MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ YAYINEVİ

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE 21st CENTURY: CHANGING IDENTITIES, AGENCIES, AND MINDSETS

Edited by
Dilek Uygun Gökmen
Aslı Yılmaz Ercan
Işıl Ruacan Silahtaroğlu

MARMARA UNIVERSITY PRESS

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MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

INTRODUCTION

In an era of very rapid changes, a time of extraordinary innovation and information flow, it is not surprising to see how fast the issues regarding English language learning and teaching change. Successful learning and teaching both are determined to a large extent by how well learners and teachers can employ their agency to adapt to new forms and cope with the new challenges. The studies in this volume address some of these new challenges as well as existing ones facing EFL learners, pre-service and in-service teachers in the 21st century.

The title of the volume 'English Language Teaching in the 21st Century: Changing Identities, Agencies and Mindsets' is based on the theme of MELT 2019 International English Language Teaching Conference organized by the English Language Teaching Department and School of Foreign Languages at Marmara University. The chapters in the book are the extended versions of the selected papers from the conference. Each study was subjected to an initial screening by the editors and to following peer-reviews prior to being accepted for publication in this volume.

The studies in the volume are organized in three sections. The first section 'The Learner' consists of three studies which address issues related to EFL learners' skills and needs. The study by Atay & Karacan 'Broadening Horizons Through 21st Century-Oriented Language Education' presents an overview of the 21st century skills for learners and suggests some practical means to integrate these skills in EFL classrooms drawing attention to some new perspectives in 21st century English language teaching. Çakır & Kurt, in their research study titled 'An English Language Needs Analysis of University Preparatory School Students at a State University', aim to determine the perceived needs of preparatory school students at a state university in relation to their following studies at English Medium Instructed (EMI) departments. The last study in this section is 'Willingness to Communicate and EFL Speaking Achievement: The Case of Turkish Learners' by Kızılay & Durmuşoğlu-Köse. This research study explores the relation between the speaking component of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and speaking achievement of EFL learners, thus addressing an important issue considering the status of English in the 21st century as the language of global communication.

The second section 'The Prospective Teacher' consists of three research studies involving prospective EFL teachers. The study titled 'The Co-Construction of Plurilingual Professional Identity of Prospective Language Teachers at a Turkish State University' by Tomak & Akkuş explores how prospective language teachers from multifarious and multilingual language ecologies co-construct a plurilingual and professional identity through dialogic negotiation. The study by Tanış & İnal, 'The Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service Teachers Towards World Englishes' explores EFL pre-service teachers' perception of World Englishes with particular emphasis on their views regarding standard English ideology, localized varieties of English, the ownership of English and native versus nonnative English teachers. Çoban et al.'s study 'A Needs Analysis Study on Academic Writing Skills of Pre-Service Teachers at a Foundation University in Turkey' investigates the needs of pre-service teachers at an English Language Teaching department

regarding academic writing skills. The authors draw attention to the status of English as the language of global communication and education in 21st century and the importance of developing academic writing skills.

In the third section 'The EFL instructor' there are four research studies. Ersin & Kaşlıoğlu's research study titled 'Turkish EFL Teachers' Conceptualizations of Critical Thinking and Critical Thinking Related Practices' focuses on one of the most crucial skills in 21st century: critical thinking. The study explores EFL instructors' conceptualization of critical thinking and their perceptions of integrating critical thinking in EFL classrooms. The study by Dinç-Ayaz & Eveyik-Aydın 'Learning Through a Reciprocal Peer Observation Experience: Perspectives of EFL Instructors and Professional Development Unit Head at a Private University' investigates how reciprocal peer observation (RPO) of teaching process is evaluated by both EFL instructors and the head of professional development unit in terms of its contribution to teaching practices. The study titled 'Program Administrators' Perspectives on the Recruitment of Native and Non-native English Speaking Teachers' by Bayram, Öztürk, & İnal aims to find out how administrators of foreign language schools set the criteria for recruiting English language instructors and to what extent being a native speaker of English plays a role in their decisions for recruitment. The last study in this section 'The Effect of Task Types on Raters Assessing EFL Speaking Performance' by İnan & Karabınar addresses an issue related to one of the major challenges faced by EFL instructors: assessment of learners' speaking performance. İnan & Karabınar investigate whether task type has an effect on the rater's judgment during the assessment of learners' speaking skills.

We would like to thank all the authors for their contribution to this volume. This book would not be possible without them. We also thank the reviewers for the time they spent on reviewing the manuscripts for several times and for their valuable, insightful comments. We would like to express our gratitude to the editorial board of Marmara University Press for accepting this volume for publication and to the Director and all the staff of the Publishing Office for their guidance during the publication process. Last but not least, we would like to thank Professor Dr. Harun Duman for paving the way to MELT 2019 conference and this volume.

Editors,
Dilek Uygun Gökmen
Aslı Yılmaz Ercan
Işıl Ruacan Silahtaroğlu

Marmara University

PART I: THE LEARNER

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Broadening Horizons Through 21st Century-Oriented Language Education

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Abstract

In the last two decades, the world has witnessed notable developments in technology which have affected the way people live, communicate, learn, and teach dramatically. Paradigms in education have also changed radically from the traditional transmission model to active learning based on experiences. Learners are expected to acquire these skills like communication, collaboration, critical thinking, creativity, and digital literacy skills along with knowledge in various areas as they prepare for the future workforce (Larson & Miller, 2011). The present work reviews different frameworks which present the so-called 21st century skills, their definition and implementation in education and in language classrooms. Different innovative learning methodologies integrating digital technologies that can be used to improve students' second language and the relevant skills are presented in detail.

Keywords: 21st century skills, English as a foreign language, technology

Introduction

The 21st century has brought dramatic changes to the world in every aspect of life. The world has become an interconnected one in which the "rapid flows of various components such as capital, people, goods, images, and ideologies draw more and more of the globe into webs of interconnection" (Inda & Rosaldo, 2002, p. 4). People are surrounded by instant transformations and overflowed with a pool of information in every field (Tan et al., 2017). To make sense of, and function well in this world, individuals need an expanded set of skills, competencies, and flexibility and prepare for a continuous learning and reskilling process through their lives and careers. The global landscape for learning is constantly reshaping itself, transforming the way we approach learning (Fandiño Parra, 2013), and the way "we learn and teach" (Eaton, 2010, p. 16).

Societies encounter with numerous difficulties in this age and education has a major role in promoting skills that strengthen both students and teachers to confront these challenges.

Learners need to be ready for jobs that are non-existent for now, for upcoming technologies and to tackle unexpected complications. Educational institutions at all levels need to proceed in accordance with the emerging standards, review their approach and reshape their curriculum (Tan et al., 2017) as it is not possible to "win the future with the education of the past" (Prensky, 2012, p. 2).

However, the real challenge of the knowledge age resides in how an education system can meet the needs and potential issues of 21st century society. Educational systems are under pressure to accommodate a whole range of new, so-called 21st century skills, next to the existing ones to prepare students to survive and prosper in the globalized world of today as well as future (Halverson, 2018).

Thus, in today's highly globalized and digitized world (Brown et al., 2008), education is experiencing a notable transformation. Knowledge transmission is replaced by active learning and construction. The essence of learning in the 21st century can be seen as an overriding concept of education that is promoted as a unified response to changing conditions by the educators. Main components of the learning process encouraged by various learning models of the 21st century include an increased focus on collaboration, critical thinking, communication and creativity and employment of ICT as tools for "knowledge construction and co – construction" (Chai & Kong, 2017, p. 1). Such education is also of utmost importance for L2 learning and language learners from early childhood on need education appropriate for today's world. In order to integrate the skills successfully into the educational programs and into language learning programs as well – and even go beyond them – the skills need to be "clearly defined" for every stakeholder in education (Bloom, 2007, p. 5). Before discussing this transformation, information about the 21st century skills is provided in the following section.

21st Century Skills for Learners

The '21st century skills' are defined as the set of abilities for accessing and assessing information, thinking critically, solving problems, taking part in collaboration and effective communication through employing an array of ICTs (Redmond, 2016). The concept might be recognized as contemporary; however, these skills are "not new, just newly important" (Silva, 2009, p. 631). They have always been important in history ranging from Socrates' philosophy to Dewey's argumentation (Silva, 2009), yet gained increasing importance because of the up – and-coming requirements of knowledge-based economies (Pedró, 2006).

21st Century Skills Frameworks

A number of international organizations have proposed 21st century skills frameworks, namely Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development Competencies (OECD), Assessment and Teaching of Twenty-first Century Skills (ATCS), and Partnership for Twenty – first Century Skills (P21). The skills proposed in these frameworks are not completely different

from each other; however, the categorization of skills differ slightly as will be discussed in the following sections.

