalization of the performance of the test-taker on many other possible speaking tasks (Fulcher, 2012; Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Green, 2021; Kuiken & Vedder, 2021; Louma, 2004; Richards, 2015). On the other hand, raters are required to award a certain number of different scores distributed and weighted over a range of criteria in *analytical* scoring (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Galaczi & Lim, 2022; Green, 2021; Richards, 2015). It has been reported that holistic scoring is easy to use, practical and produces higher inter-rater reliability at the cost of validity (Galaczi & Lim, 2022; Louma, 2004; Weigle, 2002). It has also been noted that holistic scoring cannot provide the learners with correction, feedback, or diagnosis as to their individual performances, which is possible with analytical scoring (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Hamp-Lyons, 1991; Kuiken & Vedder, 2021; Louma, 2004). Although it takes longer to score the performance of test-takers using an analytical rubric, it is believed that raters can understand and apply the criteria more accurately since the descriptors are designed in a more detailed fashion (Kuiken & Vedder, 2021). As can be seen, both holistic and analytical scoring have their pros and cons. Accordingly, Fulcher (2012) argues that the purpose and context of assessment need to be taken into account when deciding on the scoring approach to be employed since "…one scoring approach is not inherently superior to another" (Galaczi & Lim, 2022, p. 500).

Apart from the type of the scoring rubric employed, *reliability* emerges as an important aspect to be considered in the assessment of speaking and qualified raters as well as high-quality scoring instruments and procedures are essential for ensuring high reliability (Louma, 2004). When two (or more) raters are scoring the same performance, the degree to which the raters agree with each other is referred to as *inter-rater reliability* and the degree to which an individual rater agrees with him/herself when scoring the same performance on different occasions is defined as *intra-rater reliability* (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Louma, 2004). In tests that require subjective judgment of the raters, high level of intra-rater and inter-rater reliability is desirable since "…it should be *a matter of indifference to a test taker who scores the performance*" (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 131) and one rater should be interchangeable with another rater from the perspective of the test-taker (Brown, 2012).

6.4. Rater training for the assessment of speaking

In many types of speaking tests, the rater needs to fulfill a dual task; s/he has to act as an interlocutor and score the performance of the test-taker, which is a challenging undertaking and which may result in the rather undesirable *rater effect*. The rater effect, which involves variables such as raters' decision-making styles, demographic backgrounds, training and experience as well as test-takers' acquaintanceship, gender, extroversion, talkativeness, cultural background, and language proficiency should also be paid precise attention in performance assessment and needs to be minimized to achieve higher reliability (Brown, 2012; Brown & Abeywickrama,

2018; Davis, 2022; Galaczi & Lim, 2022; Galaczi & Taylor, 2021; Nakatsuhara et al., 2022; Ross, 2012; Wigglesworth & Frost, 2017). As can be inferred, the assessment of performance calls for qualified and trained personnel since just asking the test-takers to speak or write will not work and the performance must be elicited through well-designed tests and capable raters (Brown, 2012; Louma, 2004). Accordingly, the significance and necessity of regular training of all the staff, in particular the raters, responsible for the administration of the test and achieving standardization has been repeatedly highlighted (Brown, 2012; Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018; Davis, 2022; Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Gablasova, 2021; Galaczi & Lim, 2022; Green, 2021; Hamp-Lyons, 1991; Kuiken & Vedder, 2021; Louma, 2004; Lumley, 2002; Ross, 2012; Wigglesworth & Frost, 2017) since it is the raters who mediate between the rubric and the performance by paying more attention to certain dimensions of the rubric and the specific performance (Pill & Smart, 2021). It has also been noted that such rater training programs can be conducted online so that logistical barriers can be overcome (Brown, 2012).

7. Conclusion

Although there are a multitude ways of communication among humans (such as writing, sign languages, use of body language, pictures and signs, etc.), speaking has always functioned as the basic way of interaction. This implies that due importance needs to be given to both teaching and testing the skill of speaking. To do this, first of all, the nature of the speaking skill should be clearly defined and understood by the teachers. They should be able design and deliver speaking tasks that feature authenticity and information-gap, encourage learners' creativity and imagination and involve real communication while both teaching and testing speaking. In addition, these tasks need to include variety since, as has been asserted by Green (2021) and Nakatsuhara et al. (2022), there is no perfect assessment task or tool that can be employed in any context and for any purpose; therefore, it would be wise to provide our learners with a wide variety of assessment tasks and tools in order to offset the weaknesses of a specific task or tool via the strengths of another task or tool. It is true that teaching and testing of speaking is a demanding undertaking that requires plenty of time, effort, investment and commitment; however, there is no other way of achieving this.

It should also be noted that we are living in the age of technology and today's students (labeled as *digital* natives) are continuously immersed in the latest technological tools. Teachers should also try to make the best use of the technology to overcome some of the problems that accompany the attempts to teach and assess speaking. For instance, Nakatsuhara et al. (2021) draw attention to the innovations in the fields of speech science, automatic speech recognition, and deep neural networking technologies, which have the potential to assist teachers in the teaching and assessment of speaking and suggest that, though the innovations are not yet mature enough to substitute us, they can support, facilitate and supplement us in designing, implementing and scoring tests (Brown, 2012; Galaczi & Lim, 2022; Lim, 2018). Therefore, it may be possible to teach and test speaking without exerting too much effort and spending excessive time with the help of such innovations.

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A USEFUL ASSESSMENT TOOL: RUBRICS IN SECOND / FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

Devrim HÖL

If students know what the learning target is, they are better able to hit it (Stiggins, 2001).

1. Introduction

Do these words sound familiar? 'How come I didn't get an A or a 100? Why exactly did I lose points? Is there anything else I can do to enhance my grades?' Current foreign language teaching students appear to be commonly concerned about grading and assessment. Information is obtained, formed, and distributed at such a quick rate in today's society that it has become a core priority and a key attribute of wealthy civilizations (Sert, 2008), and as a result, individuals must be evaluated in all aspects of our lives, including achievement, actions, and relationships. When we focus on the educational side of the assessment, each participant—teacher and learner—requires clear assessments in order to understand what they will do or have already done during the course of their learning and teaching process. Some claim that questioning marks are a natural effect of poor teaching or the use of questionable assessment instruments, while others argue that it is a result of academic standards and a student population used to honoring fewer achievements (O'Donnell et al., 2011). Teachers may be concerned about having their authority called into question, but they may also have some concerns about creating an efficient grading procedure and may rely on 'instinct grading'. As a consequence, when asked to present evidence for academic assessments, they are unable to respond. This assessing with uncertainty is an important aspect that has a vital effect not just in learning, but also in testing in the second language. From this perspective, testing affects learning in EFL classrooms either in a positive or a negative way, so this makes, language testing a critical issue in the realm of education (Ali et al., 2020) because tests and tasks not only assist in identifying problems that students are experiencing, but also in improving methods of teaching and learning. In this critical period, an effective tool that will uncover this obscurity is required, and 'rubrics' can be viewed as one of the most effective tools in education. Rubrics may be defined as an explicit set of guidelines used for grading a specific sort of work or accomplishment (Saritha, 2016), and they can also function as a scoring instrument that gives the standards for a piece of content (Andrade, 2000). It also shows the student's grades, which range from excellent to poor (Ali et al., 2020).

2. Definition of Rubric

A rubric is primarily a grid-based instrument with levels of success and clearly stated criteria for each level. Rubrics differ from basic checklists and grading scales in that each criterion for each level of achievement is described (Taylor & Galaczi, 2011). Educators have widely disparate conceptions of the term rubric. (Reddy & Andramade, 2010). A common definition is a statement that expresses the objectives for a task by specifying the parameters or what contributes and provides degrees of performance ranging from extraordinary to poor (Arter &

Chappuis, 2007; Stiggins, 2001). Rubrics are analytical grading techniques developed by teachers or other assessors to aid in the investigation of the consequences or processes of students' actions (Moskal, 2000). It is the most commonly utilized technique for evaluating performance and flaws. A rubric is a tool used to define a level of performance on a scale and to identify specific criteria for evaluating speaking or writing skills (Crusan, 2015).

A rubric must include three components: a) assessment parameters, b) grade standards, and c) a grading mechanism (Popham, 1997). An assessor analyzes assessment methods while assessing the grade of a student's performance. The criteria, often known as a collection of indicators or a list of recommendations, represent the procedures and content deemed important (Parke, 2001). Performance definitions explain in detail what a learner needs to do in order to show a skill, competency, or criteria in order to obtain a specific degree of achievement, such as poor, fair, good, or excellent. The performance standards address the need to differentiate between good and poor responses for scoring and providing feedback to students. Rubric scoring procedures include the use of a measure to interpret judgments of a product or activity. Teachers frequently use rubrics to judge student work, but many authors contend that they can also serve another, more significant function: Rubrics can both teach and evaluate when utilized by students as a component of a formative evaluation of their tasks in preparation (Arter & McTighe, 2001; Stiggins, 2001). Rubrics, when used as a component of a student-centered method of assessment, can assist students to grasp the goals of their learning and the quality requirements for a specific assignment, as well as make reliable assessments regarding their own performance that can influence modification and progress. Although some studies (Song, 2006) investigate how diagnostic feedback obtained by using a rubric might be utilized to pinpoint areas for development in training, other studies use rubrics merely to assess student performance (Campbell, 2005; Tunon & Brydges, 2006). Rubrics, according to Andrade (2005), can be used for both teaching and evaluative reasons. Several academics describe such applications and present evidence that rubrics aid in learning and teaching (Andrade & Du, 2005; Osana & Seymour, 2004; Powell, 2001; Reitmeier et al., 2004; Schneider, 2006). Rubrics are also utilized in the assessment of programs (Dunbar et al., 2006; Knight, 2006; Oakleaf, 2006; Reddy & Andrade, 2010).

3. Why Rubrics?

There is no disagreement that students' scores and performance must be reviewed. It is also vital to accomplish this with both simple comments and grading in this process. Grading must be done on some criteria, and the teacher cannot do it randomly (Janssen et al., 2015). A rubric is one of these fundamentals (Ghosh et al., 2016). Rubrics may help learners improve and strengthen their ability to think critically (Andrea, 2000; Arter & Chappuis, 2007; Stiggins, 2001; Wong, 2015). It can also provide students with an efficient way to assess their own students' writing skills and discover their writing weaknesses and limitations, resulting in improved writing outputs and higher scores (Silva, 2014). Scoring rubrics are useful because they define the construction to be completed and evaluated. Rubrics "help explain terms and

clarify expectations" (Crusan, 2010, p. 43). It describes various subcategories in education, such as evaluation criteria, learning evaluation, and learning gradients of a set of guidelines (Brown & Kondo-Brown, 2012). Weigle (2002) describes how the grading process utilizing rubrics can be especially "critical because the score is ultimately what will be used in making decisions and inferences about writers" (p. 108). Rubrics can also serve to alleviate the well-known issue of rater variability (Bachman et al., 1995; McNamara, 1996).

4. The Importance of a Reliable Scoring Procedure

As Weigle (2002) explicitly indicates, while conducting timed assessments, it is critical to verify that the judgments we make regarding students' abilities are appropriate. As a result, developing a trustworthy method for deriving meaningful inferences is critical—without such a method, we cannot properly estimate the component we are attempting to measure. Reliability, as conventionally defined, is the assessment of regularity and irregularity in students' performance test scores (Feldt & Brennan, 1989). 'Consistency' implies that students should be capable of performing at a level similar to equivalent tests, and if they are not, the assessment procedure's reliability is called into doubt.

'Educating the examiners' is the primary and most critical technique to assure reliability. Educating assessors in the usage of the measure so that they recognize how other assessors give scores and why they do so contributes to the reliability of this assessment technique (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Indeed, Vaughan (1991) argues that "researchers looking at holistic assessment have often assumed that given a scale that describes the characteristics of an essay at each level, trained raters will assess the essays, in the same way, every time" (p. 112). Irrespective of the rating system employed, it is critical to have standards to assess the dependability of scores provided to a piece of task by different assessors. It is because if two assessors cannot be proven to properly evaluate individuals based on observable actions, then further studies of those justices' evaluations will produce incorrect results (Stemler, 2004). Establishing reasonable limits of inter-rater concordance and, as a result, reliability is required. Stemler (2004) proposes three methods for calculating inter-rater agreement:

1. Estimates of consensus—the level to which assessors offer a relatively similar rating.

2. Estimates of consistency—the level to which the distribution of ratings is equivalent among assessors.

3. Estimates of measurement—the level to which grades can be credited to prevalent grading instead of to error elements.

Three additional approaches may be employed to supplement the reliability proof (East, 2009). To begin, intra-rater reliability measurements provide additional evidence of the stability of a one-rater scoring the very same documents twice. When 2 or more samples of paper by the same student are provided, the assessment of one can be matched to the evaluation of the other.

If, for example, the writing tasks are comparable, this evidence is especially essential since it is reasonable to expect that student performance on two activities that are equivalent but not identical will reveal comparable proficiency levels and a reliable scoring system should be capable of detecting this. Finally, manuscripts and grades can be analyzed. If a scoring criterion is regularly used, it is reasonable to believe that the writing of those who receive higher grades will be manifestly greater on a qualitative basis. The extent to which scores raise in path with advancements in scope and complexity of lexis and grammar accuracy, if assessors are affected by variables such as scope and complexity of lexis and grammar, and if a given scale score enables assessors to differentiate productions in these two aspects, indicate reliable scoring (East, 2009).

5. Rubric in Foreign Language Teaching

5.1. The significance of using rubrics in assessment, testing, and evaluation process

A rubric is an essential assessment tool that explains performance objectives for a portion of the output. Rubrics are routinely used to assess students' progress, but they can also fulfill another, possibly more important, aim: they can both teach and assess (Andrade & Du, 2005). Rubrics have the ability to assist students to build a "vision of success" and "making reliable judgments about the level of their own performance" when utilized as a component of a formative, student-centered method of evaluation (Stiggins, 2001, p. 11). Furthermore, rubrics are composed of predefined assessment scales and a list of criteria that aid in objectively evaluating the outcome (Saritha, 2016), and when properly developed, they can facilitate learning in the main objectives and preparation (Yen, 2018). Furthermore, beyond regular assessment, rubrics can help students learn skills and comprehension, as well as establish appropriate assessments of the quality of their own performance (Andrade et al., 2008; Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). According to Beyreli and Ari's (2009) study, the analytic rubric should be utilized to analyze textual phrases. Thus, it helps teachers to discover deficiencies in students' writing skills prior to the beginning of the school semester, react to these deficiencies, and employ a suitable strategy. Furthermore, analytic scoring assists instructors in their classroom instruction and learners in their writing process, giving them more knowledge about the current situation and assisting in the identification of the strong and weak parts of students' writing owing to more ordered and thorough feedback, according to Crehan (1997). Rubrics are essential for assessing students' performance effectively and objectively. They help to ensure fairness and consistency among students. They are also useful in relieving students' concerns over grading and evaluating. "Rubrics are especially valued in the language classroom because they contribute to student learning and bring transparency to the assessment process" (Jeong, 2015, p.1). They also help teachers save time. Teachers can save time by restricting the field of evaluation to targeted learning outcomes using rubrics. Rubrics can be used by teachers to assess a diverse variety of tasks. According to Saritha (2016), rubrics aid in categorizing essays, research papers, portfolios, and pieces of art, as well as recitals, public speaking, presentations, and team projects. Furthermore, rubrics improve testing reliability and validity (Dawson, 2015).

A few teachers in foreign language education utilize standardized tests to evaluate students, which has no good impact on the students. According to Blaz (2013), when teachers begin using performance evaluation, nearly all of them report that the level of their students' performance increases. This is attributable to a variety of reasons, including:

1. Clarity: When learners understand what is expected of them, they are more prone to perform it.

2. Confidence: Recognizing the assignment requirements aims to provide students with proper instructions and deadlines for their assignment, and they feel certain that they are completing the task correctly.

3. High expectations: A well-written rubric specifies what a great product is and communicates the strong message that by following those criteria, anybody can create products of that level.

4. Student engagement: Students are more likely to complete assignments when the performance evaluation is particularly genuine.

5. Parent understanding: Performance evaluations are invaluable for validating the teacher's assessment during parental meetings or public houses.

Another factor rubrics help with evaluation is 'consistency'. Standard test theory, according to Mislevy and Sheehan (1989), is 'inconsistent' with modern developments in educational and cognitive psychology. According to the study (Blaz, 2013), instead of training that stresses memorizing, students should be taught how to arrange data, make it simple to recall, and use it in real-world circumstances. This is why the new state guidelines emphasize and specify the students' progress rubric, which should be tested most of the time. Finally, rubrics are useful for tracking students' engagement in classroom activities. According to Buttner's (2013) study, teachers should utilize the rubric as a device to address behavioral concerns with kids having familiarity and the tendency for the evaluation process and criteria as well as to encourage other students' outstanding achievements.

Teachers should utilize rubrics because they help students learn. There is little proof that rubrics influence student comprehension and evaluation, in addition to the influence of rubrics on students' progress (Andrade, 2000; Andrade & Du, 2005; Hafner & Hafner, 2003). Another study discovered that rubrics can help teachers, students, and parents track development (Ayhan & Türkyılmaz, 2015). Furthermore, when it involves evaluating, assessing, and testing skills, they are essential in language education and learning. These abilities form rubrics. We can administer many types of assessments to our pupils to learn more about their language skills. Following the test, we can conduct a routine evaluation. Thomas et al. (2004) recognize the significance of evaluation and emphasize its benefits for instructors and students in a variety of ways:

1. It gives important knowledge to help teachers enhance their teaching skills.

2. Teachers can keep track of their students' learning progress and help them improve.

3. It gives the teacher important information regarding effective teaching approaches for each student.

4. Assessment and comments can help students better grasp the learning process.

5. It allows students to build and improve their self-assessment skills, as well as to perceive assessment and evaluation as aspects of the education process.

6. Because of assessment, students can make informed judgments.

7. It aids students in their preparation for foreign tests such as the TOEFL, IELTS, and PTE Academic.

Teachers are more likely to maintain the primary lesson objectives center and front when they select educational methods and build educational settings that allow students to attain these objectives when they have clearly expressed their objectives for student progress in the shape of a rubric (Arter & McTigue, 2001). Rubrics have the ability to assist learners of color, first-generation students, and others from non-traditional backgrounds to learn more effectively. A sometimes overlooked virtue of rubrics is their ability to make instructional goals or preconceptions about the assignments themselves more transparent (Andrade & Ying, 2005). In educational circles, we frequently act on implicit cultural beliefs about student competence and conduct requirements, assuming that all students know the same knowledge and understanding.

Another critical aspect of using rubrics in courses is that teachers must include students in the evaluation process. While participating in the procedure, students assess themselves and receive the teacher's feedback. This saves time and requires greater effort on the part of the learner (Turgut & Kayaoğlu, 2015). After all of these consequences are considered, one teacher needs to establish a routine of utilizing rubrics.