Framework of Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development Competencies (OECD)

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) developed a framework for 21st century skills to provide researchers, educators, and policymakers with the "orientations for the design of educational policies and practices that address the requirements of learners in the knowledge of society" (Voogt & Roblin, 2012, p. 303). To illustrate, OECD's categories include a) *Communication* referring to interacting in heterogeneous groups, b) *Information* referring to interactive use of tools, and c) *Ethics* and Social Impact referring to acting autonomously to protect and proclaim rights, interests, boundaries, and desires. Communication has a significant role in the development of 21st century learners as it provides them with the ability to "communicate exchange, criticize, and present information and ideas," as well as utilize ICT tools to interact in digital environments and bring value to the digital culture (p. 10). Information is about "such as accessing, evaluating, and organizing information in digital environments" (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009, p. 9). This category includes research and problem-solving skills owing to the fact that they necessitate "defining, searching for, evaluating, selecting, organizing, analyzing, and interpreting information" (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009, p. 9). Ethics and social impact category is about the concept of "globalization, multiculturalism and the rise in use of ICT" all of which collectively cultivates ethical challenges (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009, p. 10). Hence, 21st century citizens should possess competencies regarding ethics and social impact.

Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21)

Formed by a group of business leaders, educators, and consultants in 2009, P21's framework consists of fundamental subjects such as "English, Reading, Language Arts, World Languages, Arts, Mathematics, Economics, Science, Geography, History, and Government and Civics as well as interdisciplinary themes global awareness, financial, economic, business, civil literacy, health literacy, and environmental literacy" (Albahlal, 2019, p. 144). These subjects and themes are categorized on three fundamental skills: a) Learning and Innovation Skills, b) Information, Media, and Technology Skills, and c) Life and Career Skills.

Information, Media, and Technology skills include information literacy, media literacy, and ICT literacy to access and use information, to create and analyze media products, and to apply technology effectively (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 67). Life and Career skills category includes "flexibility and adaptability, initiative and self-direction, social and cross-cultural skills, productivity and accountability, and leadership and responsibility" (Okros, 2020, p. 155). The learning and innovation skills category stresses that 21st century learners should attain creativity, collaboration, critical thinking, and communication skills, also known as 4Cs, to prepare for the requirements of the global world in terms of both work and life (Gilbert,

2016). The aforementioned skills provide students for a better preparation for collaborative and innovative professional life.

Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills (ATCS)

In 2010, Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills framework suggested a model to define ten globally acknowledged 21st century skills into four major categories of competencies: Ways of Thinking, Ways of Working, Tools of Working and Living in the World. Skills to develop each competency are given in this framework. To illustrate, creativity and innovation, problem-solving are related to the ways of thinking, communication and collaboration are necessary ways of working, ICT literacy is one of the tools for working and local and global citizenship is a skill to be developed for living in the world.

The frameworks discussed so far are related to all fields in education; American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), on the other hand, specifically focuses on the integration of communication, creativity and innovation, collaboration, critical thinking and problem-solving skills along with new Literacies (Media, Information, Technology), flexibility and adaptability, initiative and self-direction, social and cross-cultural skills, productivity and accountability, and leadership and responsibility in L2 learning. Within this framework, language teaching aims to provide students with "opportunities to use language beyond the classroom" (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language, 2011, p. 4) and to attain online literacy, multimodal and technological literacy, and information literacy, not be limited with the knowledge and skills they gain in the classroom.

The frameworks consist of a wide range of skills. However, skills such as collaboration, communication, creativity and critical thinking are the prevalent ones across these frameworks with ICT skills in the core (Voogt & Roblin, 2012). They all emphasize that 21st century knowledge and skills do not only repose on core content knowledge but also include information and communication skills, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills as well as skills to apply the 21st century tools such as ICT technologies. In all frameworks, the integration of digital technologies is highly focused on transforming traditional learning and mobilizing those skills that are necessary for an emerging digital environment.

Globally, the improvement of these 21st century skills is strived for from early childhood to higher education levels (Benner & Hatch, 2010; Germaine et al., 2016; Lindeman & Anderson, 2015). However, when designing education for the 21st century in primary school or at tertiary level, there are several questions to be addressed in all subject areas; a) what pedagogy, curricula, activities and experiences contribute to 21st century learning and b) how technology can be utilized to have a better learning atmosphere while promoting the necessary skills. These questions are not specific to any field, and language education has focused on these issues as well.

Integrating 21st Century Skills into Language Education

As globalization has advanced and the world has become more interwoven through various business partnerships and technological advances like the Internet, the need to connect and team up with people with various languages and cultural backgrounds amplified. The demand has grown for people to integrate communicative language ability along with techniques to steer the recent technologies and encounters of the 21st century, primarily through the use of English, which reportedly is the most frequently 'learned' second language globally (Crystal, 2012).

The language classroom is also expected to update its instructional methods to stay up-to-date and contribute to skills necessary for aggressive modern world. It has to adapt itself to the age of digital technologies and knowledge and to the changes in didactics and teaching methods. Pedagogy of the 21st century differs from that of the previous one and English is not a simple linguistic symbol or as a set of prescribed competencies. In its place, English is seen as a universal language that can be utilized by people to convey their distinct identities and to interact efficiently with the world (Crystal, 2006) and today's language classrooms can no longer concentrate on grammar, memorization and rote-learning. They should indeed be conceived as a place to learn how to use the language communicatively and cultural awareness as a way of communicating with others around the world. English teachers should acknowledge the evolving and fluid nature of literacy that deals with fields as diverse as innovation, interactive media, relationships and culture. In the English classroom, the textual is expected to relate to the graphic, the auditory, the spatial, and the behavioral.

Thus, teachers are expected to resort to new and innovating approaches as well as to incorporate 21st century skills into their instruction as with these skills students will be able to; "a) access, synthesize and communicate information; b) work collaboratively across differences to solve complex problems; c) create new knowledge through the innovative use of multiple technologies" (Fandiño Parra, 2013, p. 193). One major issue is whether teachers are ready to apply the new approaches and can succeed in all these expected changes.

Many studies were conducted on the attitudes of English teachers regarding the development of 21st century skills both in Turkey and abroad. Exploring prospective English teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards 21st century learning with a specific stress on 4Cs, Bedir (2019) revealed through questionnaire and semi-structured interview that prospective teachers mainly were moderately familiar with the integration of 4Cs into their lessons. Kurt and Önalan (2018) investigated pre-service English teachers' perceptions of creativity, one of the key 21st century skills. Data stemming from semi-structured focus-group interviews with eight pre-service teachers discovered that the participants professed themselves as moderately creative yet believed to be unrehearsed to teach creativity.

There are also a few studies conducted with in-service teachers. Tsourapa (2018) investigated Greek EFL teachers' attitudes toward 21st century skills development. A considerable part of the participating teachers had positive attitudes towards the development of 21st century skills and

were eager to use various digital tools to contribute 21st century skills in the EFL class, such as blogs, wikis, social networks, WebQuests, digital storytelling, and videos. However, lack of time, training, or technological equipment inhibits the use of some of these tools in everyday teaching.

Studies conducted with students also underscore the importance the 21st century skill integration into curriculum. In a study with technical college students, Garrison (2018) have revealed that students are aware of the need for 21st century skills for their future careers and hold positive attitudes toward learning these skills. Another study conducted with 760 secondary school students also indicated that students have positive attitudes towards 21st century skills defined by enGauge framework in their content subject lessons (Soh et al., 2010). The study further indicated that integration of 21st century skills into courses had a significant effect on students' attitude towards content courses. In a more recent study with 30 college – level EFL students, Wongdaeng and Hajihama (2018) assigned projects involving 21st century skills and survey findings showed that students' communication and collaboration skills developed and there was an increase in their motivation and positive attitudes.

Studies conducted in the field of language education and general education as well have indicated that though teachers around the globe think that it is necessary to develop each skill in their language classes, many have not much information about how to do this. Many pre – service and in-service teachers equate technology-rich classrooms with 21st century learning irrespective of whether students are grasping 21st century skills. Indeed, the capability to employ technological tools nowadays does not necessarily mean that students know much about global awareness or have developed learning and innovation skills, life and career skills, or critical thinking skills. Teachers sometimes make the mistake of copying the traditional activities when renovating the lesson plans to embed 21st century skills. This results in students using a word processor software for an essay task instead of instructing them to carry on a research, visit local libraries, and create presentation. Adjustments at this scale do not encourage students to delve deeper into the topics resulting in no or little effect on success. The frameworks mentioned above suggest that 21st century skills should be systematically integrated into standards and assessments, curriculum, and instruction to transform classroom practice. Educators need to be familiar with pedagogies and innovative approaches to language development as they deal with the needs of a new generation that have lived in an incredibly globalized world.

Project-based Learning

Project-based Learning (PBL) is one of the main approaches for 21st century knowledge and skill development (Harun, 2006). It is a student-driven and teacher-facilitated learning process, exploiting inquiry, and skill improvement (Markham, 2011). While PBL directs students to collaborate autonomously with the aim of coming up with a real-world products and presentations, teachers undertake the facilitator role leading students in the process with their help and feedback. PBL in language pedagogy is a versatile methodology that leads to various skills to be enacted. Beckett and Slater (2005) argue that PBL can "promote simultaneous

acquisition of language, content, and skills" (p. 108) as it "engages students in learning important knowledge, and developing 21st century competencies through an extended, student – influenced inquiry process structured around complex, authentic questions, and carefully designed products, and learning tasks" (Markham et al., 2003, p. 4). Real-world problems and issues used in different lessons allow learners to gain skills necessary for critical thinking and problem solving as well as deepen student learning. In the language classes, PBL utilizes creative short video creation (Lubis et al., 2018), storytelling and role-playing projects (Maulany, 2013), Web 2.0 integrated fieldwork activity (Farouck, 2016), career planning projects (Kovalyova et al., 2016), Facebook projects (Chang, 2014), occupation-related projects (Bakar et al., 2019), and investigation of reports on social issues (Kettanun, 2015) which are found to enhance students' communication skills. PBL centers around an authentic global concern and it requires collaborative work in pairs or groups (Levin-Goldberg, 2012).