Rubrics provide more than one stone to the building of learners. Raising students' comprehension of rubrics can be a major aid in comprehending the objectives of the organization and teachers, and will eventually significantly enhance their achievements (Maghsoudi & Haririan, 2013). The rubric helps students learn about their strengths and weaknesses (Saritha, 2016). One of the apparent benefits of rubric grading is that it enables learners to assess the present quality of their assignments and identify areas for improvement (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Brough & Pool, 2005; Huba & Freed, 2000; Huber & Hutchings, 2004; Walvoord & Anderson, 1998). A rubric lets students learn where they should concentrate their efforts and time-saving.

6. Rubric Types

Rubrics are scoring scales (rather than checklists) that are used in performance evaluations. They are explicitly labeled as scoring guidelines, which are made up of particular or before performance indicators and are used to evaluate students' progress on performance exams. Rubrics are the most common type of scoring tool used for assessing students' performance or items created as a consequence of an assessment task (Mertler, 2000). There are two different types of rubrics that are commonly used in performance evaluation: holistic and analytic (Mertler, 2000; Moskal, 2000). (see Figure 1).
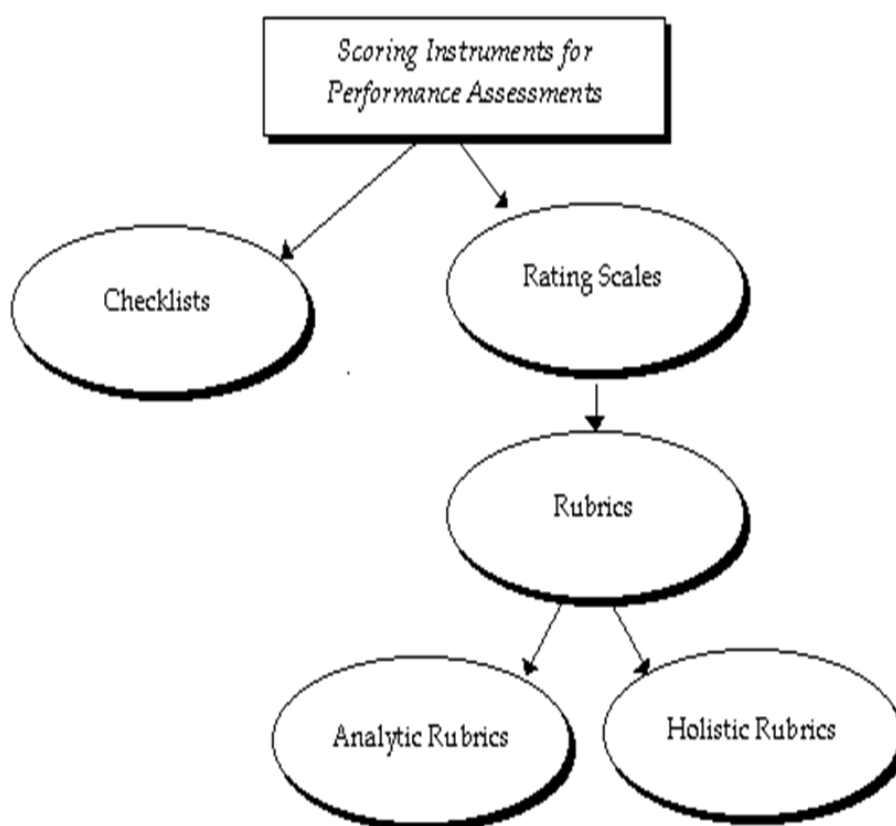
Figure 1. Types of scoring instruments for performance assessments

6.1. Holistic rubric

A holistic rubric examines the whole performance subjectively. One of the standardized tests, the IBT TOEFL, is one of the greatest examples of a rubric that rates speaking performance comprehensively. In a holistic rubric, all evaluation criteria, such as readability, style, and mechanics, are weighted on a particular scale (Brookhart, 1999). A holistic rubric delivers one complete score, typically on a range of 1 to 4 or 1 to 6 marks, based on an overall evaluation of the student's progress. Examples of popular include the words 'great,' 'good,' 'fair,' and 'bad'.

The tester compares a learner's overall achievement to a one-scale descriptor. Moskal (2000), in his debate of the distinctions between holistic and analytic rubrics, relates to circumstances where the holistic rubric is beneficial, such as when the standards set for the assessment of the various variables coincide, and a holistic scoring rubric may be beneficial to an analytic grading rubric. Furthermore, Chase (1999) noted the following on the area of application of this sort of rubric. When faults in some aspects of the procedure can be accepted as the total quality is high, holistic rubrics are commonly used. In addition to the ideas expressed by Moskal (2000) and Chase (1999), Niko (2001) says that holistic rubrics are more suited for use in instances when there is no one, correct solution, such as performance assignments that allow students to develop their own replies. According to Nitko (2001), the use of holistic rubrics also can result in a scoring method that is a little more effective than the utilization of analytic rubrics. As a result, when the goal of the performance assessment is summative, standard holistic rubrics are usually used. This is because it is critical to evaluate the entire work. When performance activities are scored using this method, the student receives a very limited quantity of feedback. Table 1 gives a framework for creating holistic grading rubrics.

Table 1. Template for Holistic Rubric (Basit, 2022)

Template for Holistic Rubric

Score	Description
4	Demonstrates exceptional understanding of the material. All requirements are met and some are exceeded.
3	Demonstrates consistent understanding of the material. All requirements are met.
2	Demonstrates partial understanding of the material. Some requirements are met.
1	Demonstrates minimal understanding of the material. Few requirements are met.
0	No response; Task not attempted.

6.2. Analytic rubric

Using an analytical rubric, many types of abilities are judged based on the student's level of competency. Teachers will create a grading system for students ' progress in an analytical rubric. For example, one scale could have the subcategories 'Needs Improvement,' 'Developing,' 'Sufficient,' and/or 'Above Average.' This grading system is formatted as a grid. On top is a grading system, and on the left is qualifying data. The middle portions of the rubric can be left empty or completed with instances of how each performance level fits the requirements. An

analytic rubric, which is functionally similar to a checklist, allows for an independent evaluation of each criterion. Each criterion is assessed using a unique description scale (Brookhart, 1999). Analytic rubrics also categorize achievement and assign points earned to each level of behavior. The points are next added up to create a quantitative performance assessment. For instance, a speaking rubric may include features such as pronunciation, proper tense utilization, transitioning, vocabulary, and fluency. A template for analytic scoring rubrics is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Template for Analytic Rubric (Basit, 2022)

ANALYTIC RUBRIC

From "Rubrics: The Heart of Assessment"

Pam Stephens

Objective
After defining the concept of art criticism, each student will write a 500-word essay with a beginning, middle, and end that accurately describes, analyzes, interprets, and judges a selected work of art.

	Value 3	Value 2	Value 1	Score
Describe	Provides a complete and accurate description of the key subject matter and elements seen in the artwork.	Provides a partial but mostly accurate description of the subject matter and/or elements seen in the artwork; some key components overlooked.	Provides an incomplete, unclear, or inaccurate description of subject matter and/or elements seen in the artwork; many key components overlooked.	
Analyze	Accurately relates how the structures of art function together to make a complete composition.	Relates with limited proficiency how the structures of art function together to make a complete composition; overlooks some important components.	Has trouble relating how the structures of art function together to make a complete composition.	
Interpret	Suggests a logical and/or symbolic meaning expressed in a work of art; supports idea with multiple points of visual evidence found in the piece.	Suggests a literal meaning expressed in a work of art; supports idea with limited points of visual evidence found in the piece.	Finds it difficult to interpret the meaning of the work; guesses meaning without visual support.	
Evaluate	Uses multiple criteria to judge the quality of a finished work of art; avoids personal opinion.	Uses a limited range of criteria to judge the quality of a work of art; personal opinion shown.	Uses personal opinion to judge the quality of a finished work of art.	
Technical	Finished paper follows rules of grammar and essay writing; is in publishable form.	Finished paper contains minor flaws in grammar and essay writing; needs editing.	Finished paper has numerous flaws in grammar and does not follow conventions of essay writing; needs rewriting.	
Notes to student				**Total score**

Analytic rubrics then provide thorough scores on each category. As noted earlier, the grading procedure utilizing an analytic rubric can take substantially longer than when employing a holistic rubric. According to Mertler (2001), this is because assessing various separate abilities or attributes separately contains various evaluations of the material by the teacher. Nitko (2001) refers to scenarios involving application areas where the analytic rubric is preferred, such as when a reasonably concentrated kind of answer is needed. Especially for performing assignments when there are just a few right responses and originality is not required. Furthermore, analytical rubrics generate a large number of ratings, accompanied by a summed overall score. Their use suggests a thorough examination (Mertler, 2001).

6.3. Analytic versus holistic rubrics

The information supplied thus far about the holistic rubric and the analytic rubric helps make it plainly evident that each form of rubric includes favorable and detrimental aspects. To begin, unlike analytic rubrics, which are two-dimensional and contain learning outcomes as columns and assessment methods as rows, holistic rubrics are one-dimensional, single-criterion rubrics used to evaluate students' total achievement on a task or product based on a set learning outcomes and allow the teacher to assess the achievements of students using a range of criteria. Furthermore, when employing a holistic rubric, performance statements are conveyed in paragraphs and often in full sentences, but performance statements are given in table style when utilizing analytical rubrics. When comparing the amount of time needed for each type of rubric, holistic rubrics assist assessors to gain time by lowering the number of assessments they must make, whereas analytic rubrics do not. More work is needed to formulate and execute a more holistic rubric. In terms of reliability, a holistic rubric may be routinely implemented by trained assessors, which boosts reliability. Nevertheless, unless that mark for each criterion is well-filled, assessors may not achieve the same score when using an analytic rubric. This is because a holistic rubric enables assessors to analyze the big perspective. When the feedback provided by each form of the rubric is considered, holistic rubrics do not offer particular improvement guidance, however analytic rubrics do supply useful feedback concerning aspects of weakness and strengths. Moreover, criteria in holistic rubrics cannot be evaluated; whereas, criteria in analytic rubrics can be measured to highlight the relative value of each component. Furthermore, with holistic rubrics, choosing the ideal descriptions may be difficult when student performance is at diverse levels encompassing the criteria points.

Lastly, whether one scoring rubric is an acceptable evaluation method is determined by the assessment's goal. Irrespective of which of these two procedures is used, each offers two different advantages during the review process. For starters, they examine the extent to which the set criteria have been met. Second, they provide comments to students on how to enhance their abilities. If these benefits correlate to the assessment's purpose, then a scoring rubric is most likely to be a successful evaluation. Even though the terms are susceptible to change, the goal is to assess a student's level of skill.

7. Work in Progress

7.1. Adopting and / or adapting rubrics

Rubrics assist teachers in assessing a student's total progress, saving time, providing appropriate feedback on the learner's development, clarifying the objectives for both the teachers and the students, and explaining why a student is given a specific grade. By creating a rubric as a guideline for pupils, teachers may give scaffolding. Rubrics also assist teachers in better monitoring students and developing lesson plans based on their requirements. When students understand what is expected of them and how they will be assessed, their learning and the quality of products improve. They will be able to reach their goal more effectively if they are familiar with it. A rubric is also a tool for teachers and students to interact since they align expectations and, as a result, create openness in assessment, which is very crucial for students. Furthermore, Menendez-Varela and Gregori-Giralt (2018, as cited in Kocakülah, 2021) found that involvement in the rubric development and moderating debates aided in the improvement of evaluation abilities, and rubrics may encourage classroom discussion if viewed as educational materials.

Airasian (1991) outlines the following stages for creating a successful rubric:

> **a**. Determine the overall action or assignment to be evaluated, and practice it or picture yourself completing it;
>
> **b.** Identify the main components of the presentation or output;
>
> **c.** Attempt to restrict the number of performance indicators, thus they can all be evaluated throughout a performance of the student;
>
> **d.** If feasible, have groups of educators go through the key traits contained in the assignment; **e.** Define the performance requirements in lines of visible behavioral issues or abilities.
>
> **f.** Avoid unclear terms that obscure the content of the performance requirements; and
>
> **g.** Order the performance requirements in the sequence in that they are most probably to be detected.

7.2. Some rubric samples

Educators and organizations create numerous rubrics kinds and variations. These rubrics give insight on the evaluation process, making it apparent and comprehensible, as well as providing clear directions on the assessment criteria. The following are some rubric samples:

Table 3. Independent Speaking Rubric Sample (Retrieved from
https://www.ets.org/content/dam/ets-org/pdfs/toefl/toefl-ibt-speaking-rubrics.pdf)

UNIVERSITY *of* CAMBRIDGE
ESOL Examinations

Experts in Language Assessment

Assessing Speaking Performance – Level B2

B2	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication
5	• Shows a good degree of control of a range of simple and some complex grammatical forms. • Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on a wide range of familiar topics.	• Produces extended stretches of language with very little hesitation. • Contributions are relevant and there is a clear organisation of ideas. • Uses a range of cohesive devices and discourse markers.	• Is intelligible. • Intonation is appropriate. • Sentence and word stress is accurately placed. • Individual sounds are articulated clearly.	• Initiates and responds appropriately, linking contributions to those of other speakers. • Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome.
4	*Performance shares features of Bands 3 and 5.*			
3	• Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms, and attempts some complex grammatical forms. • Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on a range of familiar topics.	• Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation. • Contributions are relevant and there is very little repetition. • Uses a range of cohesive devices.	• Is intelligible. • Intonation is generally appropriate. • Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed. • Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.	• Initiates and responds appropriately. • Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome with very little support.
2	*Performance shares features of Bands 1 and 3.*			
1	• Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms. • Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about everyday situations.	• Produces responses which are extended beyond short phrases, despite hesitation. • Contributions are mostly relevant, despite some repetition. • Uses basic cohesive devices.	• Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.	• Initiates and responds appropriately. • Keeps the interaction going with very little prompting and support.
0	*Performance below Band 1.*			

Table 4. Speaking Rubric Sample. (Retrieved from https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/images/168619-assessing-speaking-performance-at-level-b2.pdf)

iBT/Next Generation TOEFL Test
Independent Speaking Rubrics (Scoring Standards)

Score	General Description	Delivery	Language Use	Topic Development
4	The response fulfills the demands of the task, with at most minor lapses in completeness. It is highly intelligible and exhibits sustained, coherent discourse. A response at this level is characterized by all of the following:	Generally well-paced flow (fluid expression). Speech is clear. It may include minor lapses, or minor difficulties with pronunciation or intonation patterns, which do not affect overall intelligibility.	The response demonstrates effective use of grammar and vocabulary. It exhibits a fairly high degree of automaticity with good control of basic and complex structures (as appropriate). Some minor (or systematic) errors are noticeable but do not obscure meaning.	Response is sustained and sufficient to the task. It is generally well developed and coherent; relationships between ideas are clear (or clear progression of ideas).
3	The response addresses the task appropriately, but may fall short of being fully developed. It is generally intelligible and coherent, with some fluidity of expression though it exhibits some noticeable lapses in the expression of ideas. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Speech is generally clear, with some fluidity of expression, though minor difficulties with pronunciation, intonation, or pacing are noticeable and may require listener effort at times (though overall intelligibility is not significantly affected).	The response demonstrates fairly automatic and effective use of grammar and vocabulary, and fairly coherent expression of relevant ideas. Response may exhibit some imprecise or inaccurate use of vocabulary or grammatical structures or be somewhat limited in the range of structures used. This may affect overall fluency, but it does not seriously interfere with the communication of the message.	Response is mostly coherent and sustained and conveys relevant ideas/information. Overall development is somewhat limited, usually lacks elaboration or specificity. Relationships between ideas may at times not be immediately clear.
2	The response addresses the task, but development of the topic is limited. It contains intelligible speech, although problems with delivery and/or overall coherence occur; meaning may be obscured in places. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Speech is basically intelligible, though listener effort is needed because of unclear articulation, awkward intonation, or choppy rhythm/pace; meaning may be obscured in places.	The response demonstrates limited range and control of grammar and vocabulary. These limitations often prevent full expression of ideas. For the most part, only basic sentence structures are used successfully and spoken with fluidity. Structures and vocabulary may express mainly simple (short) and/or general propositions, with simple or unclear connections made among them (serial listing, conjunction, juxtaposition).	The response is connected to the task, though the number of ideas presented or the development of ideas is limited. Mostly basic ideas are expressed with limited elaboration (details and support). At times relevant substance may be vaguely expressed or repetitious. Connections of ideas may be unclear.
1	The response is very limited in content and/or coherence or is only minimally connected to the task, or speech is largely unintelligible. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Consistent pronunciation, stress, and intonation difficulties cause considerable listener effort; delivery is choppy, fragmented, or telegraphic; frequent pauses and hesitations.	Range and control of grammar and vocabulary severely limit (or prevent) expression of ideas and connections among ideas. Some low-level responses may rely heavily on practiced or formulaic expressions.	Limited relevant content is expressed. The response generally lacks substance beyond expression of very basic ideas. Speaker may be unable to sustain speech to complete the task and may rely heavily on repetition of the prompt.
0	Speaker makes no attempt to respond OR response is unrelated to the topic.			

8. Conclusion

In conclusion, rubrics have two significant contributions to all stakeholders including teachers, learners, institutions, and regulatory bodies in the learning process. From learners' perspectives, rubrics inform pupils of what is expected from them. As professors explicitly specify their expectations and objectives in the rubrics, students know where they need to work harder and which elements they should prioritize. They explicitly inform them about the assessment criteria so that they can focus on the expected outcomes rather than being lost and feeling

anxious in a gloomy box. This will be a kind of agreement that was decided by the decision makers, mostly teachers or educational institutions in the educational context, on what the assessment requirements are, and this will make the picture (learning-teaching-assessment) as clear as possible. The second contribution of the rubrics to learning is the backwash effect of assessment criteria. With the effective use of rubrics, students may also judge their own work and take more responsibility for their learning and get feedback from the evaluation of their performance with a concrete assessment tool, a rubric. This effect will contribute both to their in-class learning and will pave the way for their extramural learning outside the classroom. Another vital benefit of rubrics is that rubrics enable teachers to quickly monitor a student's learning process and develop the lesson by taking it into account. They assist teachers in explaining to students why they received the grade that they did and provide an unbiased assessment.

9. Suggestions for Future Research

It is unknown whether teachers embrace, adapt, and apply rubrics in their classes, which should be researched. Furthermore, their demands, both in-service and pre-service, should be revealed so that gaps in language and evaluation can be overlapped and bridged. Another idea is for important groups, either governmental or private, to create standardized rubrics to help EFL teachers. Rubrics must be used to assess any skill or assignment; however, they must outline specific learning objectives. When creating a rubric, the emphasis should be on the learning objectives rather than the job itself. The learning objectives must not be ignored by teachers.

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ACTIVE LEARNING IN EFL CLASSROOM: TIPS AND TECHNIQUES FOR EFL PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE TEACHERS

Rümeysa PEKTAŞ

"Tell me and I forget,
teach me and I may remember,
involve me and I learn"

Chinese Proverb.