In the Facebook example, students collaboratively worked on projects for which they wrote a labor contract for an imaginary company, conducted research, and performed a presentation at the end (Chang, 2014). In addition to those, online learning environments (Lou & Kim MacGregor, 2004; Papanikolaou & Boubouka, 2010) can be employed in language classes in the context of PBL. As an example, in a study on an e-learning environment called MyProject, students, using the platform, generated ideas, studied hypermedia content, presented their work, and proposed solutions in a language learning environment (Papanikolaou & Boubouka, 2010).

According to Setiawan and Bharati (2018), students can benefit from mini-drama projects as well. In the mini-drama project, students work in groups to compose the drama text and plan the roles cooperatively that is followed by the final performance. In the video creation projects, the students discuss the content related video, construct a new scenario cooperatively, practice the scenario, and video-record it followed by the evaluation of the final video product (Rochmahwati, 2015).

Regardless of the context, level, or age studies have highlighted project-based learning's strong ties to increased creativity, and innovation in EFL contexts (Clark, 2009; Ford & Kluge, 2015; Lubis et al., 2018; Mohammed, 2017; Putri, 2018; Setiawan & Bharati, 2018; Takeda, 2016). For instance, filmmaking projects (Ford & Kluge, 2015) and law-projects (Burkšaitienė, 2013) are found to make significant contributions to the creativity of the learners. With PBL's concrete product requirement in mind, students can also design a brochure, an artifact, a poster, a video, or a booklet (Mohammed, 2017), and a wall magazine leading to increased creativity (Kurniawati et al., 2019).

It is possible and natural to adopt PBL without technology; however, positive findings related to the impact of technology-enhanced projects on 21st century skills have been well documented in the literature. A range of Web 2.0 tools (Elam & Nesbit, 2012), different modes of wikis (Kai-Wai Chu, 2011); (Chu & Kennedy, 2011; Popescu, 2014; Chu et al., 2017), Facebook projects (Chang, 2014), and online learning environments (Lou & Kim MacGregor, 2004; Papanikolaou & Boubouka, 2010) have been impactful. In the TWiki projects, students

co–construct the knowledge by knowledge capturing, sharing, and transferring in groups and at the end of this project, the groups create chapters for a Wikibook (Kai-Wai Chu, 2011).

As has been previously reported in the previous section, PBL is more effective when supported with technology (Marwan, 2015; Prensky, 2018). However, many educators around the globe, in moulding future generations, continue to employ the technologies of yesterday. A question arises at this point as to; *If we are teaching the individuals of tomorrow, why aren't we using the technology of tomorrow as well?*

Emerging Technologies for 21st Century Skills

In the literature, a wide array of activities enriched with digital technologies have been employed to contribute to students' 21st century skills and studies show that life-long exposure to technology has changed 21st century learners' expectations regarding learning environments (Vallera et al., 2019). Students of today are now in favor of interactive, collaborative, and entertaining learning opportunities (Bressler et al., 2018). Providing these and being one of the future technologies, Augmented Reality (AR) allows users to experience pop-out video, picture, audio, or animated 3D objects upon scanning a marker picture on mobile devices (Ro et al., 2018). AR has the potential to contribute to "digital-age literacy, creative thinking, communication, collaboration, and problem-solving ability" (Papanastasiou et al., 2019, p. 425). In a research project carried out with high school students in environmental science class, various AR-enhanced projects such as "Environmental Detectives" and "Murder Investigation" were role-played by students resulting in improved collaboration skills (Klopfer et al., 2005, p. 312). In a study conducted with 64 seventh grade Taiwanese EFL learners, a sensor and handheld AR-supported English learning environment called HELLO was created by teachers (Liu, 2009). Students found opportunities to interact with peers and digital content and hence, higher communication skill was observed. For an AR-enhanced project, students aged 10-16 from science, social studies, and language arts classes pretended to be journalists investigating historical student protests in Madison, Wisconsin in 1967 (Squire et al., 2007). During the project, students researched the topic in local newspapers and interacted with the digital content including multimedia materials online. Students were able to analyze the matter from multiple perspectives and given these points, students' critical thinking skill was developed. As a part of a project, EFL learners, in groups, enriched the photos on the coursebook with augmented reality experiences including animated 3D objects and videos by employing both ready-made applications on the market and the stand-alone application developed by them; in brief, students' creativity was observed to improve (Karacan, 2019). In essence, AR-enhanced projects are well-suited with 21st century skills.

Problem-based Learning

Another pedagogical strategy that can be used in language education is conducting real-world scenarios through problem-based learning. Problem-based learning, a type of project

learning, centers around complex and real-world problem solving employing a case study approach in which students, in groups, conduct investigative research followed by a proposed solution to the problem (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). In developing 21st century skills, problem-based methods "outshine the traditional methods" (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 112). While learners are engaged in problem-based learning activities; they collaborate, communicate, and create a solution together. Educators ought to educate learners to think critically by scaffolding higher levels of thought to focused problems, and practice effective communication skills, foster and inspire imagination by exploring ideas and different ways of speech. In the literature, it is seen that problem-based learning has been widely utilized in EFL classes for developing 21st century skills. To exemplify, Beltran and Guevara Perez (2016) employed problem-based learning in an EFL class covering social values to teach vocabulary by instructing them to find a solution to real-life problem scenarios in which students felt disrespected. Results concluded more quality social interactions as well as increased communication skills.

Discovery-based Learning

Discovery-based learning, a constructivist theory based on the principle that learners construct their meaning and knowledge by experiencing and reflecting, has strong and empirical ties to 21st century skills (Putra et al., 2020). Putra et al. (2020) in an experimental study found that the group employing discovery learning attained higher scores in critical thinking skill, communication skill, and collaboration skill tests. Employing discovery-based learning in EFL context, Dönük (2016) makes use of corpus to deliver an opportunity for her students to familiarize themselves with the real language use as well as practicing digital literacy. With the aim of enhancing critical thinking and creativity in writing, a series of steps ranging from observing to creating announcement texts were proposed in the language learning context (Kusumawardhani et al., 2019).

Inquiry-based Project Learning

Inquiry-based project learning as well as inquiry-based game design learning approaches have also been suggested for the development of 21st century skills (Cynthia, 2015; Chu et al., 2017). Employing inquiry-based learning in the EFL setting, Lee (2014) suggests creating an imaginary shopping scenario in a supermarket by also emphasizing the employment of more creative questions. He further suggests a concert activity in which students inquire about the details of the concert by asking questions to each other in groups.

Game-based Learning

In the development of 21st century skills, game-based learning, an environment with game content and gameplay features enhancing knowledge and skill acquisition, has been mentioned as impactful in the studies. This learning methodology centers around problem-solving and

dealing with challenges with an element of achievement at the end (Qian & Clark, 2016). Research shows that in the context of game-based learning, students in computer game group employing online strategy games surpassed the control group in vocabulary recall and digital literacy skills (Franciosi, 2017).

Students of today and future need to be competent enough to express their ideas using all communication channels (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). In improving communication skills, a range of activities around the globe is employed such as poster presentations, digital presentations, and class discussions related to current global issues (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009). Teachers might also take advantage of student exchange programs, and UN projects such as eTwinning in which students communicate and interact with their peers worldwide and express their ideas on different platforms (Erdoğan, 2019; Palmer, 2015).

Conclusion

In conclusion, various techniques and methodologies have been employed for the advancement of 21st century skills. Although consensus upon the most suitable methodology for the development of these skills has not been reached, there are certain steps or strategies to be followed for the incorporation of the skills. First of all, learning should take place in the classroom where students feel empowered to learn. In language classrooms, teachers should provide learners with the opportunity to be self-learners. The language classroom should be an inquiry-based environment. The above-mentioned pedagogies all emphasize the importance of critical thinking and problem-solving skills which can only be developed in such settings. Language classrooms should be active; it is not possible to develop communication and collaboration skills if students are allowed to express themselves and work in pairs and groups. In today's language classroom teachers need to develop multiliteracy which broaden "the traditional language-based notion of literacy – the ability to read and write – to include not only the ability to produce and interpret texts but also a critical awareness of the relationships between texts and social and cultural contexts" (Fandiño Parra, 2013, p. 202). Through the use of different pedagogical practices, students will be able to participate in diverse discourse communities and cope with interactive linear and nonlinear "texts being delivered on paper, screens or live" (Fandiño Parra, 2013, p. 203).

Having reviewed the 21st century skills into education and language education, it can be stated that the integration of the 21st century skills into the English language learning is a multidimensional process that demands noteworthy adjustments in the curriculum. The mentioned changes bring out the need of reformation the curriculum for 21st – century competencies as well as to the necessity for new instructional methods and evaluation approaches.