1. Introduction

In today's globalizing and perpetually changing world, education needs to cover efficient outcomes to meet the increasing educational expectations (Kuhl, 2000). Knowledge and technology rapidly changes and there emerges a need to alter traditional teaching drawbacks to creative contemporary teaching and to meet twenty first century abilities and knowledge. In globalizing world today, the skills needed to cope with difficulties of educational needs and to develop knowledge economy via English language differ from the previous generation skills. In this sense, the emphasis of traditional teaching on memorization, passive listening and obtaining basic skills falls behind the contemporary and creative twenty first century skills and learning objectives (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). Active Learning Techniques (ALT) varying from kindergarten to adult learners can be utilized to meet the new era's teaching and learning criteria, skills and knowledge.

The 21st century has a different centric from behavioristic perspective thus puts emphasis on student centered learning, highlighted as "To teach is to engage students in learning" (Christensen et al., 1991, p. xiii). Paulson and Faust (1998) state that:

> Active learning is anything that students do in the classroom other than merely passively listening to an instructor's lecture. This includes everything from listening practices which help the students to absorb what they hear, to short writing exercises in which students react to lecture material, to complex group exercises in which students apply course materials to real life situations or to new problems (p.4).

In similar veins, Active Learning (AL) is any instrument of techniques that lead learners to participate actively and contemplate about what they are performing (Bonwell & Eison, 1991). With emphasis of learner skills rather than merely transmitting knowledge on learners as passive receivers in old fashioned traditional teaching approaches, AL urges learners to activate self-regulation, metacognition, self-evaluation, cooperation and their higher order thinking skills like speaking, reading and writing (Keyser, 2000; Ün-Açıkgöz, 2014). In parallel, another definition indicates the role of learner in AL as mentally, socially and physically active and puts responsibility of learning on individual rather than the teacher or instructors (Edwards, 2015; Petress, 2008). In summary, despite different aforementioned definitions and explanations of AL, the centralized common emphasis is on the active and self-regulative role of learner and teacher as facilitator not as director or only authority responsible for learner's learning and retention of knowledge.

In order to elaborate the role of learner and teacher highlighted in AL definitions, this paragraph will center on what characteristics make a learner or teacher really active. Learning is "something an individual does when he studies and it is an active, personally conducted affair" (Dewey 1924, p. 390). It is clear that the rationale behind learners' being active in learning settings is not special and limited to active learning that takes place in experiential learning (Kolb, 1984). What makes active learning different from purely 'learn by doing' is that its systemized organization is based on formal training diversities. It aims to utilize formal training components to systematically shape and prompt learning processes and self-regulated learning (Wood & Bandura, 2001). By the same token, Dewey (1959) indicates the responsibility and active role of learner in learning. Furthermore, Lowman (1995) asserts that although AL is risky and requires active participation, it has facilities for learners as active receivers of knowledge rather than passive receivers to better their own learning and evaluate their own responsibility in learning. This view is similar to that emphasized in Brown (2007). AL is a variety of learning in which learners resolve which mental elements to assign in her learning process by stimulating high order thinking skills. On logical grounds, we can say that the role of learner in AL differs from traditional teaching philosophy in which the responsibility of learning is on the instructor who merely transmits knowledge. The comparison of traditional teaching and AL will be discussed in theoretical framework part.

Returning to the issue of roles in AL, the role of instructor differs from the role of instructor in traditional teaching philosophies. Contrary to traditional type of lectures that put emphasis on improving learner on merely knowledge, the instructors provide facilities on "listening, reading, writing and reflecting their approaches in lesson" (Beck, 1997, p.35); thus aims to improve abilities and skills of learners that they obtain knowledge via real experiences. To actualize AL, the instructor as a facilitator motivates learners to struggle more for self-regulation and creates opportunities and techniques to learn by doing, free them in a democratic learning environment to determine how to learn best autonomously and provide constructive feedback to improve themselves. The instructor also motivates learners to share their real life experiences, creates opportunities for individual, pair and group work, extracurricular activities and feedback (Harmin, 1994; Harrison, 1992; Niemi, 2002; Ün- Açıkgöz, 2014). In brief, it is crystal clear that the authoritative role of traditional instructor alters in classes pursuing ALTs.

Traditional teacher-centric instruction assigns instructors as the only authority in the class and learners as passive receivers of transmitted knowledge. Returning briefly to the problem of inadequate and displeasing nature of traditional teaching techniques to fulfill the charge of rapidly growing body of knowledge, there has been a shift from behavioristic traditional teaching philosophy to contemporary constructivist philosophy to embrace twenty first century educational skills and needs. ALTs in that sense have been investigated as an interdisciplinary field (Aydede & Matyar, 2009; Aytan, 2011; Koç, 2011). There has been much and divergent types of AL and English Language Teaching (ELT) research such as dissertations, theses, articles, full texts, books and book chapters. However, few writers have been able to specify

briefly ALTs to help learners, instructors and pre-service teachers to use. Thus, this study aims to provide ALTs that can be adapted to ELT to tailor the specific needs of the readers in educational settings. The main advantage of the study will be providing ALT tips and techniques briefly to meet the expectations of the readers easily.

So far, this part has focused on twenty first century skills and the educational need to techniques to alleviate problems against growing body of rapidly changing knowledge. In this sense, the chapter puts emphasis on ALTs, the definition of AL, the role of learner and teacher in AL, the need, study motivation and aim to write this chapter. The following part will address the theoretical bases of AL.

2. Theoretical Bases of Active Learning

To indicate theoretical foundation and history of the AL, the researchers attach credence to Dewey (1959) as an educational philosopher, based on 'learning by doing' philosophy, and Piaget (Huit & Hummel, 2003), with his 'active' approach to learning. This theoretical background indicates Constructivism and Cognitivism for the foundation of active learning approach. Constructivism asserts that knowledge is not something taken passively or transmitted from external world; rather knowledge is actively constructed by the learner; thus the knowledge is unique to the learner. As the learners confront problems in their environment, they have to reconstruct knowledge to cope with the lifelong problems based on their previous experiences, knowledge, and schemata that sociocultural contexts can have an effect on. As was highlighted, learner is not passive receiver but active creator in his/her learning process (Ün-Açıkgöz, 2014).

Dewey (1972) believes that human brain is not sponge that may be filled with. He, in this concept, criticized the traditional teaching methods for being memorization and repetition based and urging learners being passive receivers. He highlights autonomous learning with a student centered learning approach and teachers should act as facilitator. Besides, teachers should promote self-regulation of learners. For Dewey (ibid), it is highly crucial for learners to interact with their environment, discovering knowledge not directly learning and having real life experiences afterwards.

Ausubel (1968) also has a significant place in constructivism. For Ausubel, most of the learning can occur only introduced as a meaningful learning. Meaningful learning can be defined as "the formation of viable relationships among ideas, concepts, and information" (Williams & Cavallo, 1995, p. 313). Model of meaningful learning involves advance organizers, presentation of learning material and strengthening cognitive organization. To accomplish learning meaningfully, the learners should relate their existing knowledge meaningfully to the recent knowledge.

Piaget's unique ideas (assimilation, accommodation, and equilibration) are important in cognitivism; however, they differ from Ausubel's theory. Ausubel's theory deals with cognitive learning and meaningful learning; how learners take new knowledge into their cognitive capacity. Piaget's developmental theory deals with alterations in stages of thinking related to generic cognitive capacities as sensory motor (0-2 years), pre-operational (2-7 years), concrete operational (7-14 years), and formal operational (14+ years). Assimilation of new information places itself in schemata, in brief assimilating new knowledge to old knowledge. Accommodation is making some alterations on existing schemata or creating new schema. Equilibration of the schema refers to balance between accommodation and assimilation (Novak, 1993; Piaget, 1954).

Vygotsky (1978) also has a leading place on Constructivism. Vygotsky perceives social interaction as an indispensable part of development that interaction can be achieved via language. He focused on the notion of Zone of Proximal development (ZPD) and defined as "The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable others" (p.85). He indicates the more knowledgeable other such as peers or teachers to scaffold and bridge the gap between learners' current development level and endpoint developmental level. His concepts are related to active learning in that active learning also takes into consideration of actual and potential development of learners.

There are some active learning related approaches to reinforce theoretical bases of active learning as constructivism and cognitivism. Firstly, Cooperative Learning Approach highlights the key concept on cooperation not competition to promote learning. The theories regarding to cooperative learning can be divided into motivational and cognitive categories (Slavin, 1995). Motivational base can be related to increase intrinsic motivation and intrapersonal relations. From a cognitive perspective, higher thinking skills and higher comprehension will occur.

Active Learning Approach embraces Multiple Intelligences Theory by Gardner (1983). The plethora of techniques works for different intelligences and this indicates Active Learning's priority on different intelligences and learning styles (Lash, 2004). Brain based Learning Approach highlights that none of the learners' brain commutes the same way as the other learner; that is why we understand quite differently from each other. This approach emphasizes brain lateralization, semantic memory and procedural memory. As active learning highlights each learner is unique, brain based learning, and Active learning put emphasis on individual differences and are against behaviorism. Finally, problem-solving approach urges learners to think beyond their level and become active in the process, create new solutions (Ün-Açıkgöz, 2014). In sum, active learning embraces many methodologies, approaches and techniques of CLT, its strategies complies with all ages and it best suits the aims of raising learner in the 21st century.

3. Significance of Active Learning Studies in Turkish EFL Context

In this part, the paper will elaborate on significance of Active Learning Studies in Turkish EFL Context. Although a plethora of theses, dissertations and articles conducted on active learning in Turkish context as a multidisciplinary subject, Active Learning studies within the scope of Foreign Language Learning is quite limited. To begin with, among dissertations or theses on ALT and primary school students, Düztepeli (2006) aimed to explore application of active learning strategies of elementary English teachers in beginning lessons and studied with 139 elementary school teachers. The result revealed that teachers sometimes apply AL techniques and male teachers used them more than females. Kılıç (2006) studied the impact of active learning on the skills of using English Grammar rules. The participants were 64 primary school students from the 4th grade. The results were in favor of AL group with no gender difference. Saday (2007) conducted an experimental research on 8th graders to improve speaking skills via AL techniques. AL methods and techniques were found to be more effective in improving speaking skill than traditional methods. Er (2007) studied the effects of Active Learning on foreign language self-concept and reading comprehension achievement on 182 male students attending military vocational school. The results yielded better in favor of experimental group; however, the effect of AL on foreign language self-concept was found to be insignificant. Finally, Güleç (2014) studied on the effect of active learning model based learning on middle school students' academic success and attitudes towards English lesson with 40 students from 8th graders. AL was found to have no meaningful effect on students' academic success and attitude for English. In brief, the studies displayed the significance of AL over traditional methods and next paragraph will inform us about the effect of AL on undergraduates in EFL context. For research article, Demirci & Akcaalan (2020) in their case study investigated opinions of 11th grade high school students towards "write, share, learn strategy" of active learning pedagogy in English language lesson. The findings yielded that students had positive emotions towards active learning and lesson satisfaction were strongly positive.

This paragraph will shed light to thesis conducted with tertiary level students and articles on EFL and AL. An example of this is the study carried out by Bahçe (2008) on developing oral communication skills of intermediate level students through Active Learning approach at TOBB ETU as an experimental study with 40 prep students. The results illustrated that AL had a significant effect on the improvement of oral communication skills. In similar veins, Özer (2020) in her research article aimed to test "The Effect of Active Learning on Achievement and Attitude in Vocational English Course". In her quasi-experimental study with 29 Tourism Management Vocational School Students, experimental group received active learning techniques while the control group received conventional lecture to gain objectives of Vocational English Course. The results were in favor of the effect of active learning techniques with a large effect size. Finally, Maghenddam (2018) carried out an AL based action research with 25 preparatory class to increase the students' level of participation in speaking lessons.

The results revealed that especially AL based speaking group activities increased confidence and participation during speaking classes and prompted feeling of security and lowered shyness.

In brief, the scarcity of AL based EFL studies fails to provide deeper understanding and lack AL practical tips and techniques to be carried out in EFL settings.

4. Active Learning Tips and Techniques

In this part, among growing body of techniques for active learning in education, the author will elicit some techniques based on Silberman's (2005) active tips, strategies and techniques that will serve first on tips how to actively organize and conduct active lessons, then will unearth warm up, main activity and follow up activities. Those versatile activities can lead learners as active participators and helps teachers and instructors as facilitators. These techniques can be adapted to different learning levels from kindergarten to adult learning with individual, pair and group works. The techniques will be classified into main three parts as active beginning on the course, teaching skills actively and ending the course with retention activities based on Silberman's (2005) Active Learning Techniques and Ün-Açıkgöz's (2014) book on Active Learning.

Before proceeding to disclose Start-up Active Learning Techniques for learners, teachers and instructors, it is necessary to put emphasis on some useful Silberman's (2005) Active Learning Tips to conduct, organize and manage the lesson.

4.1. Active learning tips on classroom organization, conducting lesson and management

Learners who take part in active learning lessons learn more than those who learn from conventional lectures (Kılıç, 2006; Saday, 2007; Ün-Açıkgöz, 2014). However, getting learners to engage in lessons actively is not an easy management. This part presents some practical AL tips from beginning, during and ends of the lesson to activate learners' participation.

4.1.1. Tips on physical environment

Physical Environment holds a crucial place on whether active learning in class will work or fail. Hopefully, despite the size, shape and some other environmental factors in classes, there are still problem solution tips to rearrange the class or the pairs. First of all, it is absolutely hard to have an ideally shaped, furniture and best in size classrooms. In this sense, it is best to look for how to best utilize the classes we teach in. If you have chairs in classes or even desks and the classroom size is adequate, the best tip is arranging U shape. If the class number exceeds 20 or more, you can arrange circular-bridge tables, conference tables in square, V shape with oblong desks, group on group circles consisting two circles one inner and one outer circle.

What about traditional classrooms and larger classes like hall or auditorium? That is a big deal to cope with to manage active learning classes but still there are some cues. For traditional classes with fix rows of desks, tables and chairs, we still can group chairs and desks with

learners having even and odd number learners can form quartet with learners behind them. When it comes to auditorium where most of them have fix seats or desks, it can be more plausible to group learners at the center rather than let them sit scattered around to form pair and group work.

4.1.2. Tips on name learning

To meet learners, get more acquainted and add some fun and humor to the class, *name chain* and *name toss* can be practical. Name Chain urges learners to listen and participate actively since it requires learners to introduce themselves first and then the second person has to repeat the previous friend's names. As the activity gets longer, it becomes harder but funnier. To add some humor and make it challenging, the teacher can ask learners to add an adjective before their names and the same aforementioned name chain lasts until the final learner achieves her task. Another activity Name Toss begins with grouping learners in a circle. Then, choose an object that is soft and easy to hold, most preferably ball. A learner introduces her name and tosses the object in any of her friend. The person holding the ball continues by saying her name and tosses the object to another group member. The last learner holds the ball and tosses it through the person by saying her name. Then the person grabbing the ball in her hand says aloud to the previous person and the next person that she aims to toss the object. In summary, these activities can help learners to get acquainted in a friendly atmosphere, with games and fun also alleviates passive participation.

4.1.3. Tips on obtaining learner needs, wants and expectations

To tailor the course based on learners' needs, expectations and wants, some basic questions to all level of learners at the very beginning of the lesson can work a lot! These basic questions can entail what the rationale behind participating in the course, which skills or knowledge they want or do not want to get from the class. Furthermore, questions can cover what their hopes, concerns, lacks, wants and needs for this course, whether their needs match with course objectives. Finally teacher also can add versatile questions on what they really need to have and what they optionally can have as skills or knowledge.

4.1.4. Tips on obtaining active participation

It is an undeniable fact that the more active the participation is, the more active the teaching and the better motivation and outcomes are. Hence, to lead discussion and attention and coax the participation, *Fishbowl* and *Calling on the next speaker* activities among many can boost up participation. In Fishbowl activity, there are two circles namely inner and outer circle. In that large group activity one group discusses the topic (inner group) and outer group listens actively. Then, the group changes their places and moves further the discussion and the other group listens. This *fishbowl* activity can work best if we have enough time and larger group of learners. Another activity named as *Calling on the next speaker* can work best if the topic covered is really attention drawing and you want to perpetuate active participation. One of the learners begins with talking about her point of view and she is required to select one of her

friends by calling friend's name to further discussion. In this way, the learners stay attentive in order not to miss any point and be prepared for upcoming chance of being selected by her friend.

4.1.5. Tips on assigning learning partners

It is an inevitable fact that we learn best by doing! In that sense, to prompt peer learning and collegiality, instructors and teachers can assign learning partners. Read and respond are one of those pair work tasks. In them, the learners can read each other's written work and discuss what is missing, different or mind-blowing! Then they can respond to the question together to answer, find a solution or compare their responses. It can be a better idea to change the partners to make of the learning. *Discuss* and *Practice* can urge learners both develop their oral and written skills and creativity in the class.

4.1.6. Tips on using response cards

The small blank cards can be used for many purposes to prompt individual and group learning. The instructors can ask the learners a question, a definition, solution, needs, wants, expectations, lacks and belief. The learners can write down their responses on the blank paper without naming themselves. Then the instructor can hand out the paper and the learner receiving reads it and reacts based on the activity or task. Next the instructor manages the activity based on level, time and length of the discussion. This type of activity can work well with speaking and listening activities.

4.1.7. Tips on prompting learning visually

Retaining to memory, it is scientifically proved that visuals make learning meaningful and more probable to remember. In Clark and Mayer's (2008) study, they found that integrating visuals into lessons boosted learning via dual encoding. As a deduction, rather than merely hearing the lecture or lesson, the instructor can enrich the content by adding visuals as in documents, vivid stories and dramatization activity. In documents, we embellish lessons with graphics, maps, data or pictures. Vivid stories can attract learners' attention if visuals are incorporated when significant points are emphasized. For dramatization, we can present learners real life events via videos or want our learners to dramatize real life problems and work out how they can solve them. These aforementioned examples can be multiplied based on the levels, ages, time duration and number of learners in the class.

4.1.8. Tips on active lecturing

Lecturing, by the word itself, can remind us really time-saving yet ineffective and uninteresting lessons. However, as the teacher abides by some active steps in organizing her lecture, the course can be both active and permanent in learners' minds! Firstly, the instructor should build an interest in the lesson or topic to be covered by demonstrating an interesting cartoon, picture or data that is relevant to the current topic and then ask a question about it. Then, for maximum understanding and learning retention, rather than information bombarding, using headlines and illustration that learners can compare with their good or bad experiences is another step to be

followed. Next, for active participant involvement, intermit the lecture from time to time and dare them to answer questions one level beyond their capacity. Finally, to reinforce the information obtained, the instructor can pose a question to activate problem solving skills of the learners by using information gained.