Language classrooms today are quite distinct from the that of pre-millennium. It is not possible and reasonable to focus on grammar and memorization; the goal is not only linguistic

acquisition. The focus is on utilizing language and cultural accumulation as a way of connecting people worldwide. Students need to access to the world with the help of their language and cultural skills and succeed with the help of skills necessary for 21st century living. It is important to integrate 21st century literacy themes ranging from global awareness to a variety of literacy modes in cultivating multiliterate learners. In other words, students should be informed about governmental processes, global issues, sound financial and economic decisions as well as develop their competency to reach and utilize the information in, for instance, grasping and reviewing ecological issues and suggesting resolutions.

The 21st century requires the clear and purposeful incorporation of learning and digital skills, ICT skills, literacy skills along with life and career skills. Therefore, education institutes and language teaching context specifically need to deliver activities and tasks related to 21st century skills development.

Teachers, who happen to be the most impactful component of education, should develop themselves with the skills that 21st century requires. By moving away from the traditional conveying figure, teachers should be equipping themselves with a number of skills and approaches. Within this framework, ongoing professional development for working teachers and dynamic, future-oriented pre-service programs are highly emphasized. Both in – and pre – service teachers need to have the opportunity to take part in observations of authentic illustrations and to participate in contextual professional development practices.

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

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An English Language Needs Analysis of Preparatory School Students at a State University

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Abstract

This mixed-method study aimed to investigate the English language needs of preparatory (prep) school students in relation to their future departmental studies. The study was conducted at a state university in İstanbul, Turkey. Quantitative data came from a needs analysis questionnaire administered to 435 prep school students and were analysed by descriptive analysis. The qualitative data were gathered from a focus group interview conducted with randomly selected seven prep school students and analysed through pattern-coding. Findings revealed that students perceived all four language skills important, however speaking skill was perceived to be more important than the others. For the students, skill-specific tasks were generally significant for their future studies. The tasks receiving the highest ratings belonged to the listening and speaking skills. Finally, the students reported that they rarely or sometimes experienced difficulty in skill-specific strategies. Speaking strategies had higher mean scores compared to others, implying that students found using speaking strategies more challenging.

Keywords: needs assessment, preparatory schools, EFL students.

Introduction

'Needs' is defined as "the gap between the current performance and the desired results" and, as an umbrella term, embraces many aspects such as the goals, background and abilities of learners, their language proficiency levels, or preferred ways of learning and teaching (Hyland, 2019, p. 58). Needs assessment or analysis is concerned with the identification and analysis of learners' needs which involve what they know, what they do not know or what they want to know (Brown, 2016; Nation & Macalister, 2010).

Needs analysis emerged in language teaching through the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) movement in 1960s when there was a growing demand for specialized language programs (Richards, 2001). ESP is defined as "a language course or program of instruction in

which the content and aims of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular group of learners" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 198). The ESP movement recognizes needs analysis as "the foundation on which all other decisions are, or should be, made" (Belcher, 2006, p. 135). Although needs analysis started with ESP, it has become an integral part of language curriculum development in general English programs and provided the basis for lesson planning, syllabus design, materials development and evaluation, instructional design and assessment development (Richards, 1990; Widodo, 2017). As Long (2005) emphasized "[t]here is an urgent need for courses of all kinds to be relevant and to be seen to be relevant to the needs of specific groups of learners" (p. 19).

In an earlier definition, Nunan (1988) defined needs analysis as "a family of procedures for gathering information about learners and about communication tasks for use in syllabus design" (p.75). In Witkin and Altschuld's (1995) definition, needs analysis was referred to as "a systematic set of procedures undertaken for the purpose of setting priorities and making decisions about program or organizational improvement and allocation of resources" (p. 20). Brown's (1995) broad definition described needs analysis as a "systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situations" (p.36). Likewise, Sysoyev (2000) described needs analysis as, "having the aim of bringing together the required and desired needs, and of determining goals and objectives to conceptualize the content of the course" (p.13). In Graves' (2000) words, "needs assessment is a systematic and ongoing process of gathering information about students' needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions based on the interpretation in order to meet the needs" (p.98).

Studies on Needs Analysis

Numerous studies have been conducted in both ESL and EFL settings to explore the needs of students to design or evaluate a specific language program. For example, in an earlier study with ESL learners, Zhao (1993) investigated the social and academic language needs of 195 international students at a Canadian University via a needs analysis questionnaire. Analysis of the data revealed that students prioritized their needs for English language for daily living and social interactions, followed by listening and speaking, and then reading and writing skills for studying. Similarly, Shen (2007) aimed to explore academic listening needs of 37 Chinese students in two Canadian universities. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. Findings revealed that students' perceived difficulty in academic listening stemmed from a linguistically and socially unfamiliar context. While acknowledging that listening was a necessary skill to be successful in academic contexts, the students also pointed out that they needed to improve their reading, speaking and writing skills as well. Nakaprasit (2010) gathered data from 17 students, six instructors and one administrator at a preparatory language school of a Canadian university. The main question to be answered

was whether students' academic English language needs were met. The results indicated that the prep school failed to meet students' needs and this was attributed to the administrative rather than instructional problems.

Students also stated that they lacked confidence in communication skills for both academic and social purposes. Samuel (2016) conducted a qualitative case study with five faculty members and 11 beginner level international students at a prep school in New England with the purpose of understanding the general needs of the students. The analysis of data suggested that the students needed both academic and social language skills. Speaking skill was given the most importance, yet students pointed out that they needed to identify speaking registers to be able to function more effectively in academic and social contexts. They also stated they were not proficient enough in their command of vocabulary and grammar.

In an attempt to investigate the academic needs of EFL learners enrolled in an intensive language program of a university in Oman, Al-Busaidi (2003) collected data from students and faculty via questionnaire, e-mail dialogues and interviews. Findings revealed that students expected the language program to cover academic skills that would help them in their future studies. In addition, they stressed the need for more intensive four language skills training in the program. Kırkgöz (2009) conducted a study to specify the academic language needs of EFL Turkish students enrolled at a prep program of a state university in Turkey. The study also aimed to assess effectiveness of the prep school program in preparing students for their future departments. The data were gathered from 220 students and 15 lecturers via a needs analysis questionnaire. Follow-up interviews were also conducted with 120 students and 15 lecturers. The results showed that the students found *'listening to a lecture'* and *'taking notes'* as the most frequently required skill, followed by *'writing a summary'* and *'asking and answering questions during lectures'*. Regarding the effectiveness of the prep program in preparing students for those academic requirements, most students stated that the education they received was not sufficient. In another study conducted in the Turkish context, Coşaner (2013) aimed explore the effectiveness of a state university's prep school program through a needs analysis survey. Two hundred and fifty students and two instructors took part in the study. The results suggested that the program was effective 'to some extent.' It needed improvement in content, materials and assessment. The students reported that they needed listening and speaking skills the most. They also highlighted the importance of vocabulary knowledge. Similarly, Öner and Mede (2015) focused on the needs of A1 level repeat students at a private university in Turkey. A needs analysis questionnaire was used to gather the quantitative data. There were semi-structured interviews as well. The results showed that the program was effective in general; however, more importance should be given to the speaking skill in terms of content, materials and activities used in the classroom. Finally, in Akbulut's (2016) study, a need analysis was conducted with 75 intermediate level prep school students at a state university in Turkey. Both questionnaires and interviews were used to gather data. The results revealed students' demands on more practice in listening, speaking and reading skills in the program. As for the materials, students stated that they should be more authentic and engaging.

The present study, conducted in an EFL context, aims to contribute to the literature by analysing the perceived needs of prep school students who would study in English Medium Instructed (EMI) departments in relation to their future departmental studies. The following research questions were specifically addressed:

1. How do the prep school English language learners perceive the importance of the four language skills (Reading, Listening, Writing, Speaking) for their future departments?

2. How do the prep school English language learners perceive the importance of skill-specific tasks for their future departments?

3. How do the prep school English language learners perceive the difficulties they experience when performing skill-specific strategies?

Methodology

Setting

The present study was conducted at an English preparatory school of a state university in Istanbul, Turkey during the 2018-2019 academic year. Following their enrolment to the university, students are given a proficiency test prepared by the Prep School Testing Unit to determine their English proficiency level. The proficiency levels are set according to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference). In the proficiency test, the passing point 60 equals B1+ level proficiency in CEFR. The students who get 60 points out of 100 pass the test and start their education in their departments. The proficiency test is also used as a placement test and the students who fail the test are placed in the classes based on their proficiency scores. There are three levels in the Prep school program, i.e., A (A1 starters), B (A2 starters) and C (B1 starters).

The Prep school program is based on teaching four skills: reading, listening, writing and speaking. The Curriculum Planning Unit is responsible for the determination of program objectives, content and selection of materials. In 2018-2019 academic year, all proficiency levels used a commercially available course book, a listening skills book, a grammar book and a supplementary book of tasks and exercises prepared by the Curriculum Planning Unit to support students' development of reading, listening, and writing skills.

Participants

At the time of the study, there were 900 students enrolled in the prep program. Out of 900 students, 435 of them could be reached and given the Needs Analysis Questionnaire (NAQ). There were 206 students from A1 Level, 142 from A2 Level and 87 from B1 Level.