4.1.9. Tips to dramatize learning

The effect of visuals on learning, remembering and retention of knowledge, as mentioned above, holds a noteworthy place in learning. Henceforth, using visuals as objects like pictures, dress, balls or hats to trigger imagination and furnish the course content can help both the learner and the instructor. One common tip to achieve your aim is to take advantage of *Personification*. It is an inevitable fact that we can come across learners with special needs. As instructor you can select and ask learners to dress up or take the role of disabled. Then ask on lesson objectives and aims, how to react, what to do and the precautions they could take for their peers. The imagination is based on your content and can be widened to teach skills. *Post it* activity can work best as the warm up activity to prompt self-questioning. The instructors beforehand can design posters with famous scientists, singers, athletes and put their famous quotes in it. Then ask learners to choose their favorite quotes and relate it to the content of the lesson verbally or written. These types of activities boost up curiosity, energy and attention and via visuals, they can aid learning retention.

4.1.10. Tips on online active learning

Technology has become an inseparable part of our lives. Covid-19 outbreak has highlighted and reminded us the significance of distance and online learning. Until now, the tips on using AL in physical classrooms rather than virtual or online classes are given; however, we can utilize ALTs for online learning as well. Getting learners involved can be achieved via online groups, breakout rooms and interesting discussion topics. One of the benefits of online courses is to equip learners with recorded documentation that can help learners to self-evaluate, regulate and question their own learning and will have chances to review and reflect free from time limit. No matter how much benefit online learning provides, both the instructor and learners should be prepared to electricity and web power cut and be prepared in advanced with Plan B.

This part informed us about the tips that we can benefit from before, while and after the class AL tips. These tips can be used in any disciplines including EFL. Especially for speaking and writing courses based on the aim of the instructor, we can integrate skills to promote learning retention. These aforementioned tips boost ups energy, curiosity, team collaboration, self-directed learning and self-regulation. Now, in the following part, among numerous techniques, some AL techniques will be highlighted.

4.2. Active learning techniques on classroom organization, conducting lesson and management

English Language Teaching has always been at the crux of intense debates from primary school to tertiary level and in Turkey. English Language serves as "the instrumental function of being the most studied foreign language and the most popular medium of education after Turkish" (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998, p.37). To keep up with the demands of twenty first century skills and quickly changing amount of knowledge, teaching English as a global, lingua franca and international language holds a noticeable place in nation-wide education. As was highlighted in the previous parts, AL embraces many disciplines and these techniques are also valid for foreign language. Ün-Açıkgöz (2014) puts emphasis on the prolific nature of AL that can be adapted to many disciplines from kindergarten to adult learner levels. On these logical grounds, the EFL teachers and instructors can adapt these AL tips and techniques to make English language learning joyful, meaningful and perennial. To add more, learners can benefit from to self-regulate, evaluate, make learning retention and meaningful.

To begin with, it is of great importance to activate learner interest on the course from the beginning. Thus, the learner can lead attention and take active role from the very beginning with joyful and thought-provoking icebreakers and start-up activities. In the previous part of this chapter, the author shed light into the face to face and technological AL tips that can be employed in any settings including EFL. In similar veins, Mantyla (1999) predicates that no matter what type of AL selected whether in conventional or technology based learning environments, qualified AL techniques have the same characteristics with a certain beginning and ending, explicit aim and goal, understandable directions, constructive feedback and tool description to be employed. The next part will exemplify many AL Techniques that can be exploited and adapted for EFL settings.

4.2.1. Active learning techniques for beginning lessons

There is no one-size-fits-all suggestion for providing active learning into lessons. Nevertheless, these techniques below can be useful and practical to get learners acquainted and energetic at the beginning.

4.2.1.1. Me too

Aim:

This activity aims to form groups of learners with similar characteristics, add fun and energy via physical activity at the very beginning and get learners acquainted.

Procedure:

1. List possible categories suitable in a getting acquainted activity such as similar favorite color, being right/left handed, football team, music etc.

2. Locate groups based on similarities quickly to a place that you created space beforehand. Develop as much group as you can.
3. The time participants organize the appropriate "Me Too" clusters, they shake hands.
4. Encourage learners to move from one group to another.
5. Finally discuss the diversity of learners in the groups.
6. As a suggestion, one can form groups based on differences or ask learners to name categories to design a group (Silberman, 2005, p.65).

4.2.1.2. Class concerns

Aim:

This activity aims to make learners reveal and discuss concerns honestly about the lesson.

 Procedure:

1. Talk with learners about your expectations on learner concerns.
2. Make list of concerns from the groups.
3. Request the group select the most highlighted concerns.
4. Ask the learners summarize their concerns to group members (Silberman, 2005, p. 87).

4.2.1.3. True or false?

Aim:

This activity aims to promote immediate learning, collaborative learning and team building.

 Procedure:

1. Prepare list of sentences some of which are true some false. Write your statements to different cards.
2. Hand out cards one by one and make group and discuss which statements are true or false.
3. When the group finishes the task, obtain and decide whether their judgments are true or false.
4. Evaluate by giving constructive feedback to each card and finally put emphasis on the significance of team building and learning skills (Silberman, 2005, p. 100).

4.2.2. Active learning techniques on teaching information, knowledge and skills

Active Learning techniques support effective comprehension and evaluate learner on their understanding. Not only physically the learners are engaged but also mentally active by activating higher order thinking skills. These techniques below can be practical on teaching information, knowledge and skills.

4.2.2.1. Fish bowl

Aim:

This activity aims to promote peer learning and make learners provide feedback on English reading and discussion activities. Through anonymity, it creates a comfortable learning atmosphere and provides constructive feedback for large number of learners.

Procedure:

1. Request learners to take note on given index cards one question on to clarify what they missed or not fully comprehended.
2. As through the end of the lesson, the learners posit their questions in a fish bowl.
3. Pick diverse questions out of the bowl and reply or wait the class to answer them (Paulson & Faust, 2006, p. 9).

4.2.2.2. Question cards

Aim: This activity aims to hearten learners to ask questions in secure and dependable ways. One of the benefits of this techniques is that it can be employed on a definitive topic at the beginning, during or end of the lesson.

Procedure:

1. Ask learners to write any questions they wonder on the blank index card handed out by the teacher. The learners will not write their names on it.
2. Form the groups and make the index card passed from person to person in a clockwise direction. As the card moves on to the next person, learners are required to put a check mark if they have question as readers.
3. When the learners finally have their question cards once again in their hands, make sure that each learner in the group reviewed all the group members' questions.
4. Then, spot questions with most checks. By classifying the questions, teacher can give immediate answer, delay the answer to the next lesson or highlight the time constraint not to answer the question
5. Then, invite volunteer learners to share questions and finally gather again the cards for future reference (Silberman, 2005, p.122)

4.2.2.3. Show but not tell

Aim: This activity aims to teach skill apart from traditional teacher-centric way of 'show and tell' demonstration. To enliven learners be mentally alert, in AL teacher does not tell directly, rather charge them observe attentively and report what the teacher did. By being silent and demonstrating with little or no explanation, learners direct their attention to come up with an answer.

Procedure:

1. Decide a skill that has procedures that you aim to teach learners (choosing one out of six different feedback styles in a qualified communication).

2. Ask beforehand the learners to monitor all the process without explaining the rationale to make them attentive. Teacher's aim here can be getting learners ready for the activity.
3. Make pairs of learners, perform again and want them to tell about what you did to one another.
4. Then request pairs to perform what they observed until each pair succeeds. Finally, continue with the rest of the demonstration in the same way.
5. The teacher can also (optional) ask learners before herself to demonstrate the skill then through the end of the lesson, the learners can self-question themselves whether their expectations matched with the skill taught (Silberman, 2005, p.222)

4.2.2.4. Four corners

Aim: This cooperative activity aims to promote peer interaction and learning, being physically active, broadening understandings via exploring, pair work and discussion.

Procedure:

1. Place the options that learners will pick in four corners of the classroom ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.
2. Ask a question loudly to the class and requests learners stand up, select an option and move in front of the reasonable corner.
3. Those learners standing in front of the same corner can make pairs to discuss their rationale to choose this option.
4. At this point, learners need to have active listening to share their partner's explanation.
5. Finalize this activity by incidentally selecting pairs to share their views (Kagan, 1994).

4.2.2.5. Gossip

Aim: This activity aims to make learners comprehend the topic fully, think on the topic and learn different perspectives and evaluate them.

Procedure:

1. Learners should form pairs and tell each other the views they have on the topic given.
2. The pairs leave to match with new partners.
3. The pairs talk about their views and their previous partner's views. If possible, tries to elaborate on the changes on their own views and agreements and disagreements with the partners.
4. To maintain interaction among pairs and peers, item 3 should be repeated as much as possible.

5. For the final step, the class should discuss the thoughts that emerged at the end of the learning process (Ün- Açıkgöz, 2014, p. 162).

4.2.3. Active learning techniques on retention of learning

The effectiveness of AL Techniques on learner performance and retention of knowledge has been investigated in recent research. Yahyazade et al. (2017) found that ALTs make lessons more joyful and learners could retain information. Below some techniques are presented to help learners self-evaluate and retaining to memory.

4.2.3.1. Return on your investment

Aim: This activity aims to have learners self-evaluate themselves whether they have benefited from the lesson.

Procedure:

1. At the beginning of the lesson, lead learners self-question then take note on to which degree they hope to gain ability to perform in their lives and jobs. Regarding, ask learners to list their goals for the lesson, recent failures and successes and ongoing issues or problems.
2. During the training, allocate learners enough time to re-read their initial comments and think on to what extent the training added value on their knowledge and skills.
3. At the end of the training, ask learners to use self-assessment whether their time and effort put on the training was worth it.
4. Finally, to improve yourself, get feedback from the learners about your training (Silberman, 2005, p.266).

4.2.3.2. What we are taking away

Aim: This activity aims to assess what learners have learned from the lesson.

Procedure:

1. Divide learners into subgroups between two to four people based on the number of the class. If the number of the learners is low, it can be employed individually.
2. Request each subgroup discuss in personal and professional sense what they are taking away from the training. Each subgroup should list learnings on A3 size paper with title 'What We Are Taking Away' and the lists will paper the walls.
3. To place and add check to their lists, learners should walk by each different list.
4. At the end, analyze the results with popular, unexpected and unusual learnings.

This part has attempted to provide a brief summary of the literature relating to AL tips and techniques those EFL pre-service, in-service teachers, learners and faculty can employ to better teaching and learning. In summary, it has been shown from the AL techniques and tips examples that they can be adapted to teach language skills and in spite of traditional classes or

even lectures, there is still room for teachers to make their learning environment active. The following part moves on to conclude the study in brief.

5. Conclusion

Having mentioned the many AL tips and techniques briefly, this chapter informed readers about what AL is and its theoretical framework, the significance of AL in EFL context, suggests some practical tips and techniques for EFL learners and teachers. The aim was to aid EFL learners and teachers via presenting practical AL ideas to fit into their classroom settings. The techniques, the frequency rate of use and the learners' level, and teacher's personality can affect the frequency of AL techniques in EFL class. Eison (2010) highlights that through AL, teachers can develop learner's critical thinking, speaking, reading and writing, can receive or give constructive feedback, both teachers and learners can self-evaluate themselves. Its versatile nature allows for using it in learning environments like class, to connect prior and present knowledge, extracurricular activities and ongoing formative assessment. As was emphasized in tips and techniques, they can be used for individuals, pairs, small and larger group activities based on time duration. Based on the studies covered here, the present study highlighted the greater need to conduct AL studies in Turkish EFL context. One implication for EFL researchers and teachers is to integrate AL tips and techniques into their courses to maximize learning. The teachers and researchers can also conduct AL based action research to test the benefits in EFL context. Finally, there is a greater need for learners and preservice teachers on AL books and book chapters nationwide.

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INTEGRATION OF AN ACTION RESEARCH COURSE INTO THE ELT PROGRAMS: WHY AND HOW?

Semin KAZAZOĞLU

Oya TUNABOYLU

1. Introduction

The head spinning momentum of the present century has been changing many things along the way. Taken for granted educational paradigms, student profiles, their needs, and pedagogical knowledge bases required for teachers have received due share from this change. More than ever teachers have to test and refresh their teaching skills. In order to better serve their students whose profiles have enormously changed over the years teachers are expected to be alert to the problems which are likely to emerge on daily basis. The problems they face in the classroom today are multifaceted. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to state and analyze mainstream problems in everyday classrooms. However, it is evident that today's teacher is not at ease dealing with the digital natives who are characterized by limited attention span, tech-savy attitude, and their usual state of screen-attachedness.

That being said, today's classrooms exert more pressure on the part of teachers. Penny Ur (2012) once described the teaching as an isolated profession. That is, once teachers get in the classroom and close the door, they have only students to interact with. In these isolated microcosms teachers need to tackle with the problems alone. Another somewhat unique concept is provided by Kumaravadivelu (2001, pp. 537-538), concentrating on the professional development and education of teachers in his famous 3P circle (particularity, practicality, and possibility) to define the post-methods teaching context. He proposed that each classrroom is unique with its own characteristics and accordingly has its own ecology. Simply put, no two classrooms are the same with its students, resources, physical attributes, and teaching-related problems.

Today's teachers obviously need to have a handy toolkit to deal with contextual challenges. Action research (AR) comes to fore as one major tool to help teachers with solving problems in their, 'particular' contexts. Being one type of professional development tools, AR has promising potential to deal with classroom problems. The underlying rationale for this premise is that when teachers become 'researchers' of the problems they face in their classrooms, they will be able respond to these problems, thereby morphing into more efficient teachers. As Kumaravadivelu (2001) stated, in the post-methods era teachers are expected to build up their own teaching theories based on their experiences rather than being consumers of ready-made theories.

2. Action Research: Rationale, Characteristics and Benefits

Traditionally, studies on teacher learning underline four types of conceptualizations. Teacher learning as skill learning regards the process as the development of a variety of skills, and competencies. According to this type of teacher learning, teaching is a process which can be broken down into discrete skills that are likely to be mastered one by one. Typical activities

which adopt this philosophy in teacher training include presenting and modeling the skills for teacher trainees. Another conceptualization considers teaching as a complex cognitive process. Accordingly, it is believed that teachers' beliefs and thinking mindset shape their learning and teaching practices. It pinpoints that "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs" (Borg 2003, p.81). Some activities utilized in teacher training programs that adopt this philosophy are journal writing, self-monitoring and so on. The third conceptualization in teacher training regards teacher learning as personal construction. As the name suggests, this educational philosophy operates on the premise that knowledge is not transfered to the recipient, yet it is constructed. In teacher education programs which operate on this philosophy some activities offered to teacher trainees tap on self-awareness through journal writing or self-monitoring.

The last paradigm in teacher learning regards the process as reflective practice. Within this conceptualization it is assumed that teachers learn from their own experiences through focused reflection. In order to initiate the learning process a critical stance that needs to be developed by teacher is a must. Critical examination of experiences requires collecting information on one's own teaching (Richards & Lockhart 1994; Schon, 1983; Wallace, 1991). It is clear that developing a critical outlook toward day-to-day teaching practices might benefit teachers tremendously.

Action research is the procedure of examining a problem using the school environment to better understand and enhance the quality of educational process (Mills, 2011). As such, teachers have the opportunity to deal with students' learning problems in depth. Professional development lies in the practitioners' use of action research constantly. In preparation and professional development, action research is crucial for teachers and future educators (Holter & Frabutt, 2012). Traditionally, teacher education programs incorporate action research activities on a national and international scale, specifically in Australia and the US (Hine, 2013).

Kurt Levin put forward the idea of action research for the first time as he thought that experimental methods are not sufficient for many cases. Accordingly, he provided a method that was based on people's real world experiences (Hien, 1998). However, there is a relative lack of available research into how teachers develop as researchers (Wyatt & Dikilitaş, 2016). Action research is viewed as a type of professional development that is characterized by research. In align with reflective teacher conceptualization, AR requires a systematic inquiry into classroom problems. Also known as 'practitioner research', AR is simply conducted to take an action. In the hindsight though are two important stages before initiating AR; exploratory AR and exploratory practice (Hanks & Dikilitaş, 2018). Dikilitaş (2020) lists the following with regards to AR's characteristics;

Reflective: The whole process includes critical and deep thinking process

Systematic: The process adopts an exploration of problems through a research pattern

Exploratory: Teachers are expected to explore issues at hand

Developmental: Both learners and teachers benefit for sake of sound classroom pedagogy

Critical: Thanks to AR teachers develop a critical look over their practices

Empowering: Teachers feel fulfilled as they would better understand the classroom ecology

Transformative: AR is expected to give birth to new understandings and practices

Liberating: Teachers who conduct AR will be able to generate their own knowledge of teaching rather than relying on ready-made theories.

As it is clear from the above list, AR is a powerful tool for teachers. As for the nature of AR, Ur (2012) suggests action research to be conducted by teachers because of its benefits for both personal development and professional knowledge. Furthermore, she suggests the results to be shared with other teachers at school and public conferences. Action researches boost collaboration and creativity among teachers. Accordingly, "an examination of similar topics may lead to stimulate new thinking and lead to significant innovation or further research" (Ur, 2012, p. 296). Similarly, Brown (2001) noted that "seeing one's actions through another's eyes is an indispensable tool for class research as well as a potentially enlightening experience for both observer and observe" (p. 431). Furthermore, an action research does not have to be based on complicated statistics or long, detailed observation or experiments. Here, we should keep in mind that action research differs in its scope and aim with the other research paradigms. Within this frame, the findings are not expected to be generalized to contexts other than the immediate research site. Generalization of the results is not the target intention. On the contrary, action research is bound to be explained with its own circumstances. Either way, the results should be accurate, disciplined and objective.

Today, it is crucial to sustain teacher engagement in research to reach at a critical reflection through the lens of experts. With regards to this point Guerriero (2017) stated that "across OECD countries teachers are expected to be informed about pedagogical research in order to teach the 21st century skills" (p. 290) required in increasingly diverse classrooms. Because of its individualized focus, action research is becoming an effective tool for educational change in schools. The fact that teacher action research is small-scale, contextualized, localized, and intended to identify, create, or track improvements to practice is among its most advantageous features (Burns, 2011; Wallace, 1998).

2.1. Action research models
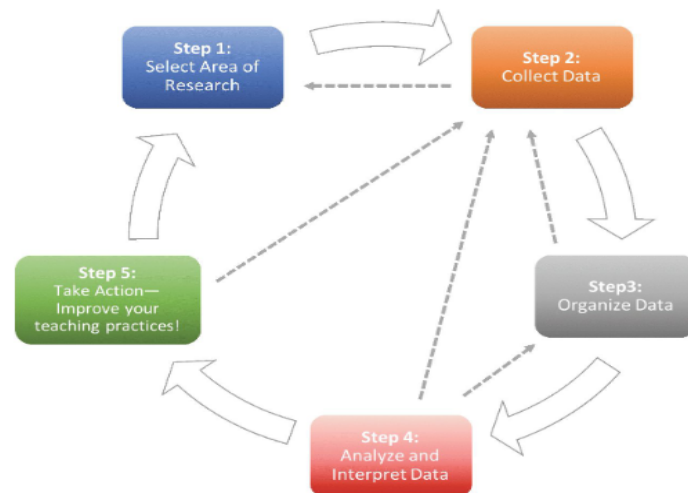
Figure 1. The Action Research Cycle. Adapted from Mills (2007, p. 17).

1. *Stringer's Model:*

   This method's fundamental tenet is to help individuals deepen their comprehension of their circumstances and, as a result, find solutions to the issues they face. A clear set of social ideals is always used to implement community-based action research. According to Stringer (2007), the look, think, act framework of the fundamental action research routines enables people to start their inquiries simply and add more detail to their procedures as the complexity of the topics grows. Stringer et al. (2009, p. 12) maintain that each phase of education incorporates the cyclical Look Think Act steps of action research, offering precisely specified procedures that improve both teacher instruction and student learning.

2. *Mill's Model:*

   According to Mill (2011)'s, this model is "research done by teachers and for teachers and students, not research done on them," (p. 9) and as a result, it is dynamic and flexible and can be customized for many situations and objectives. A sense of purpose based on a 'problem' or 'area of focus' (identification of an area of focus), observation or monitoring of practice (collection of data), synthesis of information gathered (analysis and interpretation of data), and some type of 'action' that invariably 'spirals' the researcher back into the process repeatedly are all

evidently shared elements of this action research model (development ofan action plan).

3. *Wallace's Model:*

In this model, Wallace (1991) argues for reflective growth and there is a particular emphasis on linguistic instruction. This tactic was essentially a technique for ELT teachers to reflect on whatever they do while instructing. It is done by methodically gathering data from daily practice and analyzing it to make decisions about how teachers should practice in the future.

Wallace (1991) put out a paradigm for teacher education that has a process of professional competency reflection at its center. It entails the gathering and analysis of data pertaining to a certain area of our professional activities. This is a loop process in the sense that it can be carried out repeatedly (by reframing the issue, gathering new information, reconsidering our approach, etc.) until educators have discovered (Wallace, 1998, p. 16).

Depending on the setting in which they are used, each of the models that have been discussed has attained varying degrees of popularity. Wallace (1998)'s action research model for language teachers, however, was designed to support the teacher's ongoing professional development rather than to turn the teacher into a researcher. Whether the procedures can be corroborated by another person, what matters is that they are helpful to the person exercising reflection.

Table 1. The differences between traditional research and action research

Characteristic	Action Research	Traditional Research
Researcher role	The researcher is an educational practitioner	The researcher is someone typically outside of the immediate educational context
Reflection	Subjective reflection about self and how the self affects practice	Objective reflection with emphasis to avoid personal, in research process
Relationship between researcher and participant	Participants are seen as equals with a voice in the process	The relationship between researcher and participants is typically hierarchical, with the researcher as the authority
Decision making	Collaborative, democratic decision making among collaborators	The researcher is the decision maker
Impact	Studies local issue within a specific context	Studies educational issues that affect the practice of a larger group
Interpretation	Findings interpreted within the local context	Interested in making generalizable findings
Dissemination	Dissemination is local to colleagues or other interested community stakeholders	Dissemination can be local but is also broad to include publications in journals and presentations at national conferences
Timing of the study	Cyclical within a process of continuous improvement as students and circumstances change	One-shot deal that has a beginning and an end

In conventional research, the researcher is often someone with expertise in a particular educational topic who is not a member of the educational setting where the research is being conducted, such as a university professor. On the other hand, in action research, the researcher is typically a practitioner—someone who is actively involved in education.

Moreover, participants in the action research are treated as collaborators and members of the research team, and the process is democratic and collaborative whereas the traditional research has a hierarchical structure, with the researcher acting as the primary authority. Because action research concentrates on local educational practice issues, it is smaller, and does not incorporate all aspects of high-quality traditional research studies. Besides, in the action research the goal is to alter oneself and one's own practices. In conventional research, reflection frequently focuses on the study procedure and how to influence others' practice.

2.2. Types of action research

Action research can be categorized in two different ways. The first way to categorize action research is according to whether it is system-based or classroom-based. Action research in the classroom is carried out in the classroom to address a problem in the classroom. Action research can also be categorized according to whether it is participatory or practical. The goal of practical action research is to solve a specific problem that arises in the classroom. The principles of action research and critical theory are combined in participatory action research.

2.2.1. Practical Action Research

Practical action research is a planned, systematic inquiry to test out new practices and assess the impact of the new practice in a local setting, much like the generic definition of action research. With an emphasis on altering teacher practices as a specific, classroom issue and consequent student results, it can involve one practitioner or a small collaborative group of practitioners.

2.2.2. Participatory Action Research

Critical action research or critical theory action research are other names for participatory action research, usually referred to as PAR. Kemmis et al. (2014) describe seven features of participatory action research:

1. It is a *social process* whereby the participants seek to understand the social spheres in which they operate to improve the process of teaching and learning.
2. It is *participatory* and *collaborative* where a group of individuals work together as equals in a democratic mind-set to understand how the social sphere affects their educational practice.
3. It is *practical* in that the group examines real practices such as what people do, how they interact, what they mean and value, and how they interpret their world at the present time.

4. It is *emancipatory*, where the participants seek to unconstrain themselves from aspects of the social spheres that limit their personal development and contribute to injustice.
5. It is *critical* by analytically examining and challenging the practices of the social spheres that constrain their development.
6. It is *reflexive*, using a cyclical process of reflection and action.
7. It is *transformative* as it seeks to change theory and practice by examining how theory and practice relate to each other to develop insight that can change both.

Table 2. The differences between practical and participatory research

Practical Action Research	Participatory Action Research
Small scale, an individual or small group of individuals	Collaborative group of stakeholders
Emphasis on local impact of changing educational practices	Emphasis on transforming the social spheres in which the educational practice operates
Problem is framed as localized, classroom issue	Problem is framed within a larger societal perspective
The goal is to change teaching practices that affect student outcomes	The goal is to emancipate participants from the constraints hindering their development

2.3. The Process of Conducting Action Research

There is a procedure involved in doing action research, whether it be a participatory action research study or a practical action research study. The researcher will cycle through the steps in a different order depending on the type of study being undertaken (proactive practical, responsive practical, or participatory action research). The procedure is circular, thus after the results stage of one cycle is over, the reflection phase of the next cycle starts. This cyclical pattern is shown in Figure 3, along with the next five action research stages:

1. Reflection stage
2. Planning stage
3. Implementation stage
4. Analysis stage
5. Results stage
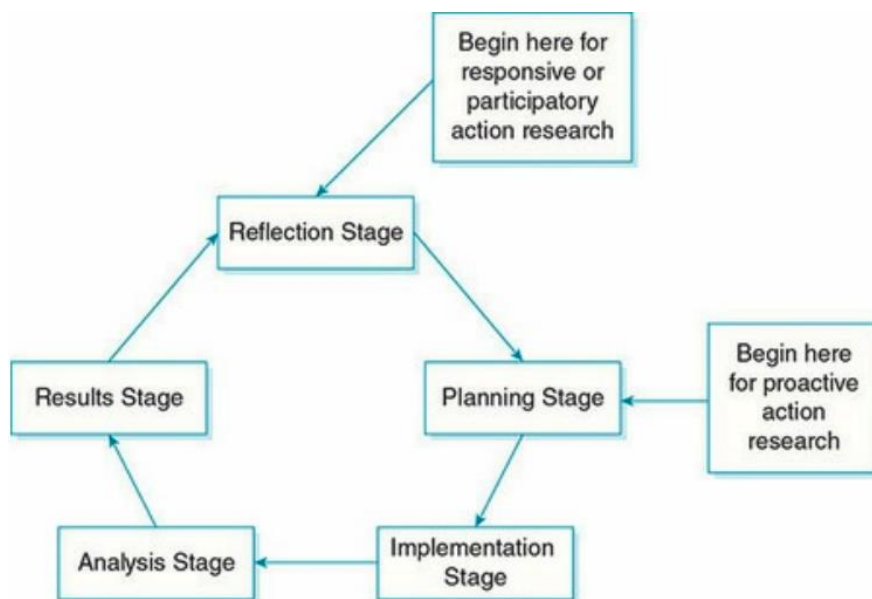
Figure 3. Action Research Is Conducted in a Cyclical Pattern

Depending on the sort of action research being utilized, the cycle will start at a different stage, but the action researcher will cycle through each stage. This process will involve different activities, depending on the practice being implemented.

- Identify, locate, and secure the resources needed to implement the new practice.
- Inform key stakeholders about the change in practice. In some cases, such as with the change in absenteeism practices, there may be need to some lead time before implementing the change.
- If enlisting a team of practitioners, establish the roles of the different team members, ensuring each has an equal voice.
- Identify the research design to be used and outline the steps involved in that design. If the practice involves a group or classroom, decide if you will have a second control group (nonequivalent group experimental design) or not (single-group experimental design). Decide if you will have a pretest or not. Decide how to determine which group or class will receive the new practice and which one will not. If the practice involves one individual or only a few individuals, select a single-case design.
- Decide what you will measure and how you will measure change associated with the new practice (aka dependent variable). Decide if you will collect qualitative data, quantitative data, or both. Develop a data collection procedure and appropriate forms to make collection easy and efficient.

Similar to the above procedure, Ur (2012, p. 296) asserts the following steps to be taken while conducting AR:

1. A problem is identified

2. Relevant data are gathered and recorded
3. Practical action is suggested that might solve the problem
4. A plan of action is designed
5. The plan is implemented
6. Results are monitored and recorded
7. If the original problem has been solved, the researchers may begin work on another; if not, the original problem is redefined and the cycle is repeated.

2.4. Evaluation of Action Research

Table 3. Criteria for Evaluating the Action Research Project

Phases of Action Research	Evaluation Criteria
Identify and reflect on the need	• The research addresses an issue of educational practice. • Researchers are engaged in adequate fact-finding activities. • The issue is clearly described/defined. • Information is collected from key stakeholders.
Plan a course of action	• The plan of action is clearly described. • The plan of action is linked to the reflection and data are gathered from stakeholders. • Role of the research team is described. • The team accesses the resources it needs.
Implement course of action	• Implementation of the plan of action is described adequately. • Changes to the plan of action are described. • Time was sufficient to see the desired change.
Analyze data	• Analysis is sufficiently described and understandable. • Analysis is connected to the issue to be addressed.
Reflect on results	• The researchers reflect on the results. • Plans for future action are described.

Action research differs from traditional research in that it is founded on reflection and ongoing improvement of local classroom practices. It is important to evaluate the action research project itself in order to be reflective and always improve. The stages of action research can be used to the evaluation process. The stages of action research are listed in Table 3, along with certain evaluation standards for each stage. Make sure the researchers are involved in a fact-finding mission to characterize the educational problem from many stakeholder viewpoints and the issue is properly stated while reviewing the phase to reflect and identify the requirement. The course of action must also be specified in detail and connected to the information obtained during the identification phase concerning the problem (Privitera & Ahlgrim-Delzell, 2019).

3. Discussion

Change is the present century's mantra. And today's classrooms require teachers to test out their teaching practices by exerting abundance of pressure on their shoulders. Changing student

profiles, teaching modalities, materials ask teachers to leave their taken-for-granted tools and get armed with newer ones. In order for today's teachers to tackle with the classroom problems, AR stands as a life-saving tool. In the ELT departments, the research course is taught either as a core or elective course. A closer investigation into the contents of the 'research skills course' offered in the program reveals that this course is primarily designed to teach the students teachers the major research paradigms such as characteristics of qualitative and quantitative research. Based on the potential benefits listed above, the authors argue that AR should be integrated into the ELT curriculum as a required course. Instead of devoting a course to teach general research paradigms, an AR course specifically designed to teach both theoretical and practical aspects needs to be placed in the ELT teacher education programs. Such a course integrated in the 5th or the 6th semester would teach the student teachers how to apply AR in their teaching contexts. With regards to the potential benefits of AR for the teacher trainees, Dikilitaş (2020) states that AR provides curiosity, exploration, critical reflection, evidence collecting, analyzing and interpreting skills.

In order to produce effective English language teachers who are well-versed about the realities, problems and the ways of solutions, it seems that AR is an invaluable tool before us. In other words, the more teachers are engaged with AR in their particular teaching milieu, the greater agency they will have over their teaching.

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YOU ARE HOW YOU'RE TRAINED AT COLLEGE: REMARKS ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS IN TÜRKİYE

Sevim İNAL

Oya TUNABOYLU

Havva PEHLİVAN

1. Introduction

This chapter will first underline the role of the teachers and teacher educators with an emphasis on their leading role in shaping the lives of learners at all levels. In the rest of the chapter, such topics as how English language teachers are trained in Türkiye and the official curriculum followed in the schools of education will be delineated. The chapter will also situate an argument that the types of the courses and the course contents offered to the prospective teachers of English need to be redesigned to correspond to the realities of the workforce. The authors argue that the curricular change enacted by the Council of Higher Education Council (CoHe) in 2020 could be used as a logical starting point to restructure the English language teaching (ELT) curriculum across the country.

2. The Role of Teachers and Teacher Educators in Education

What makes education unique? There will obviously be various answers to this question. Everyone would agree that the educational practice is unique in itself and individuals experience learning differently. However, common sense ensures that the teacher is the one who plants the seeds of this experience, and therefore, plays a pivotal role in shaping educational practices at all levels. The teachers, as a dynamic force, could inspire students and make a huge difference in influencing and shaping students' lives. To Kaur (2019), teacher is the main factor in student's success. Makoveç (2018) asserts that, there are two factors that influence a teacher's role: internal and external ones. External is social and cultural and includes the expectations of the role of the teacher from students, parents, and public whereas the internal one is the teacher's own perception of their role. From the institutional perspective, there are various studies (Ajaykumar & Pawar, 2011; Kaur 2019; Makoveç, 2018; Murati, 2015) that underline the significance of teacher's role in actualizing the school aims. In relation to this point, Kaur (2019) argues that, teachers carry the system and they are the real possessors of the product of education. That being said, as the society changes the role of the teacher changes accordingly. The swicth in the role of the teacher from being a major source of knowledge to a class conductor is a good indicator of this change. Chilingaryan et al. (2016) describe this change as 'a human in a human'. According to this phrase, the researchers state that the teachers bear more responsibility; not only by preparing a professional, but educating citizens. Furthermore, Chilingaryan et al. (2016) assert that as the teachers hold a holistic and moral compass in human life, they could well be called the designers of human soul.

his means that the teacher bears more responsibility; not only prepare a

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While teachers play a significant role in motivating students and furnishing them with necessary academic and life skills, they are also the key figures who could improve the education system and meet the demands of the age they live in by setting a role model and inspiring their students. Besides, some other major roles of a teacher have been identified as creating students-friendly and educative curricula that foster student's development and provide opportunity to use their knowledge both in and out of the classroom (Tewari, 2016). Therefore, the teacher has a leading role in actualization of education. In order for the teachers to actualize the educational agenda, they need to be given the flexibility to do changes in their teaching practices rather than stick to an imposed curriculum. Teacher education is a key principle of any education system designing citizens. Given that the changes and rapid developments have been taking place in every sphere of life, education requires competent teachers and teacher trainees to embrace such changes accordingly. Changes also urge the related people to gauge teacher education programs and the courses. Above all else, the teachers are an integral part of this strong power and dynamic force in education. Thus, what teachers teach and to what extent students make use of the knowledge received in the class, the transferibility of knowledge into teaching practices are a matter of life and death. This is particularly important in the challenging and competitive world and is fundamental for the high-quality education.

With regards to the transferability of the formal training to actual teaching contexts, a survey study carried out by Chia et al. (2021) emphasizes the vitality of materialization of the knowledge offered in the programs offered to teacher candidates. In their study, although most of the participants are found to be able to transfer their knowledge, there is still a group of participants who are unable to transfer their knowledge learned at university. Their study identified gaps in current practice and they found the participants developing an idea for educational intervention but failed to implement their knowledge.

In a similar vein, Korkmaz (2017), highlighting the necessity of the pre-service teachers being fully equipped with transferable skills, argues that the teacher trainees should be provided with the opportunuties to apply the knowledge into teaching practices (Jadidi & Bagheri, 2014; as cited in Korkmaz, 2017).

On the other hand, it is believed that not all of the courses taught in the schools of education, particularly in the ELT departments, are practical (Korkmaz, 2017; Uztosun & Troudi, 2015) and the bridge between theory and practice needs to be built by the teacher educators. The teacher candidates cannot make use of the all courses taught and transfer them to their teaching contexts. If learned skills are not transferable, this needs to be scrutinized for the quality and effectiveness of education and immediate steps should be taken to unriddle. Admittedly, translating knowledge gained throughout formal teacher training programs into practice in the

teaching contexts is of acute importance in the challenging era of 21st century as mentioned above.

Then the question as to why the courses offered in the teacher preparation programs cannot be materialized stands out as a critical question begging for an answer. Or, how come many credit hours devoted to teacher preparation cannot be morphed into flesh and blood in the classroom when the teacher candidates start teaching? The reasons may be varied. However, the content of the courses taught, the practicality of the knowledge and the capability of teacher educators to tailor the courses to meet the demands of the work force might come to fore as possible answers.

To Dengerink et al. (2015), the profession of teacher educators is totaly different from teachers, as the first group is seen as teacher of teachers and researchers and this is a key element in the development of teacher educators and their profession. Changing or redesigning teacher education has always been an action plan in the ajanda of every government. We need to do this for two reasons as has been underlined in the OECD report (2018, p. 2)

- What knowledge, skills, attitudes and values will today's students need to thrive and shape their world?
- How can instructional systems develop these knowledge, skills, attitudes and values effectively?

As can be inferred, teacher educators are in the core of these two questions. Answering these questions will help teacher educators to challenge the demands of the century and help them to redesign the education programs. Teacher educators are expected to support the sustainability of education and continuing professional development of teachers and conduct research themselves (Kaster et al., 2008; as cited in Dengerink et al., 2015).

The authors argue that teacher candidates somehow are the mirrors of the formal training they have received during the college years. Simply put, they perform teaching in accordance with their own experiences they have accumulated during pre-service education. The power of teachers in shaping, forming and restructuring educationl practices has been mentioned so far. Likewise, teacher candidates are formed, shaped and designed in the hands of teacher educators serving them through courses and similar opportunities offered to them within the curriculum. As simple as it is, the teachers who are appointed as teachers will adopt teaching practices in the way they have experienced while learning how to teach in the pre-service education training. Therefore, the courses, course contents, requirements for each course and co-curricular activities are of utmost importance to respond to the needs of the teachers in the workforce. Hence, the authors argue that the teacher educators who are closely working with future teachers need to adjust the course contents in accordance with the professional needs of teacher candidates.

3. Curricular Autonomy Proposed by the CoHE in Türkiye

Constant and rapid developments in technology impact today's societies radically. The world is evolving in a fast-paced way and nearly nothing remains the same in this ever-changing period. Students and learners are expected to adapt and transform according to the challenges. Today's classrooms are more dynamic, demanding, and challenging than ever before. To provide all students with the knowledge and skills they will need to thrive in life and the workplace, teachers are expected to consistently innovate, adapt, and develop their teaching methods (OECD Report, 2018).