All of the participating students would receive English-medium instruction in their future departments. The average age of the students was 19. Among the participants, three students

from A1 level, two students from A2 Level and two students from B1 Level were randomly selected for the focus group interview.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Quantitative data came from a needs analysis questionnaire adopted from Mede (2012). The questionnaire consisted of 80 items answered on a 5-point Likert scale. The first part of the questionnaire aimed to gather some demographic information about the participants while the second part focused on needs assessment. In the second part students were asked to evaluate the importance of four language skills and skill specific tasks such as *'reading articles for journals'*, *'listening to lectures'*, *'writing book reports'* and *'making oral presentations'* for their future departments. They were also asked to state how often they experienced difficulty in using strategies specific to each language skill. The strategies given in the questionnaire included, for example, *'guessing the meaning of an unknown word from context'* for reading, *'listening for specific information'* for listening, *'organizing ideas for argumentative purposes'* for writing and *'summarizing information in your own words'* for speaking. Prior to the study, the questionnaire was piloted with 40 students and the reliability coefficient was found to be .93. For analysis purposes, descriptive statistics were conducted to the data coming from the questionnaire using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 21.0).

In order to support the quantitative data and gain insight into the reasons why prep school students perceived specific skills, tasks and strategies to be important or difficult, a semi-structured focused group interview was conducted with seven randomly selected learners. The interview was conducted in Turkish, the participating students' native language, and lasted 45 minutes. The goal of qualitative data analysis is to uncover emerging themes, patterns, concepts, insights, and understandings (Patton, 2002). The interview data were transcribed and analysed by repeated reading to identify and report common patterns/themes and divergences within the data, following the procedure of Miles and Huberman (1994).

Results

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Four Language Skills for Their Future Departments

The first part of the NAQ asked students to indicate how important they viewed four language skills in relation to their future departments. As can be seen in Table 1, the mean score for each skill was higher than 4.00 indicating that students considered all four skills important for their future studies. Compared to other skills, the speaking skill received the highest mean score (M= 4.74). 83.2% of the participating students believed that it was 'extremely important' for their departments. Similarly, for listening, reading and writing skills, the majority of the students (61.6 %, 52.9 %, and 45.3 %, respectively) opted for the 'extremely important' option.

Table 1

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Four Language Skills

Skills	1	2	3	4	5	*M*	*SD*
	%	%	%	%	%		
Speaking	0.7	0.7	5.5	9.9	83.2	4.74	.65
Listening	0.7	1.8	10.3	25.5	61.6	4.45	.80
Reading	0.5	4.1	17.7	24.8	52.9	4.25	.92
Writing	0.5	5.5	17.7	31.0	45.3	4.15	.93

1: not important, 2: slightly important, 3: moderately important, 4: important, 5: extremely important

Similar to their responses in the questionnaire, during the focus group interview, the participating students stated that they considered speaking as the most important skill among the four language skills. One student said: "I believe the skill that we need the most in the prep school is definitely speaking. After all, if you can't speak a language, you can't claim to know that language."

When the students were asked about the reasons for the utmost importance they attached to speaking, they stated that improved speaking skills enabled successful communication in the target language, improved their self-confidence and were necessary for their future academic education.

In relation to successful communication, the students discussed that they needed to be able express themselves in English fluently and negotiate meaning to reach an understanding. One of the students said: "What I need the most from this year is the ability to express myself effectively in English. I want to speak fluently." The following comment illustrates another student's view:

> "I think apart from academic English, I should also have a good command of general English so that I can easily raise my hand in the classroom when I don't understand the lecture and ask the teacher to repeat or clarify the information. Or I should be able to ask something related to our course."

For students, being able to speak fluently meant improved self-confidence. They admitted that sometimes they felt intimidated to speak in front of their peers due to their low self-confidence in relation to their speaking skills. This resulted in unwillingness to communicate in the classroom. They chose not to participate although they knew the answer of a question or had an idea about the discussion topic. They believed that as their speaking skills improved, their self-confidence would improve too. They also acknowledged that the only way to improve their speaking skills was to practice speaking more in the classroom. As one student pointed out: "I believe the ability to speak improves over time. The more we speak, the better we will get at it. We need to speak more to gain confidence."

Lastly, students discussed the relevance of speaking skill to their future academic studies. They said they needed to improve their speaking skills to be able to participate in–class discussions and give oral presentations in their future departments. The following excerpt illustrates their point:

> "I have a friend who is a second year student at my department. She said they were making oral presentations all the time. I think this is a skill we need more practice in so that we could be better prepared for our departments."

As students were discussing about the speaking skill, they also came up with some suggestions for the prep program they were enrolled at. One of the students stated that they "should have more speaking lessons." Another student added: "I would rather have less reading and more speaking classes in a week." Students also suggested that they should have more class hours with native speaker teachers and they should be forbidden to speak Turkish in the classroom. They thought that, only then, they would force themselves to speak English in the classroom. One of the students explained this situation as: "Even though I know that our native speaker is fairly proficient in Turkish, I still feel I can't speak Turkish with her. I feel like I have to speak English with native speakers. It's a mental orientation maybe." And another student agreed by saying: "I would try harder to express my ideas in English if the instructors were not Turkish." Lastly, one student commented as follows: "We can't overcome this difficulty [in speaking] without practicing more. We need to have more speaking class hours. We need to become more fluent before we start our departments."

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Skill-Specific Tasks for Their Future Departments

Reading Tasks

In an attempt to answer the second research question, the students were asked to rate the importance of skill-specific tasks for their academic studies in their future departments.

When the mean scores for the reading tasks in Table 2 are analysed, it can be said that students considered *reading lecture notes* (M= 4.00), *reading course handouts* (M= 3.87) and using reference tools (M= 3.74) 'important' while the remaining tasks as 'somewhat important' (mean scores ranging from 3.45 to 2.96). Among the given tasks, the task of *reading lecture notes* received the highest mean score and was considered as 'extremely important' by 41.4% of the students while *reading works of literature* received the lowest rating (M=2.96) and was perceived 'not important' (16.3 %) or 'slightly important' (23 %) by the majority of students.

Table 2

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Reading Tasks

Reading Tasks	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	M	SD
lecture notes	2.5	6.2	20.9	29.0	41.4	4.00	1.04
course handouts	1.8	8.0	21.8	37.7	30.6	3.87	.99
reference tools (e.g. dictionaries)	2.1	10.6	28.5	28.5	30.3	3.74	1.06
articles in journals	4.4	14.9	29.7	32.2	18.6	3.45	1.10
newspapers/magazines	4.6	16.1	30.8	26.4	21.8	3.44	1.14
texts on the Internet	2.8	14.7	34.7	33.1	14.7	3.42	1.00
instructions for projects	6.4	22.3	28.3	23.7	19.3	3.27	1.19
graphs/ charts/ diagrams/ tables	11.0	18.2	32.0	20.2	18.6	3.17	1.24
computer-presented texts	4.6	19.8	40.7	24.8	10.1	3.16	1.00
Textbooks	7.4	23.9	33.3	20.7	14.5	3.10	1.15
works of literature	16.3	23.0	24.4	20.7	15.6	2.96	1.31

1: not important, 2: slightly important, 3: moderately important, 4: important, 5: extremely important

The findings obtained from the questionnaire were supported by the students' comments in the focused-group interview. During the interview, the students emphasized the importance of *reading lecture notes* and *course handouts* for their future studies. One student said: "Next year, our materials will be in English. To be able to succeed in our courses, we need to read and understand course related materials."

Students also mentioned that *using reference tools* such as dictionaries and thesauruses helped to improve their vocabulary knowledge and facilitated their reading comprehension. One of the students stated that: "When I see a new word in a text, I look up its synonyms and try to memorize the word with its synonyms rather than its Turkish translation." Another student gave an example by explaining: "If there is an unknown word in the text I am reading, I try to guess its meaning from the context. If I can't, I use a dictionary. Learning its meaning helps me better understand the material."

In relation to their lower ratings of the task of *reading works of literature,* students stated that reading non-fiction rather than fiction was what they needed for their future academic studies. While talking about reading different types of texts, one student suggested that if they had read texts related to their departments, they would have been better prepared for the following year. He also added that the prep program could offer vocational English classes for few hours a week. Here are his opinions in his own words:

> "If we read texts related to our fields in the prep program, we would feel less anxious when we start the department next year. The prep school can also organize vocational English classes. We come to school only for four hours a day. We would come extra hours for the vocational English classes. This is a need."

This idea of the student did not receive support from the other students. One of them stated that they learned new words every day. More importantly, they gained the habit of using reference tools for vocabulary learning. The following year, she said, they would learn content specific vocabulary using vocabulary learning skills and strategies. Similarly, another student made the following comment:

> "We read about various types of topics. Sometimes about medicine sometimes law. It would be difficult and time-consuming to read a text about each department. This would benefit one or two students but others would have to learn irrelevant information."

Listening Tasks

In the questionnaire, students were asked to indicate how important they found the given listening tasks for their future studies. The percentiles, mean scores and standard deviations of the listening items are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Listening Tasks

Listening Tasks	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	*M*	*SD*
dialogues	1.6	1.1	11.0	25.1	61.1	4.42	.85
lectures	2.5	4.8	13.6	24.1	54.9	4.24	1.02
question/answer sessions	1.4	3.9	16.3	32.0	46.4	4.18	.93
class presentations	4.8	14.0	25.3	28.5	27.1	3.58	1.17

1: not important, 2: slightly important, 3: moderately important, 4: important, 5: extremely important

As can be observed in the table, students considered all four listening tasks as important. Among the tasks, *listening to dialogues* received the highest rating with the mean score of 4.42. 61.1 % of the students found it to be 'extremely important.' The task that received the lowest mean score was *listening to class presentations* (M= 3.58). Students found it 'somewhat important.'

During the focus group interview, in order to support the quantitative data and to gather in-depth information about students' needs in relation to listening, students were asked about the importance of listening tasks regarding their future studies. Even though the researcher intended to inquire about listening tasks, the students repeatedly preferred to talk about the content of the listening texts instead. They said they generally did not find the content of listening texts engaging and the listening texts were sometimes not relevant to the topic they covered in the classroom. One student commented as follows: "If I listened to something related to my future profession, I guess I would be more interested in it." Another student supported this idea by saying: "I don't want to do a listening activity just for the sake

of being challenged. I don't want to listen to irrelevant stuff just because it is suitable to our level." One student talked about the importance of the consistency of topics among different skills: "If I read something about environment in the class, then I want to listen to something about environment as well."

Writing Tasks

The students were asked to rate the importance they gave to various writing tasks in relation to their usefulness in their future departments. With the highest mean (M=4.14) of the seven items, *writing essays in reaction to readings* was considered to be the most important for students. Almost half of the learners found it 'extremely important' for their future studies. However, *writing references for a report or project* had the lowest mean score (M=2.68). It was found to be slightly important for the students. Table 4 below presents the mean scores for each writing task in the questionnaire.

Table 4

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Writing Tasks

Writing Tasks	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	*M*	*SD*
essays in reaction to readings	2.3	3.9	18.2	28.7	46.9	4.14	.99
essay-type questions	6.2	11.7	26.0	30.1	26.0	3.57	1.17
a resume (CV)	3.9	16.6	30.6	25.1	23.4	3.46	1.15
workbook exercises	8.7	17.9	28.7	27.4	16.8	3.24	1.20
book reports	12.4	21.1	27.6	23.9	14.0	3.03	1.26
term papers	19.5	18.4	24.8	20.5	16.1	2.93	1.36
references for a report or project	17.0	27.6	32.0	13.3	9.4	2.68	1.19

1: not important, 2: slightly important, 3: moderately important, 4: important, 5: extremely important

The findings of the focus group interview were similar to the results of the NAQ. The students stated that their writing classes were mostly based on essay writing. This was what they learned in the program and what they found most relevant to their future studies. During the discussion among each other, students mostly referred to process writing tasks such as brainstorming for ideas, writing an outline, and developing a paragraph and discussed that following these steps facilitated their writing process. One student explained the writing classes in detail: "First, our teacher presents the essay type and then we read sample essays. After that the teacher gives us an essay topic and we brainstorm for ideas together. Seeing example essays and writing step-by-step makes writing easier." Another student discussed the benefits of such practice as follows: "Writing about your opinions is an important skill we need at university. In the prep program, we practice different types of essay writing. I think these practices will help me with writing tasks in my future department."

Speaking Tasks

Lastly, the importance of speaking tasks was rated by the students for the second research question. The quantitative data derived from the analysis is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Speaking Tasks

Speaking Tasks	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	*M*	*SD*
state opinions on different topics (discussions / debates)	2,8	2.1	10.3	17.5	67.1	4.43	.97
oral presentations	6.0	6.7	20.9	26.9	39.1	3.85	1.20
oral presentations using multimedia tools	6.2	11.0	25.3	28.5	28.0	3.58	1.22

1: not important, 2: slightly important, 3: moderately important, 4: important,5: extremely important

It can be seen in Table 5 that students considered speaking tasks generally important.

The task that received the highest rating among the three was *stating their opinions on different topics* (M=4.43). The majority of learners found it 'extremely important' (67.1 %). Although the lowest ranking belonged to *making oral presentations using multimedia tools* with a mean score of 3.58, the majority of students found it 'important' (28.5 %) or 'extremely important' (28 %).

In the focus group interview, the students highlighted the importance of being able to *express their ideas* in English. This view was supported by one of the students as follows:

> "I think what we essentially need is daily English. We need to speak English all the time in the lessons. Next year, it will be the same in our departments. So we should learn how to express ourselves effectively in English."

Similar to their responses in the questionnaire, the students stated that more speaking opportunities with tasks such as debates and presentations could be beneficial in the prep program. One of the students expressed her ideas as follows: "Our teacher gave us a topic, we got into two groups and debated. It was a very good speaking activity. We had the opportunity to express our opinions. I think we should have more debates in the classroom." Another student highlighted the importance of making presentations for their future studies as follows: "When we start our departments, we will be making lots of presentations but we don't make any presentations this year."

Students' Perceptions of the Difficulties They Experienced When Performing Skill – Specific Strategies

The third research question aimed to illustrate how often the prep school students experienced difficulties in using the given skill-specific strategies. Analysis of the quantitative

and qualitative data coming from the NAQ and the focus group interview is presented for each language skill separately.

Reading Strategies

The prep school students were asked to rate the frequency of difficulty they had in carrying out the reading strategies listed in Table 6 below. When the percentages are analysed, it can be said that, the majority of students 'rarely' or 'sometimes' had difficulty in applying the reading strategies.

Table 6

Students' Perceived Difficulty in Using Reading Strategies

Reading Strategies	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	NA*	*M*	*SD*
recognize words automatically	5.7	28.0	43.4	17.2	4.6	0.9	2.84	.96
go through a text quickly to get the general idea	14.7	25.7	25.7	21.8	10.8	1.1	2.84	1.25
guess the meaning of an unknown word from context	7.8	31.7	36.3	17.9	6.0	0.2	2.81	1.01
read quickly and selectively to find important information	16.1	25.5	26.7	18.2	12.4	1.1	2.81	1.28
understand information in a text when not openly stated	8.5	28.3	37.2	19.5	5.1	1.4	2.80	1.05
read carefully and understand the details of the text	11.7	27.8	31.5	17.0	9.9	2.1	2.79	1.20
recognize the organization of ideas to see their relationships	12.0	31.3	29.9	16.6	8.5	1.8	2.72	1.17
ask questions about a text	14.3	26.0	32.2	15.4	9.0	3.2	2.69	1.24
distinguish the main idea from the supporting detail(s)	13.1	30.1	34.3	14.5	7.1	0.9	2.69	1.11
identify cause-effect relationships	13.3	32.4	32.6	16.1	5.1	0.5	2.65	1.07
identify key information	14.7	33.8	24.8	17.5	7.6	1.6	2.64	1.19
read and respond critically	15.9	26.0	29.2	17.5	7.6	3.9	2.63	1.26
understand writer's aim/attitude	16.3	29.4	29.9	15.4	6.4	2.5	2.58	1.19
predict the content of a text	27.1	28.3	16.1	15.4	12.4	0.7	2.55	1.37
distinguish fact from opinion	20.7	28.5	25.1	15.2	7.8	2.8	2.52	1.26
search for simple information	25.7	30.8	20.0	13.1	9.2	1.1	2.45	1.28

1: never, 2: rarely, 3: sometimes, 4: usually, 5: always, NA: not applicable

During the focus group interview, most of the students complained about not being able to read fast. They said, as they tried to understand the text word by word and paused reading when they encountered an unknown word, their reading was slow. As one student claimed: "I always have issues with time. I can never finish reading in time. I read very slowly." Another

student talked about vocabulary related causes for his reading problems: "I can get easily distracted when I come across with a word I don't know or if the sentences are too long." One student discussed lacking necessary strategies to read effectively by saying: "To answer a reading question, we sometimes need to scan the text quickly but I find this hard to do. I try to understand the text word by word"

Listening Strategies

When the mean scores of students' responses in the questionnaire were analysed, it could be observed that, students 'sometimes' experienced difficulty in the given listening strategies. The mean scores ranged from 2.95 to 2.63. The detailed results of the questionnaire for the listening section are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Students' Perceived Difficulty in Using Listening Strategies

Listening Strategies	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	NA*	M	SD
understand information when not openly stated in a lecture	12.2	26.7	23.7	20.5	15.4	1.6	2.95	1.31
distinguish fact from opinion	10.8	24.4	29.0	23.2	10.8	1.8	2.93	1.22
listen for specific information	16.6	28.7	25.1	16.3	12.6	0.7	2.77	1.27
follow question / answer sessions	16.6	24.8	28.3	17.0	10.3	3.0	2.70	1.29
understand the subject matter of a lecture	15.6	32.0	28.5	15.6	7.8	0.5	2.66	1.16
listen to a lecture to take effective notes	13.8	27.8	30.6	16.6	7.8	3.4	2.66	1.22
understand spoken instructions	20.7	27.1	26.0	15.9	9.7	0.7	2.64	1.25
predict the content of a lecture	20.5	28.0	24.8	18.4	7.8	0.5	2.63	1.22

1: never, 2: rarely, 3: sometimes, 4: usually, 5: always, NA: not applicable

During the focus group interview, students stated that they did not have serious problems in understanding their teachers' talk in English. Mostly, they said, the teachers adjusted their speech to students' level in terms of vocabulary, grammar and pacing. One student said: "When the teacher is lecturing, I can follow her. She speaks slowly and uses easy English. I hope next year in the department I can understand the instructors, too."