In order to remain up-to-date and incorporate new information sources, it is necessary to make regulations and changes on curriculum system as such change and regulations are the backbone and framework of any educational system. Shifts in educational policy lead to curriculum change in language pedagogy and regular developments in language acquisition theory, and other factors (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Every change includes some opportunities and challenges as well. Autonomy is one of the key components to respond to these challenges quickly as it enables to embrace the changes effectively. The concept of curricular autonomy refers to the curriculum's adaptability and accessibility to students' needs and skills (Jonker et al., 2020). Autonomy becomes crucial in the institutional environment not just as a quality for students and teachers but also for the institution's pedagogy, including its techniques, processes, and structures (Ryan & Tilbury, 2013).

Implementing autonomous curriculum provides opportunities to regulate teaching and learning processes without being restricted to the requirements of the theoretical perspectives. When this flexibility is offered at universities, this brings about much more than an innovative insight since universities have the ability of leading to the transformation in the society and shaping the society itself. In the development and social transformation processes, universities are generally seen as important institutions since they have the most direct role in producing highly skilled labour and research output to satisfy economic and social needs (Brennan et al., 2004). Autonomous higher education offers fresh ways for graduates' skills or abilities such as; future-focused education and learner empowerment, educational decolonization, transforming skills, cross boundaries, and social development. In an effort to bridge the gap between the specialization of fields and the complexity of 'real-world' circumstances, autonomy attempts to reconnect higher education teaching and learning with the desires for students to be able to integrate and apply multiple forms of information (Ryan & Tilbury, 2013).

Effective staff development programs are becoming more and more necessary as institutions and organizations throughout the world move toward delivering educational and training programmes in a more open and flexible manner. As a result of these changes, it is important to invest in staff development so they may acquire new pedagogical knowledge, skills, and attitudes as well as foster leadership and management that can adapt to the market's needs in

terms of education, business, and technology (Latchem & Lockwood, 1998). In addition to training professionals for society they are in, universities play a vital role for future as they educate student teachers who will train citizens in the future. Teachers are regarded as people who use certain reflective elements to learn from their own practices, who constantly interact with and collaborate with their community of practice, who respond to needs in their social, cultural, and institutional contexts, and who view their career as a developmental process (Öztürk & Aydın, 2019).

Despite the regular shifts in the role of teacher in classroom, the fundamental role of teacher remains the same: establishing conditions in the process as they are the torchbearers of darkness. For the educational excellence purposes, provision of quality training in faculty of education is a must. It is widely acknowledged that the most important element of high-quality education is having teachers who are motivated and well-trained (Altan, 1998). Teachers must be analytical, reflective, and open to new techniques and concepts. The goal of teacher education programs must be to create teachers who are researchers rather than merely technicians and performers of the curriculum (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Pre-service teacher preparation should receive special attention as it is the first step towards professionalization since the quality and qualifications of teachers reflect the quality of education and the achievement of students in accordance (Arzu, 2022).

In the early of 1900's, Winston Churchill underlined the value of change through the improvement: "To improve is to change; to be perfect is to change often". Similarly, one can draw a line between what was said a hundred years ago and now as the change should start with the milestone of education; the curriculum of education faculty. Teacher education is one of the key elements in educational systems as it immediately affects the standard of schooling. In this vein, it is necessary to strategically control and enhance the curricula of the faculties that train teachers (Hismanoğlu, 2013). Teacher education should not be an exception and should actually be the first area of the curriculum to be altered in order to anticipate the necessary changes in advance, as the rapid changes in the world drive educators to rewrite and extend their curricula (Salihoğlu, 2012).

In Türkiye, the CoHE is in charge of designing, regulating and implementing the curriculum for higher education. As of August 2020, the council introduced a radical curricular change in schools of education where prospective teachers of all subject matters are trained and transferred partially the right of designing the curriculum to the professionals. This 'delegation of authority' for the schools of education and teaching programs can be viewed as a turning point in a highly-centralized educational arena. As it is stated on the official website of the council "As the New CoHE, we believe in Turkish institutions' competency and capacity, instructors' academic and professional sensibility, and students' passion for learning" (CoHE, 2020, p.1). CoHE stated that the following requirements need to be met by the boards of higher education institutions to be authorized to determine the courses, curricula, and credits for teaching programs:

a) When developing the course categories, taking into consideration the categories of 'Field Education Courses', 'Professional Teaching Knowledge Courses', and 'General Knowledge Courses'.

b) Considering the categories' listings when determining the number of courses, course hours/credits, and frequency of credits (CoHE, 2020, p.1).

With this reformist step, it is hoped that a framework of reference is established for the schools of education to choose and organize some of the optional courses while adhering to the categorization of the curriculum and their ratios (Arzu, 2022). Regarding that curricular adjustments are generally made in response to changes in educational policy and pedagogy (Harizaj & Hajrulla, 2017), partial autonomy granted by the CoHE to the schools of education can be considered logical and timely.

It must be stated that curricular changes in the schools to keep up with the advancements in education are desirable as these steps somehow validate that the school is the home for the improvement. As is mentioned earlier, the provision of various opportunities with the teacher candidates to transfer what is learned in the program to the workforce is equally important. That is, schools should incorporate the transfer of knowledge and skills to teaching contexts of their graduates (Jon, 2013; Korkmaz, 2017; Tewari, 2016). However, there is always a risk that this potential transfer might fail. Therefore, teacher educators are assumed to find ways to design theoretically-loaded courses offered in the ELT programs in a way that the student teachers will have opportunities to practice. It would not be difficult to estimate that teachers who graduate from the training programs that are furnished with theoretical knowledge would graduate teachers who are familiar with theory but are deprived of practice. Korkmaz (2017) in her study stated that courses taught theoretically are not sufficient enough for the education of prospective ELT teachers as they need to be provided with opportunity to extend their knowledge to practice by performing different practice-based tasks.

4. How Turkish Teachers of English are Trained

As of 2020, there are 84 universities with ELT departments in Türkiye. Of this total number, 57 are housed at state universities while 15 are at private universities. In addition, there are 9 universities in Northern Cyprus, one of which is a state university while 8 of which are foundation universities and 3 universities in Balkan States with ELT departments. As mentioned earlier, the curriculum to be followed in these programs is centralized and designed by the CoHE. Teachers are trained in the schools of education but initially the candidates have to take a central university entrance exam to enter to a university. Upon entering the university, prospective English language teachers, based on their proficiency exam results, either study one-year preparatory English or start their education in the English language teaching program. The courses offered and their percentages are grouped under three major headings: **main compulsory courses** 45-50%; **pedagogical courses** 30-35%; and **general knowledge courses** 15-20%. The first year is like a foundation year to strengthen English language skills rather

than pedagogical skills. Students have to receive the compulsory courses which are Reading, Speaking, Listening and Pronunciation and in addition to these courses, they receive some theoretical courses related to education such as introduction to education, educational psychology, philosophy of education, Atatürk's principles and history of Turkish revolution and Turkish language. As it is seen, not much of teaching practice has been devoted in the first year; however, the students are introduced to teaching approaches, methodology of teaching, second language acquisition and languistics in the second year. Theoretical by nature, these sophomore courses make up the backbone of the curriculum. It is the year when pre-service teachers start to receive the courses that teach them what to teach, why to teach and how to teach. Therefore, the contents, delivery and requirements of these courses are of vital importance.

In a nutshell, compulsory courses can be categorized under two major headings; language-specific and pedagogy-specific courses. See Table 1 below for the courses under each category.

Table 1. Pedagogy-specific and language-specific courses

Pedagogy-specific	Language-specific
Approaches to Teaching and Learning English	Speaking
Introduction to Linguistics	Reading
Language Acquisition	Academic writing
Teaching English to Young Learners	Phonetics
Test Preparation in Language Teaching	Oral Communication Skills
Teaching Language Skills	Listening and
Literature and Language Teaching	Pronounciation
English Literature	The Structure of English
Practicum	
School experience	
Developing Course Content in English Language Teaching	
Research Skills	
Instructional Technology	
Translation	
Special Education and Inclusive Education	
Instructional Principles and Methods	
Critical Reading and Writing	
Community Service Applications	
English Language Teaching Programs	

As can be seen, the majority of the courses in the first column are completely theoretical. As stated by Korkmaz (2017), it is urgent that teacher trainees be trained by actively practising what they have been taught to construct their knowledge through bringing together university-

based theory and school-based practice. There need to be ways to bridge the gap between the theory and practice.

Table 2. Elective courses

Pedagogical Knowledge Elective Courses	General Knowledge Elective Courses
Open and Distant Learning	Addiction and Fight Against it
Child Psychology	Diet and Health
Attention-deficit/Hyperactivity disorder	The History and Philosophy of Science
Education Law	The Ethics of Science and Research
Educational Anthropology	Economy and Entrepreneurship
Educational History	Traditional Turkish Handicrafts
Drama in Education	Human Rights and Democracy Education
Non-programmed Activities in Education	Human Relation and Communication
Program Development in Education	Carrier Planning and Development
Designing Project in Education	Culture and Language
Critical and Analytical Thinking	Media Literacy
The Education of Inpatient Children	Vocational English
Inclusive Education	Art and Aesthetic
Character and Value Education	Turkish Folk Dance
Comparative Education	Turkish Sign Language
Micro-teaching	Turkish Culture and Geography
Museum Education	Turkish Music
Education Outside Classrooms	The History of Turkish Art
Learning Disability	
Individualization and Adaptation of Teaching	
Sustainable Development and Education	
Adult Education and Lifelong Learning	
Field Education Elective Courses	
Language and Society	
World Englishes and Culture	
Pragmatics and Teaching Language	
The Analysis of English Language Coursebook	
Drama in Teaching English	
Designing Materials in Teaching English	
Recent Approaches in Language Teaching	
Teaching English Vocabulary	

English in Mass Communication
The Evaluation of Classroom Learning
Socio-linguistics and Teaching Language
Discourse Analysis and Teaching Language
Teaching Integrated Language Skills

5. Teacher Education Practices around the World and OECD

According to OECD, initial teacher training for general lower secondary teachers lasts anywhere from 3 years to 6–6.5 years. The concurrent and consecutive modes of teacher education are both available. The concurrent model, in which pedagogical and practical training are provided concurrently with courses in a particular subject, is the norm for pre-primary and primary teachers, whereas the consecutive model, in which pedagogical and practical training come after the subject-matter courses, is more common for lower and upper secondary teachers. In 20 of the 36 OECD and partner countries, there are additional requirements in addition to initial teacher education before one can begin teaching and/or become a fully qualified teacher. In 27 of the 36 OECD and partner countries, there are selective criteria to enter and/or progress in student teacher education for at least one grade of education. Only in Brazil, England, and France, beginning teacher education for both pre-primary and primary teachers is primarily organized using the consecutive model. Along with subject-matter and pedagogical instruction, opportunities to gain practical experience are typically included in teacher education programs. Since many pedagogies and skills are best learned on the job, support for teachers should be given early in their careers through mentoring and induction programs, and later on by providing incentives and resources to engage in ongoing professional development activities (OECD, 2014).

As a member of OECD, Türkiye also agrees to develop sustainable development policy in education. In the light of this policy, the government makes regulations and revisions in all sectors of society. CoHE is one of these sectors and it made a radical change and decided on the delegation of authority for schools of education. It is a well-known fact that the majority of universities' teacher education programs focus on academic and theoretical information, largely ignoring the practical skills needed for the teaching profession. Additionally, there are still differences in the curriculum of teacher education programs from one school to another. In addition, there are variations in how well the faculties prepare their graduates to become teachers (Deniz & Sahin, 2006). Both knowledge development and instructional delivery abilities must be covered in teacher training programs. Emphasis is generally placed on building knowledgebases such as subject matter, pedagogical methodology, child development, and educational research. The practicum, which includes early field experience and student teaching experiences, make up the skill-development portion of the curriculum and require students to put their academic knowledge into practice (Altan, 1998).

The new regulation on curriculum of the schools of education is an opportunity but it might pose some challenges because it takes so long to communicate the objectives and strategies through the various layers of the system. In addition to this, incorporating them into conventional methods of teacher education, or implementing a government-established curriculum into classroom practice will take more than a decade (OECD, 2018). There are many obstacles that the design and development team must overcome in order to create a flexible and responsive work-based program that satisfies the needs of the learner, employers, and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) (Bravenboer & Workman, 2015).

No regulation in education occurs for the sake of change; it affects all the stakeholders and components of the process. As a result, when a regulation is planned to be made, many points need to be considered. The provision of a single brief in-service program will not be completed solely by embedding of new practices in teachers' existing professional culture. Nor will any changes be embedded without appropriate readjustment to the processes and content of initial language teacher training (Wedell, 2003).

As a member of OECD, Türkiye follows some policies of the organisation but there are some gaps between the systems of the organization and nation. These gaps make it difficult to implement the regulations successfully. The first difference is the courses in the curriculum. The main idea in OECD curriculum is training student teachers both theoretically and practically and emphasizing on the high rate of practicum at schools. As was displayed earlier, the courses offered to the student teachers seem to foster theoretical knowledge bases. The theory-based nature of language teacher education curriculum has often been debated and criticized. The program includes education courses that focus on education from a variety of angles, such as education sociology, psychology, philosophy, or the history of the Turkish educational system; however, these courses are primarily theoretical in nature and are offered in Turkish at many universities (Öztürk & Aydın, 2019). It is essential to alter the curriculum by including pedagogical courses, lengthening methodological courses, and spending a lot more time teaching the skills associated with effective instruction (Altan, 1998). Teachers find it challenging to carry out their teaching activities in accordance with the realities of the classroom when the curriculum is unable to satisfy the expectations, interests, and requirements of the students (Öztürk, 2011). The main concerns raised in the related literature are that these programs are too theory-focused and do not give student teachers enough hands-on experience in actual classrooms. The job requires softer skills than pedagogical knowledge, but these abilities are not explicitly covered in the program. These soft skills include self-confidence, enthusiasm, and creativity. They also include being tolerant, patient, kind, sincere, and a team member (Öztürk & Aydın, 2019). Universities must take into account the relationship between knowledge and language when creating their curriculum for instruction, and they must implement dynamic and essential reforms to reflect this onto the education they provide (Genç, 2011). And the second difference is the practicum process that student teachers experience, which is a must for the excellence of education. In OECD countries, pedagogical and practical

training are provided concurrently while in Türkiye it is limited to the last year of training. Practicum classes, which give pre-service teachers the chance to put their knowledge and experiences from courses focused on fieldwork, liberal education, and professional expertise to use can be evaluated as the best point to put the theory into practice (Özder et al., 2014). The practicum is the part of teacher training which gets the least attention. Pre-service teachers spend hours on learning subject and general education but little time is spent learning how to teach and carry out real teaching. Teaching the abilities that will enable students to successfully apply their knowledge in the classroom receives very little emphasis (Altan, 1998).

Teacher practicum component can be improved for the excellence of education. In order to improve teacher practicum, the following changes are required: spending more time in educational contexts, including practicum courses into on-going course material, providing a systematic supervision, and improving the collaboration between The Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and CoHE (Altan,1998). The attitudes of the mentors and supervisors toward teaching practice, the value they place on it, how they view their own responsibilities as well as the roles of the other participants can be considered as the key determinants of how this teaching practice really occurs (Öztürk & Aydın, 2019).

The fourth difference results from the third issue. As the teachers in many of the OECD countries do not need to study for an appointment exam, they focus on their profession and get ready for education in a more motivated way but the candidates in Türkiye get ready for teaching with the responsibility of a centralized exam, practicum and courses at school.

As can be seen, the courses offered in the ELT programs are heavily theoretical and the practicum is limited. A closer look at the sequencing of the courses in the ELT programs for each semester will reveal that they seem to be disconnected and independent of each other. As this type of sequencing compartmentalizes learning into discreet points, it is against meaningful learning.

6. Recommendations

Based on the points raised in the chapter, the authors recommend the following list to the policy makers;

1. Bruner's Spiral Curriculum Theory can be adopted to connect the courses in the program. The theory is based on the cognitive approach to education and guides as to how to teach and accommodate learning and integrate learning for the future endeavours. It is about re-visiting the topics and going through the depths of the topic during the education process. To Bruner (1960), each time the student gains deeper knowledge of the topic, it reinforces information over time and allows to use prior knowledge to inform future learning (Drew, 2022). To Bruner, in order for the transfer to happen, children need to learn to make connections between different experiences not merely memorizing the facts (Drew, 2022). To Bruner (1960), if a topic or any skill is introduced to learners with no connection to the core knowledge or essential principles of that area, then the learner will be unable to apply this in other areas of learning. To exemplify

this for the courses, the course contents can be revisited by teacher educators based on the course. A teacher educator teaching approaches and methods course could link the content of the course with the content of SLA theories course. In the same vein, in skills teaching course, for instance, the teacher educator might link with the methods course.

2. When designing the syllabi for various theoretical courses such as Second Language Acquisition or Introduction to Linguistics, teacher educators can selectively organize the course content by prioritizing the topics that are needed in the workforce. Semi-structured interviews with 8 novice English language teachers (unpublished data, 2020) revealed that teachers find the courses such as Teaching English to Young Learners, and Methods and Approaches and Skills Teaching are relatable to their profession whereas they could not understand why they memorized something in the SLA and Introduction to Linguistics courses. The interviewees stated that the credit hours assigned for the young learners and skills courses need to be increased. With regards to the contents of SLA courses, Rod Ellis (2009) provides a list of topics that every language teacher should know. Ellis argues that the syllabus of SLA either needs to be based on the major topics or the key findings of SLA. Towell and Hawkins (cited in Ellis, 2009) argue that SLA course for language teachers should be based on 'observable phenomena' like L1 transfer, staged development, variability in learner language and so on.

3. In the ELT curriculum, the research course is offered either as a required or an elective course. The content of the course, the authors argue, is generally designed to teach the pre-service teachers major research paradigms, their defining characteristics, data collection tools and so on. Instead of teaching pure research, action research needs to be placed in the ELT curriculum. Such a course could be placed in the third year of the formal training. The student teachers could be asked to identify a problem at practicum schools. In order to foster meaningful and more permanent learning, pre-service teachers should witness that what they have learned at college could be linked with what exists outside in the real teaching context.

4. Micro-teachings can be practiced in front of the real learners enrolled in the Schools of Foreign Languages (SFL) or the daycare center of the university. Once mutual negotiation is established between the schools, the students teachers, for instance, can perform microteaching for Skills Course at SFL and practice teaching to young learners at the daycare center on the campus. When the conditions are appropriate, this kind of arrangement can benefit immensely on the part of the teacher candidates.

5. The ELT programs should integrate both co-curricular and extra-curricular activities into their mainstream curriculum. What needs to be noted is that student teachers are likely to teach in the way as they have been taught at college.

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ACCREDITATION AS TRANSPARENT STANDARDS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Ayfer SU-BERGİL

1. Introduction

Technological developments in the 21st century, especially innovations in the field of transportation and communication, have taken the whole world under its influence. However, the number of people who need to learn a foreign language has increased day by day and with the globalization, foreign language has become extremely important in the life of today's people and a common language has been needed for international communication. Thus, today, especially the use and learning of English has a special place (Seidlhofer et al., 2006; Staub, 2019). When its historical course is examined, after the Second World War, English quickly gained importance and has become a dominant language in the international arena; in other words, it has become a 'lingua franca' (Crystal, 2003). As a result, English as the language of science, communication, information technologies, business, entertainment, and diplomacy has become a common communication tool used by people from different countries (Kasap, 2019). Published by the British Council in 2013; the report, which states that the number of English-speaking people around the world is approximately 1.8 billion and that this figure is expected to reach 2 billion in 2020, supports this situation. This is one of the indicators that approximately one quarter of the world's population communicate using English (British Council, 2013).

The use of English as a common language of communication all over the world has played an important role in determining the foreign language education policies of the world countries (Crystal, 2003). In order to respond to the needs of today's world and to catch up with the developments, states have needed to implement and support English language teaching (Ataman, 2021; Ataman & Adıgüzel, 2020; Chang, 2006). Thus, it has been revealed that foreign language teaching has a strategic importance in the development of labor force (Coşkun-Demirpolat, 2015). In addition, the role of the country's education system has come to the fore once again in raising qualified workforce that will provide the necessary change, development, and innovation in social systems in line with the developments in the field of economy, technology, and informatics on a global scale (Adıgüzel, 2008).

According to the English Proficiency Index (EPI) data, which lists the English proficiency levels of countries, although English teaching is given importance in Turkey, material, building, time, personnel, etc. and great resources are devoted to these aspects, the results are not very bright in terms of English language proficiency. According to the index results, in terms of English language proficiency, Turkey ranks 79th among 100 countries and 32nd among 33 European countries (EPI, 2019).

In addition, in the British Council (2015) report, which sheds light on English education in higher education institutions in Turkey, the important problems of English education in universities were revealed and as one of the prominent findings, the 'English deficit' in the country was clearly expressed. It has been stated that this is one of the main factors affecting the quality of higher education negatively and restricting access to academic resources,

international research publications and the mobility of both staff and students (British Council, 2015). In the same report, it was stated that foreign language schools in universities should develop quality assurance plans and aim to obtain accreditation as one of the solutions to overcome the problems presented (British Council, 2015).

Another issue is that the rapid quantitative increase in higher education in recent years has caused some concerns in terms of quality. Especially since the second half of the 20th century, the demand for higher education has increased, a great massification has been experienced in higher education and higher education systems have been rapidly renewed. As a result, interest in quality and quality assurance has increased and these issues constitute the most important agenda item in the field of higher education in many countries (Altbach et al., 2009; Cheng, 2010; Çetinsaya, 2014; Dogan, 2022; Eaton, 2004). In addition to the continuous increase in the number of higher education institutions and accessibility to higher education throughout the world, higher education systems have started to show diversity in many aspects (opening of branch campuses, increase in the number of private universities, distance education). Such developments have led to increasing concerns about the quality of processes and outputs in higher education. As a result, many countries develop external quality management systems at the national level, and accreditation systems are the most common among them (Martin, 2008).

Turkey is also affected by these developments on a global scale, both quantitatively and qualitatively. While the total number of universities in the country was 75 in 2005, the total number of public and private universities increased to over 200 as of 2020. In other words, more than half of the universities in the country were established only in the last 15 years (Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu [The Council of Higher Education (CoHE)], 2015). In recent years, unlike other G20 countries, Turkey has significantly increased the number and size of universities by focusing on quantity. Some improvements were also made in terms of quality, and thus some universities in the country were able to enter global university rankings. On the other hand, 100 of the universities in Turkey are still not among the top 2,000 universities in the world according to the country's own URAP (University Ranking by Academic Performance) rankings (British Council, 2015). In summary, increasing the quality of education and research in Turkey, as in many other countries, is considered as one of the most fundamental problems the system faces. For many years, there has been a general expectation that the quality of the Turkish higher education system should be improved. Therefore, Turkey's new higher education policy should focus on quality (Ataman, 2021; Ataman, & Adıgüzel, 2020; Çetinsaya, 2014; Staub, 2019).

In this context, it is seen that foreign language proficiency in Turkey is not at the desired level, the rapid increase in the number of universities has caused concerns about the quality of education, and quality assurance and accreditation have come to the fore as a solution offer in response to these problems. This study was designed with the aim of (i) presenting the historical development of accreditation (ii) highlighting the foundations and principles of it, and (iii) displaying its effects on the quality of foreign language education and aimed to spread accreditation awareness throughout the target field.

2. The Concept of Accreditation

'Accreditation', a French word of Latin origin, means the state of being reliable and credible. Monitoring being reliable; stating that it is reliable and credible is also expressed as the act of 'accreditation' in French. Accreditation can be defined as the process of monitoring the level of fulfillment of the objectives of an institution or program at certain intervals, according to predetermined standards, with a voluntary and informal accredited agency (Doğan, 1999). Accreditation is the process of quality control and quality assurance to confirm that an institution or its programs meet acceptable minimum standards as a result of audit and evaluation (Adelman, 1992; Skolnik, 2010). Accreditation is a quality assessment method that aims to demonstrate that a program or institution has predetermined quality standards by the expert group in the relevant field, excluding the official organs of the state (Adelman, 1992; Skolnik, 2010).

Accreditation is the recognition of higher education institutions or programs for a certain period of time by an independent and authorized institution in order to demonstrate that the education-training service offered to students in higher education programs is carried out in accordance with certain criteria (Eaton, 2015; Sanyal & Martin, 2007). Accreditation is the determination of the adequacy of an institution or organization that is a candidate to produce a certain good or to provide a service within the framework of the determined standards (YÖK, 1999). Accreditation is the formal recognition that an organization or person is competent to perform certain tasks (Peker, 1996). Aktan and Gencel (2007) expressed accreditation as a system for assuring that the goods and services offered to the society in general are offered at certain standards of excellence. Accreditation is a method developed to assure the quality of the programs and services offered to the society with a systematic approach (YÖK/World Bank, 1999). Accreditation is a formal process that includes the examination and approval of an organization, program or group's compliance with standards or criteria by an authorized institution (Hesapçıoğlu, 2006).

As a concept, accreditation in education can be defined as the recognition of education programs or the approval of their quality by giving an official document stating that there are some pre-determined standards and that they are in force (Bakioğlu & Baltacı, 2010). In other words, accreditation of a higher education institution or training program by an accreditation institution can be considered as an indicator that the teaching staff in an institution fully meet the pre-determined quality criteria and standards in terms of curriculum, administration and services provided to students (Adelman, 1992; Skolnik, 2010, The World Bank, 2010).

Accreditation in higher education is a system that ensures that any program implemented within the higher education institution has the quality standards determined by national or international accreditation institutions, and that this program provides a qualified education, both for those who demand higher education and for the public. In this sense, accreditation constitutes a quality assurance system that requires both the evaluation of a higher education program by

independent accreditation institutions at regular intervals and its self-evaluation (institutional self-evaluation) at the same time (Aktan & Gencel, 2007). Quality accreditation refers to a kind of quality control process and is a systematic examination of the effectiveness of all or parts of a quality assurance program, including all quality processes (Adelman, 1992; Sinha & Willborn, 1985; Skolnik, 2010; The World Bank, 2010).

3. The Foundations and Principles of Accreditation

Accreditation follows a non-state form of operation on a voluntary basis. In the cultural basis of this process, there are individuals who develop themselves and transform quality and efficiency into a lifestyle. The accreditation of individuals and institutions that see themselves as part of automation is only a process of inspection. Control includes ensuring similarity to the law and previous practices. On the other hand, accreditation can be evaluated as a phenomenon that develops above creativity and productivity (Doğan, 1999).

Accreditation brings with it a process that aims to shift from a centralized structure to a philosophy of quality education evaluation based on creativity, originality, productivity and contemporary approaches on account of the fact that creating quality can be achieved with freedom, originality, free thinking, not being under pressure, not feeling fear and threat. At this point, it should not be forgotten that the purpose of accreditation is not to question but to develop the academic facilities and practices of institutions (Epstein, 2012; Hesapçıoğlu et al., 2001; Martin, 2008). Since accreditation is a quality infrastructure, various approval documents are issued as a result of the evaluations made by the organization that evaluates the conformity. Thanks to these documents, the reliability and validity of the products and services offered to the society in many countries and many sectors are approved and the quality of the institutions is guaranteed (Sarp, 2014).

Accreditation is closely related to the concept of quality assurance. Therefore, in all areas where quality and efficiency are based, accreditation is considered and operated as an important mechanism. Therefore, accreditation has been used as a common way to ensure quality assurance and efficiency in universities in recent years (Aktan & Gencel, 2007; Dogan, 2022; Doğan, 1999; Eaton, 2015; Kohler, 2003; Sanyal & Martin, 2007; Wergin, 2005; Yalçınkaya, 1997). Such as, in the USA, accreditation is applied as the main method in assuring quality at higher education level (Eaton, 2004).

In recent years, the most widely adopted model to evaluate higher education around the world is based on independent institutions rather than government institutions. Higher education institutions are mostly evaluated by independent institutions according to the mission and goals they have determined. At this point, the regulatory feature of state institutions has been replaced by the role of approval or registration (Altbach et al., 2009). Kis (2005) lists three approaches used for quality assurance in higher education as accreditation, evaluation and inspection. While accreditation and evaluation focus on the quality of teaching and learning, audit focuses more on the in-house administrative policies implemented by the higher education institution to

achieve its goals. Aktan and Gencel (2007) listed the elements and basic features of the concept of accreditation in higher education as follows:

• Accreditation is a system that allows higher education institutions and/or programs to self-evaluate in terms of performance standards, as well as external evaluation by authorized accreditation bodies.

• Accreditation is a system that ensures the general reliability and recognition of a higher education institution and/or program. Accreditation is the process of awarding a respected certificate that certifies that the relevant institution or program has certain standards of excellence.

• Accreditation is not a one-off process; on the contrary, it is long-term and based on periodic internal and external evaluations.

• Accreditation is a process that aims to continuously improve quality in higher education institutions. Accreditation is a tool that provides quality assurance.

• Accreditation is a system that aims to establish honesty and ethical standards in higher education institutions apart from quality improvement.

• Accreditation is a voluntary (optional) process; there is no pressure or coercion from external public authorities to be involved in this process.

• Accreditation is a self-regulation process in which a non-governmental control mechanism is valid, unlike the regulations determined by public authorities.

• Accreditation is when an institution meets and consistently maintains certain standards.

• Accreditation ensures that accredited institutions and programs will meet or exceed predetermined standards of excellence.

The foundations and principles of the concept of accreditation are fed by its objectives. Sanyal and Martin (2007, p. 6) stated that the purposes of accreditation in higher education are "(i) quality control (providing minimum conditions), (ii) accountability and transparency, (iii) improvement in quality and (iv) facilitating student mobility". Today, accreditation is an important element in the efforts of educational institutions "to be responsible to the public and students, to be accountable to transparency and to increase academic quality" (Hesapçıoğlu et al., 2001, p. 147). Accreditation bodies have stated that evaluation can serve two purposes: "internal improvement and external accountability" (Volkwein, 2010, p.5). Accreditation activity in higher education has benefits for the relevant higher education institution, students, and all stakeholders. Accreditation in higher education is a tool of transparency and accountability. The agreement of accreditation bodies on certain standards and the use of these standards by all relevant institutions ensures transparency. Accreditation bodies are obliged to inform the public about important decisions. These disclosures allow more information to be

provided about institutions. Increasing the information activities carried out in line with the needs of students and the public builds transparency (Aktan & Gencel, 2007).

4. The Historical Development of Accreditation and Foreign Language Education in Turkey

After the industrial revolution, the increase in products and services has revealed the need for continuous improvement in order to ensure that the increasing product and service is appreciated by the user or customer. Quality standard practices aimed at improving the quality in production and service have created the need to have the quality of the product and service approved by an external institution. Thus, accreditation institutions emerged (Çoruh, 2000; Eaton, 2004; 2012). When the process is examined historically, with the concept of quality gaining more and more importance in the field of education, it has been inspired by the applications in the fields of commercial activity and the private sector, and applications to increase the quality in the field of education have started (Newton, 2002). One of these, accreditation practices, first appeared in the fields of engineering and medicine in the United States at the end of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century. Later, it started to be applied in England and Anglo-Saxon countries, and the search for accreditation and quality in other professional fields became widespread. In the field of education, it is seen that accreditation activities started at the state level in order to determine the conditions for transitioning from secondary education to higher education (Doğan, 1999; Martin, 2008).

The reason for the emergence of accreditation practices in the field of education, especially in the USA, is that there is a 'local' public institution responsible for education in each state. The fact that there are significant differences between educational practices in these states necessitated accreditation studies and accelerated the studies in this direction. In other words, the absence of a central authority with national authority over educational institutions in the USA has caused the programs to vary widely in terms of quality and structure. As a result, the need for accreditation as an independent non-governmental evaluation tool has emerged in order to ensure a certain quality and compliance (Günçer, 1999). To this end, four regional associations for institutional accreditation were established in the United States between 1885 and 1895. In 1906, it was decided to establish common standards for universities by the National Association of State Universities in the United States of America. After this decision, accreditation studies were carried out for many professions (Martin, 2008).

In the UK, in the 1980s, quality assurance systems in the field of education first emerged within the scope of Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA) activities. These studies, mostly as an external evaluation carried out by colleagues, contributed to the planning and development of the teaching process in the program. Such assessments have been replaced by institutional audits by the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) in the early 2000s (Cheng, 2010).

In Europe, the fact that the higher education systems of the countries are different has caused problems in reaching the criteria created by the European Union in higher education. For this reason, the member states of the European Union prepared and put into effect some common declarations in the late 1990s and early 2000s in order to bring a common understanding of higher education. Agreements and declarations within this scope can be listed chronologically as follows; Sorbon-1998, Bologna-1999, Prague-2001, Berlin-2003, Bergen-2005 and London-2007 (Sakınç, 2006). The most important of these is seen as the Bologna (1999) process. In the Bologna Declaration, it was suggested that the 'Diploma Supplement' application be implemented in order to make the higher education systems of the countries in Europe as compatible with each other as possible, to search for comparison opportunities to the end, and to have undergraduate or graduate degrees recognized by all European countries (Arslan, 2008). However, the Bologna Declaration aims to develop international mobility, ensure quality assurance in higher education and ensure that countries are harmonized in the field of higher education by prioritizing transparency. The reports prepared in this context led governments to evaluate the compliance of higher education institutions in their countries with the determined standards (Süngü & Bayrakcı, 2010). With the Bologna Declaration, a new process has started in the field of higher education in Europe and one of the most important elements of this process is transparency in higher education. This has led to the conversion of quality assurance systems in many European countries to accreditation, which is thought to provide greater transparency (Kis, 2005; Westerheijden, 2001).

Studies on the establishment of quality assurance and accreditation systems in higher education in Turkey have been carried out largely in parallel with the studies in European Union countries. In this sense, the process that started with the signing of the text of the agreement known as the 'Bologna Declaration' by the Ministers of Education of 29 European countries on 19 June 1999 at the University of Bologna is considered to be one of the important turning points. The main purpose explained in this statement is to create a common higher education system, which is expressed as 'European Higher Education Area (EHEA)' and which ensures harmony between member countries in the field of higher education (Soran et al., 2006). In addition, one of the primary objectives of the Bologna Declaration was stated as "to create a network of quality assurance systems in higher education and to disseminate this practice" (Bologna Declaration, 1999, p. 4). The number of countries that accepted the Bologna Declaration reached 33 in 2001 and Turkey was one of these countries.

Therefore, studies on the establishment of quality assurance and accreditation systems in higher education in Turkey have gained importance since 2001 with the Bologna process. Since the early 2000s, independent national accreditation bodies authorized by YÖK have started to give accreditation in various fields (Arslan, 2008; Koçdar & Kapar, 2017). The effects of the Bologna Declaration, which had a significant impact on the Turkish higher education system can be addressed in two ways. First, Turkey has approved and accepted the standards determined on the harmonization with the European Union on education policies in higher

education. The second is to search for ways to catch up with the quality of higher education in European Union countries and to improve it by adapting it, especially in terms of quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms. For this purpose, official agencies to cooperate with education and research institutions in Europe have been appointed (ENQA, 2000; Kohler, 2003; Mızıkacı, 2003).

The European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) was established in 2000 to ensure cooperation on quality assurance in European higher education. In parallel with the 'European Higher Education Quality Assurance Principles and Standards' report published by ENQA in 2005, YÖK prepared the 'Regulation for Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions' in the same year. With this regulation, YÖDEK (Higher Education Institutions Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Commission) was established to lead the activities to increase the quality in higher education. YÖDEK has prepared the 'Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Guide in Higher Education Institutions'. Thus, the activities for establishing quality assurance systems in higher education in Turkey have started to be carried out in accordance with this guide as of 2005. Compared to other institutions, higher education institutions carry out academic audits for internal evaluation of quality, student, graduate and external stakeholder satisfaction surveys, quality commissions, etc. with more quality assurance practices (OECD, 2009). In terms of external evaluation, to provide quality assurance systems in higher education, European Quality in Higher Education, a stakeholder of 'Quality in the European Higher Education Area' developed by the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education in 2005 started to take charge for higher education institutions. European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance (ESG) has been brought to an international dimension with the publication (ENQA, 2000; ENQA, 2015). This process was followed closely in Turkey and the CoHE published the 'Regulation for Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions' in the Official Gazette dated 20.09.2005 and numbered 25942 (YÖK, 2005).

In 2015, the 'Higher Education Quality Assurance Regulation' came into force and thus the regulation in 2005 lost its validity. However, the 'Higher Education Quality Board' (YÖKAK), which regulates the execution of the quality assessment and accreditation processes of universities, was established in line with the new regulation, replacing YÖDEK, which was established in line with the regulation of 2005.

According to this regulation, quality assurance and accreditation practices will be carried out in a dual structure as institutional evaluation and program accreditation. Institutional evaluation will be carried out in a way to cover the 'education-training, research and administrative processes' of the relevant higher education institution and will be repeated every 5 years. On the other hand, accreditation was not required for the programs and the programs were based on the voluntary basis of their own wishes. It is planned that the program accreditation will be carried out by the institutions authorized by YÖK for the accreditation of the relevant program, and that the accredited programs should be specified in the preference guide in order to

encourage the process (Yükseköğretim Kalite Güvencesi Yönetmeliği [The Regulation on Academic Assessment and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions], 2015).