In relation to the strategy of *listening for specific information,* students discussed that pre-listening activities used in the classroom helped them to listen to the material purposefully and selectively. They believed this strategy would help them in their future departments as they would have to listen to and understand extended texts or teacher lectures and focus on certain points. Here is a comment of one of the students: "Our teacher always gives us time to read the

questions before we start listening to the audio, which creates an opportunity for us to think about the content of the listening and listen by focusing on certain information."

Writing Strategies

In relation to writing, students' responses revealed that they 'sometimes' had difficulties in using the given strategies except *writing references and quotations,* which received the mean score of 2.36, meaning that they 'rarely' found it difficult. When the mean scores are analysed, it could be seen that the majority of the students either selected the option of 'rarely' or 'sometimes.' Please see Table 8 for the details.

Table 8

Students' Perceived Difficulty in Using Writing Strategies

Writing Strategies	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	NA*	M	SD
summarize information in your own words	11.3	25.5	31.3	20.7	10.6	0.7	2.91	1.18
organize ideas to describe events	13.6	22.5	32.6	21.8	6.4	3.0	2.76	1.20
organize writing to express major and minor ideas	13.3	27.6	29.2	19.3	8.3	2.3	2.74	1.21
organize ideas for argumentative purposes	12.4	28.0	33.8	16.3	6.9	2.5	2.69	1.16
organize ideas for compare and contrast purposes	14.9	27.4	31.0	16.8	6.9	3.0	2.64	1.20
organize ideas to show cause and effect relationships	16.1	27.1	29.4	17.2	7.1	3.0	2.63	1.22
combine information from multiple texts to prepare an assignment	20.5	26.7	23.2	16.3	10.1	3.2	2.59	1.33
write references and quotations	23.4	26.0	27.8	12.2	5.7	4.8	2.36	1.25

1: never, 2: rarely, 3: sometimes, 4: usually, 5: always, NA: not applicable

During the focus group interview, similar to their responses in the questionnaire,students stated that they sometimes found the strategy of *summarizing information in their own words* challenging due to their limited English. One student said: "Writing a paragraph on what we read or discussed is not always easy for me. I cannot be sure about the sentences I write."

In relation to their perceived low language proficiency, they also discussed that when they were writing essays, they did not have difficulties in finding ideas or deciding what to write about. What they found difficult was forming sentences to express their ideas in English. One student commented as follows: "At first I think of Turkish sentences but when I try to translate them, I usually fail to express what I wanted to say in my mother tongue. It is difficult for me to form complex sentences."

In relation to the strategies of organizing ideas for different types of writing purposes such as comparing and contrasting or arguing for/against something, students stated that using the strategy of creating an outline helped them organize their ideas effectively and plan their writing. They also added that receiving instruction on how to write for different purposes facilitates their writing process. As one student pointed out: "Before I start writing, I decide what I will write about in each paragraph. I start writing after I am satisfied with my outline." Another student agreed by saying: "In the prep program, we learn about different types of essays. We write our essays following the writing rules for each type."

Speaking Strategies

Students' responses for speaking showed that each strategy given was 'sometimes' difficult to apply. The three strategies receiving the highest rating were *summarizing information in your own words, expressing your ideas in your own words* and *giving oral presentations* with the mean scores of 2.95, 2,93 and 2.90, respectively. Please see Table 9 for the details.

Table 9

Students' Perceived Difficulty in Using Speaking Strategies

Speaking Strategies	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	NA*	M	SD
summarize information in your own words	12.9	22.3	30.6	22.8	11.0	0.5	2.95	1.20
express your ideas in your own words	15.4	20.9	28.7	21.6	12.6	0.7	2.93	1.26
give oral presentations	14.0	22.3	23.4	22.5	14.3	3.4	2.90	1.37
produce correct pronunciation	13.3	23.4	34.7	17.2	10.6	0.7	2.86	1.18
react to speech and lecture	16.8	23.9	27.4	18.6	12.6	0.7	2.84	1.28
participate in discussions/debates	16.6	20.7	19.3	22.3	15.2	6.0	2.80	1.48
provide solutions to given problems	12.9	26.7	31.3	19.5	7.8	1.8	2.77	1.18
ask relevant questions	17.2	26.2	26.0	18.6	10.3	1.6	2.73	1.27

1: never, 2: rarely, 3: sometimes, 4: usually, 5: always, NA: not applicable

When students were talking about the difficulties they had in speaking, they mentioned the difficulty they experienced in producing novel sentences in speech. Expressing opinions using their own sentences challenged them due to their perceived low English proficiency level. During the discussion, this concern was also associated with the difficulty of speaking fluently and accurately. Students pointed out that their desire to speak with few mistakes and constantly monitoring their grammar as they spoke resulted in unnatural speech. As one of the students commented: "I would like to speak fluently but I worry about my grammar too much. I make many mistakes when I try to speak fast."

Discussion and Conclusion

The present study aimed to identify the needs of prep school English language learners in relation to their future English-medium departments. Analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that, first of all, prep school students believed in the importance of four language skills for their future studies. The speaking skill was perceived to be slightly more important than the other skills. There were several studies with parallel results in the literature. For example, in the studies of Zhao (1993) and Samuel (2016), prep school students considered speaking the most important skill, followed by listening, writing and reading. In Nakaprasit (2010), prep school students also rated speaking as the most important skill. Similarly, in Öner and Mede's (2015) study, prep school students highlighted the importance of the speaking skill in the prep program.

Second, when students were asked to evaluate the importance of the given skill–specific tasks, they considered all tasks 'important' or 'somewhat important' for their future departments. The tasks receiving the highest ratings belonged to the listening and speaking skills. For the listening skills, the highest mean scored belonged to the task of *listening to dialogues and lectures*. In speaking, the students stated that *expressing their ideas in class discussions* and *making presentations* were very important for them. As for reading, students considered *reading lecture notes* and *course handouts* very beneficial for their future studies, while *reading works of literature* was rated as somewhat important. In writing, students regarded *writing essays* very important whereas *writing references for a project* received the lowest rating. Students' comments in the focus group interview supported their responses in the questionnaire. Students discussed the importance of the given tasks for their future studies and provided some reasons for their responses. Similar results can be observed in the relevant studies. For example, in a number of studies students considered reading-specific tasks such as *reading course handouts* and *reading articles in journals important* (Nakaprasit, 2010; Samuel, 2016; Zhao, 1993). Similar to the present study, the task of *listening to lectures* was found to be significant for students' needs in other studies as well (e.g., Nakaprasit, 2010; Samuel, 2016; Shen, 2007; Zhao, 1993). For writing, in many other studies too, the task of *writing essay type questions* was found to be important (Kırkgöz, 2009; Samuel, 2016; Zhao, 1993). In relation to speaking, the tasks receiving higher mean scores included *expressing ideas* (Doğan & Mede, 2017), *participating in class discussions* (Nakaprasit, 2010; Samuel, 2016; Zhao, 1993) and *making presentations* (Nakaprasit, 2010; Samuel, 2016).

Third, for the last research question, students were presented with some skill-specific strategies and asked to indicate how much difficulty they had in applying them. The mean scores revealed that students 'rarely' or 'sometimes' experienced difficulty in all skill-specific strategies. Speaking strategies had higher mean scores compared to others, implying that students found using speaking strategies more challenging. Qualitative data coming from the focus group interview shed a light on the reasons why students found some strategies more challenging. Common reason given by the students was their perceived low English proficiency

level. In Kırkgöz's (2009) and Coşaner's (2013) studies, students found, for example, the strategy of '*guessing meaning of unknown words from context*' difficult and *lexical incompetence* was the reason given to explain the experienced challenge. In Nakaprasit (2010), students had difficulties in '*using correct grammar*' while writing and this resulted in poorly written essays. In relation to speaking, *making presentations, participating in class discussions* and *answering questions* were considered difficult by students (Coşaner, 2013; Doğan & Mede, 2017).

To conclude, the findings of the present study contribute to the relevant literature by illustrating the needs of prep school students and provide insights into the existing English language prep program of the state university, where the study was conducted. Under the guidance of the findings, the prep program can be recommended to reconsider its syllabus design, materials development and evaluation, and instructional design to better match the needs of prep school EFL learners' language needs in relation to their future departments in English medium faculties.

In light of the qualitative data gathered from the students, future needs analysis studies could focus on collecting data about the needs of English language students regarding the content and the materials used in language classrooms as students in the present study stressed the importance of the content of listening texts and materials used in reading classes. In the present study the needs of students from all proficiency levels (A, B, C) are sought. Finding out the differences between the needs of different proficiency levels of the prep programme was not one of the purposes of this study. For future research, it is possible to compare the data from different proficiency levels in order to find out whether different proficiency levels have different needs. Finally, the needs of students from different departments could be compared in a further study. The perceptions of students in relation to their language needs might vary for each department and in return raise the necessity to implement different prep programmes for students of different departments.