In the law published in the Official Gazette dated 1 July 2017 and numbered 30111, there are also some regulations regarding the quality assurance system in higher education. One of them was aimed that the Higher Education Quality Board, which was previously under the body of YÖK, now has an administratively and financially autonomous structure. With this regulation, YÖK transferred the evaluation of universities in terms of quality standards and accreditation procedures to this independent board. Thus, the Higher Education Quality Board gained a contemporary feature like the equivalent accreditation institutions operating abroad. Martin (2008) emphasized that the accreditation body should be independent in order to build trust in the academic community.

Now, the main duties of YÖKAK, which has become a full member of ENQA as of April 28, 2020, are to carry out the external evaluation of higher education institutions, to carry out the processes of authorization and recognition of accreditation institutions, and to ensure the internalization and dissemination of the culture of quality assurance in higher education institutions (YÖKAK, 2021-b). In this context, YÖKAK, started to implement for the first time in 2020, evaluates the institutional accreditation by 22 criteria with 56 sub-criteria under the titles of "Quality Assurance System, Education and Training, Research and Development, Social Contribution and Management System" (YÖKAK, 2021-b).

In recent years, it has been observed that there has been a very tight competition between the countries where English is spoken as the mother tongue for English learning, in order to attract more students and to satisfy the incoming students more. For this reason, the quality of the education service; in other words, providing extremely high-quality English education has become very important for all these countries. As a result, the countries that come to the fore with English language teaching give great importance to accreditation practices as the state in order to compete with other countries in the international arena in English education services, to increase the quality of the English education services they offer and to provide quality assurance.

Thus, foreign language teaching and quality assurance studies in higher education in Turkey needs to be taken into consideration parallel to the global developments and changes in this aspect. When it was examined, it is seen that foreign language teaching in higher education institutions is regulated in accordance with the "Regulation on the Principles to be Followed in Foreign Language Teaching and Teaching in a Foreign Language in Higher Education Institutions" published in the Official Gazette dated 23.03.2016 and numbered 29662 (YÖK, 2016). This regulation covers the compulsory foreign language courses and the opening and running of compulsory and optional preparatory classes in accordance with subparagraph (i) of the first paragraph of Article 5 of the Law No. 2547. The quality of foreign language teaching in associate, undergraduate and graduate programs is inspected by YÖK according to the 9th

article of this regulation, and according to the result of the inspection, the program's permission to teach in a foreign language can be revoked. However, there is no article in this regulation regarding the compulsory foreign language courses taught in accordance with subparagraph (i) of the first paragraph of Article 5 of the Law No. 2547 and the supervision of foreign language teaching offered in foreign language preparatory classes (Doğan,2022).

When the quality assurance studies related to foreign language teaching in higher education institutions are examined, it is seen that quality studies started with a workshop organized in 2015 with the participation of 40 universities with the cooperation of YÖK and British Council (YÖKAK, 2021). The workshop report stated that there are differences in curriculum, learning outcomes and quality levels in English language education offered at universities. In addition, some suggestions that can be made on a national and institutional basis are included. In the second study carried out in 2017, it was decided to start the 'Quality Program in English Education' in 5 determined state universities. Thereupon, YÖK organized the 'Workshop on Quality Assurance in Foreign Language Preparatory Education in Higher Education' in cooperation with the British Council and YÖKAK in 2018. As a result of this workshop attended by the directors of the School of Foreign Languages of 26 universities, the goal of establishing a national quality assurance system was revealed (YÖKAK, 2021). In line with this goal, as Dogan declared (2022, p.143) YÖKAK has completed the English preparatory school of 10 pilot universities (Bezm-i Alem Vakıf University, Boğaziçi University, Fatih Sultan Mehmet Vakıf University, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University, İstanbul Medeniyet University, İzmir Institute of Technology, Karabük University, Koç University, Middle East Technical University and Sabancı University) to the "English Preparatory Schools External Evaluation Program (IHO-DDPP)". In order to be used in the evaluation process, the 'Universities English Preparatory Schools External Evaluation Pilot Program Guide' was prepared by the directors of the School of Foreign Languages of 6 universities in line with the 'YÖKAK Institutional External Evaluation Guide' and 30 evaluator candidates who will serve as evaluators in the program were assigned by YÖKAK on October 10-11, 2018. 'English Preparatory Schools Evaluator Training' was organized (YÖKAK, 2021). To this end, studies in this area of foreign language accreditation have shown that "Pearson Assured, EAQUALS (Evaluation and Accreditation of Quality Language Services), CEA (Commission on English Language Program Accreditation), and the national YKAK-HO-DDPP and DEDAK (Language Education Evaluation and Accreditation Board)" of Turkey provide quality assurance internationally with external evaluation (Dogan, 2022, p.138). Ayvaz and Mutçalıoğlu (2019) declared that, among them, DEDAK has some strengths, one of which is every member of the task force had some prior experience with accreditation, and it is significant that its members have competence in accrediting process and assuring quality in education. Alumnae of the WSCUC Accreditation Assessment Leadership Academy, CEA commissioners, a former chair of the Commission, CEA site-reviewers, members of the Board of Trustees of EAQUALS, and many other individuals actively involved in the accreditation of their own programs are among

the members. Second, because of their tenacity and commitment, DEDAK succeeded in spite of several changes to the board's organizational structure, including but not limited to the election of the initial chair. The transitions were seamless, and the work kept moving forward at every level. Additionally, DEDAK has been able to resist any potential commercial influences and the consequences of political instability at times thanks to the wisdom of its members. Reaching out to all parties and balancing the representation of various areas and university types has been another strength. One of DEDAK's core beliefs is inclusivity, but sometimes it is easier to say than accomplish. This is especially true because certification is frequently associated with control and conformity. This was one of DEDAK's obstacles, but it turned out to be a strength.

5. The Effects of Accreditation on the Quality of Foreign Language Education

In terms of the language education in Turkey, it is time for higher education agencies to focus on quality control in their language instruction that increases the importance of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) implementations since there has been a significant increase in the number of institutions that offer EMI (Staub, 2019; Şivil, 2019). Regardless of the department, learning English is essential due to its dominance in the global marketplace; in many circumstances, knowing other languages in addition to English gives aspiring businesses a competitive advantage. Thus, a strong language education can enable pupils to participate in global commerce and obtain a competitive edge. Additionally, quality higher education, research, and innovation are essential for economic growth and competition. Moreover, the significant percentage of universities that offer instruction in English (EMI) is also characterized by the global expansion of higher education institutions (Ataman, & Adıgüzel, 2020; Ataman, 2021; Dearden, 2014; Doiz et al., 2013; Earls, 2016; Macaro, et al., 2018; Staub, 2019). On the other hand, British Council (2015) had recently announced the deficiency of EMI that refers the ongoing process of English language education at higher education level in Turkey. Specifically, the report highlights the inefficient number of the English language teachers at the tertiary level who are qualified enough in organizing, planning, and delivering classes for English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Moreover, the academic staff and members of faculties have drawbacks in specifying and feeding the needs of learners related to the content of foreign language they perceive to learn. These aspects have sparked great attention in providing and pursuing quality and, as a result, announces the need of expertly-accredited English language programs.
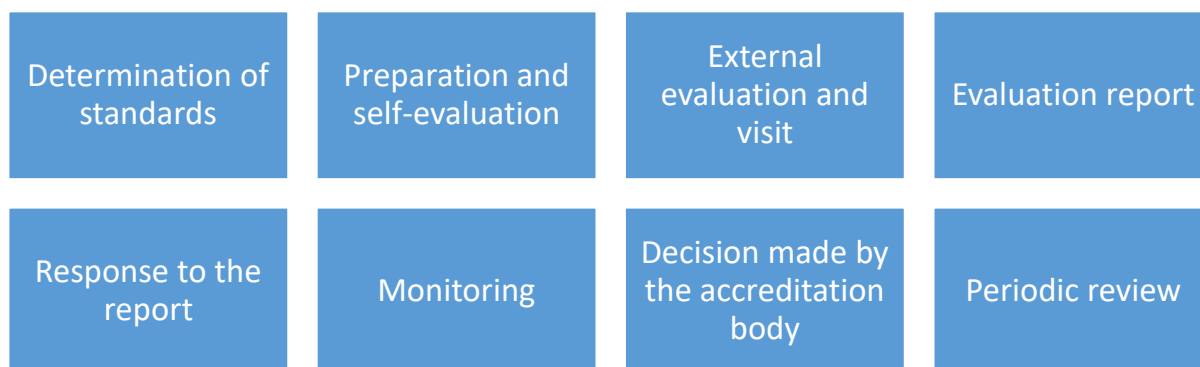
It is of great importance that the higher education institution and its programs are given the opportunity to improve their current practices and increase the performance of the institution during and after the accreditation process. In the accreditation process, contributing to the development of the program by identifying the weaknesses of it and determining the strategies and practices to eliminate them, reveals the most functional effect of accreditation (Epstein, 2012; Provezis, 2010; Sanyal & Martin, 2007). Since accreditation is not an audit system that has direct sanctions according to the positive or negative result after the evaluation of the

institution, it has been stated that the accredited or non-accredited institutions can make improvements through some indirect ways from the evaluation result and that they may be beneficially affected by the process in any case (Bakioğlu & Baltacı, 2010).

The accreditation system generally determines whether higher education programs meet the standards by program-specific accreditation bodies. It ensures that the level of quality is revealed, and the findings obtained are shared with the public, so that students and the business world are informed about the subject (Ataman, 2021; Staub; 2019; Yalçınkaya, 1997). The feature of accreditation, revealing the performance of higher education programs based on some examinations and evidence, and sharing them openly with the public, is very important in terms of providing reliable data for students and parents to make the right decisions about education (Eaton, 2003; Sanyal & Martin, 2007; Wergin, 2005). Students, parents, and employers also demand higher education institutions to certify students' qualifications (Altbach et al., 2009). Similarly, according to Hernes (2008), the audience that wants to achieve and maintain the standards can be divided into three: universities, students, and finally employers who want to make sure that the qualifications specified in diplomas or certificates are actually gained by students. Accredited higher education programs directly or indirectly affect students' choices by documenting that they have achieved quality indicators (Hesapçıoğlu et al., 2001; Martin, 2008). Program accreditation ensures the continuous development of programs in changing and developing conditions, adopting output-oriented approaches, facilitating mobility in higher education, supporting academic staff, improving competition, increasing the respect and trust of the society and the sector in education (Çabuk 2018; Staub, 2019).

In order to better analyze the effects of accreditation on foreign language education, its process needs to be addressed more comprehensively. In the most basic sense, the accreditation process consists of self-assessment, visit, reporting and continuous monitoring to ensure continuity. The process first starts with self-assessment activities that reveal the extent to which the institution applying for accreditation meets the accreditation standards, and the institution begins its work towards the process to eliminate its deficiencies. Then the experts in the visiting team visit the institution and collect some evidence. Afterwards, the findings obtained through both document review and field visits are reported and a comprehensive evaluation is made. As a result, it is ultimately decided whether the institution should be accredited or not. This process takes an average of 1 year. In addition, since the accredited educational institution must demonstrate that it continues to meet the standards during the period of accreditation, it periodically submits reports and the continuity of accreditation is ensured (Eaton, 2012; 2015; Prasad & Bhar, 2010; Provezis, 2010; Volkwein, 2010; van Vught & Westerheijden, 1994). In more detail, the stages in the accreditation process can be listed as follows (Aktan & Gencel, 2007; Gencel, 2001; Heyworth, 2013; Kotarska, 2019; Martin, 2008; Saunders, 2007; Wergin, 2005; YÖK/World Bank, 1999):

Determination of standards	Preparation and self-evaluation	External evaluation and visit	Evaluation report
Response to the report	Monitoring	Decision made by the accreditation body	Periodic review

Figure 1. The stages of accreditation process

• Determination of standards: In this first stage, the accreditation body determines the quality standards to be taken as a basis when evaluating a higher education program,

• Preparation and self-evaluation: In the second stage, the higher education institution applying for accreditation starts the preparatory work for the process. At this point, it first generates an internal self-evaluation (self-examination) report that includes their own assessment of how they are doing in meeting the standards.

• External evaluation and visit: Visiting team members appointed by the accreditation body conduct an on-site evaluation to assess whether the program is meeting the standards. During the field visit, the information and other documents in the self-evaluation report are reviewed, the facilities are inspected, the lectures are observed, and interviews and meetings are held with the lecturers, students, dean and other relevant persons.

• Evaluation report: Visiting team members prepare a report that includes their assessment of the degree to which the program meets the standards and their recommendations on the accreditation status of the programs.

• Response to the report: The administrators of the visited program prepare answers to the material errors, overlooked information and documents in the evaluation report.

• Monitoring: The higher education institution or program is closely monitored for a certain period of time and it is observed whether it meets the desired standards.

• Decision made by the accreditation body: The accreditation body takes the decision regarding the accreditation of the program based on the evidence obtained by convening the relevant commission.

• Periodic review: The accredited program is subject to reevaluation at regular intervals, providing continuous review and ensuring that the program maintains the standards.

Considering these stages of the accreditation process, the processes of revealing, examining and continuously improving teaching activities will undoubtedly have a positive effect on foreign language teaching. In this sense, the accreditation process should not be perceived only as the

process of revealing the educational activities carried out. Although the accreditation process is handled on an institutional basis, it is also based on the devoted cooperation of the program staff who carry out the works in the institutions. For this reason, accreditation processes can affect the working habits of the stakeholders working in the programs and play an important role in supporting stakeholder sharing. In this way, it can help individuals gain momentum in professional development and develop a self-view towards themselves by revealing the best examples and developable aspects of the instructors, with the effect of increasing transparency in the teaching processes.

Given these accreditation concerns, the majority of companies engaged in the delivery of English language education are extremely aware of the value of continuing professional development (CPD). As a result, CPD is listed as a significant institutional requirement in many educational accrediting programs. English language education is no exception to the fact that accreditation has become a crucial component of ensuring the quality of education in recent years. As Collins and Gün stated (2019), the European Association for Quality Language Services (EAQUALS) and the Commission on English Language Program Accreditation (CEA) are two of the top international accreditors. There are also other national organizations, such as the recently established DEDAK in Turkey. Such programs' main goal is to advance educational excellence by evaluating institutions' adherence to set standards objectively and providing a guarantee of excellence. The degree to which a company engages in self-evaluation and continuous education is one of the key indicators of such quality assurance and offering CPD is a requirement of all the major accreditation programs. The accreditation process has been extremely helpful in creating a CPD 'system and culture' in the relevant institutions. CPD is also essential to the tenets of a high-quality accreditation organization (Collins & Gün, 2019). Each recognized institution is expected to establish a culture of ongoing self-reflection and improvement, constantly seeking to improve programs for all its stakeholders. In this view, certification is much more than a document attesting to conformity or the achievement of a minimum level of quality or suitability for a given purpose.

6. Conclusion

All stakeholders, including educational institutions and certification bodies, are facing new problems as a result of the contemporary environment's intense competition, and some of them have been inspired to go above and beyond just preserving and measuring quality. The next task will be to define excellence and make it a crucial component of accrediting processes in addition to pushing for it in educational institutions. Accreditation organizations must overcome this in order to ensure their long-term viability. The approach needs to be revised in order to clearly distinguish between criteria-based approaches to evaluating excellence and minimum/threshold norms and requirements. The next stage in educational progress should be marked by exceeding high standards rather than meeting the minimum requirements, no matter how stringent they may be. Accreditation organizations should be under pressure to establish

the standards and parameters by which excellence will be judged. A fundamental tenet of any accrediting procedure should be to maintain standards and go beyond simple quality assurance.

It is a widely held belief that obtaining accreditation is motivated by the desire to boost the caliber of language instruction, enhance student performance, establish, and uphold high standards, increase visibility, foster collegiality, and spread best practices. It is challenging to quantify the effects and results of accreditation, as well as to evaluate how well certification programs affect internal quality assurance procedures. It might be claimed that accreditation improves the standard for instruction and learning if the process includes mechanisms for self-review. It's still uncertain if accrediting programs would have had an impact on the quality of language instruction. The pursuit of quality is an ongoing process, and the issues of the harmony between the commercial and the practical, the developmental and the educational aspects remain hotly contesting for the accrediting bodies and authorities.

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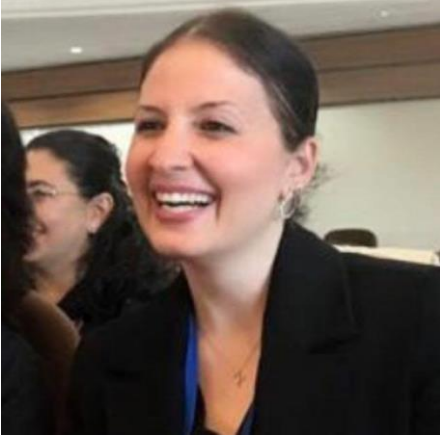
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ESSENTIALS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

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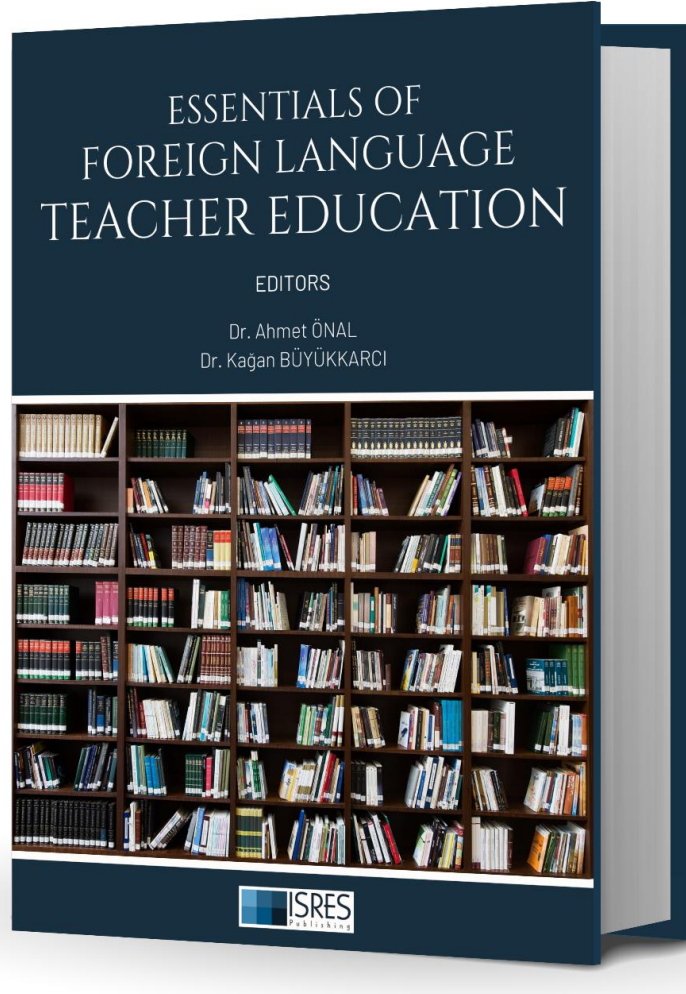
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