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MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Willingness to Communicate and EFL Speaking Achievement: The Case of Turkish Learners

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Abstract

The present study aims to explore the relationship between the speaking component of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and speaking achievement exam scores of Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners. Additionally, the factors that influence WTC of students were investigated. To this end, a mixed-methods research design was employed. The quantitative data were gathered from 40 intermediate level students studying at a state university while 18 students representing low, moderate and high level of speaking achievement were chosen and administered an open-ended questionnaire for qualitative data. The results revealed that there was a significant moderate positive correlation between speaking component of WTC scale and speaking achievement scores of the participants. Specifically, those who have high level WTC tend to get higher scores from a speaking achievement exam. The participants also reported some factors influencing WTC and these can be categorized in four themes; teacher, topics, classroom activities and self-confidence.

Keywords: Willingness to Communicate, Speaking Achievement, EFL, Speaking skill

Introduction

The construct of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) has and continues to attract considerable interest in the L2 learning research (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). WTC appears to be fundamental to productive engagement in spoken communication in English as a Foreign language (EFL) environments (Wood, 2016). WTC can be defined as a state of mind and given a state of self-confidence as a communicator (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011). In L2 context, WTC can be best defined as a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2 (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement, & Noels, 1998).

After being examined in the context of L2 communication and acquisition, WTC was seen as a mixture of internal and external factors, including L2 self-confidence, motivation, opportunity for contact, perception of L2 competence (Clement, Baker, & MacIntyre 2003; MacIntyre &

Charos, 1996; Yashima, 2002). Additionally, some studies focused on the relationship between WTC and some specific elements. In the EFL setting of Iran, researchers examined the relationship between WTC and the personality traits of openness to experience and extraversion (Khany, & Nejad, 2017), and the relationship between WTC and learners' pragmatic knowledge (Hosseinpur, & Nevisi, 2017).

Likewise, the relationship between WTC and Arabic students' foreign language achievement was explored by Mahmoodi and Moazam (2014) in Arab setting. All these recent studies show that gaining an insight for WTC enables language teachers to know about its development, the aspects affecting it, and possible ways to help boost it (Zarrinabadi, 2014).

In their influential study, MacIntyre et al. (1998) incorporated personality, communicative competence, social situation, intergroup climate, attitudes and motivation, interpersonal motivation, L2 self-confidence, and desire to communicate. They found out that over 30 variables have possibility of affecting L2 WTC. In that study, L2 WTC is modelled as a pyramid that systematically presents interactions between situational and trait influences (Almurtadha, 2019). In that heuristic model, WTC is proposed to have interaction with cognitive-affective variables and social factors. L2 learners move from the basic influences shown in the bottom of the pyramid (e.g. personality, social situation, L2 self-confidence etc.) to the top layer which shows being able to communicate in the L2.

As Robson (2015) stated, WTC can be categorized as its occurring ways; at the trait, situational, and state levels. At the trait level, the variables are quite constant across unsimilar situations. Variables are changeable at the situational level despite being fixed to the situation. At the state level, WTC is measured at the certain moment it takes place. Empirical studies into L2 WTC have mainly centered on trait-like WTC and situational WTC where L2 WTC is interdependent among individual students' personalities, linguistic abilities, and situational and environmental conditions as well as communication strategies (Chen, 2018).

In addition to the studies carried out outside of EFL classroom, researchers mainly focused on language skills and achievement of L2 learners for in-class WTC. Especially, speaking achievement and oral proficiency has been regarded one of the most remarkable area in terms of WTC research.

WTC and Speaking Achievement in L2

In communicative classrooms, teachers who facilitate communicative language teaching tend to have encouraged students who have high degree of willingness to communicate in the foreign language (Riasati, 2018). In an EFL environments in which learners are not exposed to English outside classroom, language learners cannot find an opportunity to practice L2 except for classroom environment. For this reason, in-class speaking activities are essential to increase learners' WTC and speaking proficiency in L2. Speaking proficiency involves receptive and expressive skills, with the knowledge of oral language including phonology, vocabulary,

morphology, grammar, discourse features, and pragmatic skills (August & Shanahan, 2006). Being aware of these aspects, proficient L2 speakers are called with different terms as fluent, knowledgeable, competent, bilingual, or good (Višnja & Dunja, 2012).

WTC and speaking proficiency in L2 are likely to relate to each other as learners' desire to communicate results in high scores in their speaking proficiency in the previous research studies (Valadi, Rezaee and Baharvand, 2015; Chen, 2018; Cong-Lem, and Thu-Hang, 2018; Riasati, 2018).

In a recent study, Valadi, Rezaee & Baharvand (2015) investigated the relationship between WTC and oral proficiency of language learners in an Iranian context. 70 intermediate language learners participated in their study. The WTC questionnaire was provided to the participants and a standard speaking test was carried out. The results of correlational analyses displayed that there was a strong relationship between WTC of learners and their oral proficiency.

In another study, Cong-Lem & Thu-Hang (2018) examined the interplay among WTC, speaking test anxiety, and speaking proficiency. Participants were 40 tenth-grade students at a high school in the southern part of Vietnam. The research instruments included a speaking-test anxiety and an L2 WTC scale developed by the researchers. The results indicated that WTC was positively associated with the participants' speaking proficiency.

In a similar study, Riasati (2018) carried out a study which tries to find out the extent to which WTC contributes to an improvement in the learners' speaking ability. 156 EFL learners participated in the study. Some questionnaires were used to evaluate WTC and other variables. In addition, participants took an IELTS speaking test to see if their WTC is related to their speaking performance. Findings revealed that learners who were more willing to speak got a higher speaking score.

Another study in that vein aimed to explore the type of learning task to foster WTC. Based on this, Chen (2018) designed a higher-order thinking (HOT) approach to see the relationship between WTC and L2 speaking proficiency. Data were collected through observation from pre-test, post-test, delayed post-test, and stimulated recall interviews with the participation of two freshman EFL classes. Results showed that the HOT approach significantly enhanced participants' WTC and that WTC was positively correlated with L2 speaking ability. It was seen that there was a positive attitude toward the thinking approach in student interviews and a perceived improvement for speaking and WTC in L2.

These studies illuminate the relation between L2 WTC and L2 speaking achievement in that learners who are willing to communicate gain higher speaking score.

Factors Affecting Willingness to Communicate

The variables which constitute WTC are required to be handled thoroughly in foreign language education so as to explain WTC's entangled condition in the process of language learning (Kanat-Mutluoglu, 2016). With this aim, many researchers investigated the essential factors affecting WTC in L2 environment.

In Persian context, WTC studies examined the effects of several key components on WTC including the effect of learner autonomy (Khaki, 2013), emotional intelligence (Ketabdar, Yazdani, & Yarahmadi, 2014), teaching communicative strategies (Mirsane, & Khabiri, 2016), code-switching (Noorbar & Mamaghani, 2016), the simultaneous impact of anxiety, self – confidence, communicative competence, and international posture (Aliakbari, Kamangar, & Khany, 2016), and a person-centred future time perspective intervention (Zarrinabadi, Ketabi, & Tavakoli, 2017).

Similar studies were seen in Omani and Indonesian contexts. In the setting of Oman, possible effects of communication and affective variables on WTC were searched (Al Amrani, 2019). In EFL setting of Indonesia, considerable effects of perception, motivation and communicative self-confidence on WTC of Indonesian learners were investigated (Fadilah, 2018).

Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, and Bielak (2016) summarized the fundamental impacts on changes in WTC levels identified by researchers in a table;

Table 1

Summary of the main influences on changes in WTC levels

Study	Variables affecting WTC levels (often in interaction)
Kang (2005)	"security, excitement, responsibility"
Cao & Philip (2006)	"group size, familiarity with interlocutors, their participation, knowledge of the topic, self-confidence and cultural background"
De Saint Léger & Storch (2009)	"students' perceptions of their speaking skills, contributions they made to in-class oral activities, attitudes towards these activities"
Cao (2011)	"self-confidence, personality, emotion, perceived opportunity to communicate, topic, task, interlocutor, teacher, group size, linguistic factors"
MacIntyre, Burns &Jessome (2011)	"context"
MacIntyre&Legatto (2011)	"linguistic factors (lexis), context, proficiency"
Cao (2013)	"task, experience, confidence"
Cao (2014)	"individual characteristics, classroom environmental conditions, and linguistic factors"
Peng (2014)	"motivation, learner beliefs, classroom context, aspects of perceived communication confidence, such as topical knowledge, topical familiarity or critical thinking ability"
Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak (2014)	"participation format (monologue vs. dialogue), fatigue"
Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015)	"presence or absence of teacher, degree of familiarity with interlocutor, having ideas to share"

Some other factors which enhance learners' WTC outside classroom like studying or spending time abroad have been investigated in several EFL contexts. For example, Kang (2014) examined the effects of study-abroad (SA) experiences on EFL learners' WTC. With the participation of 60 Korean university, the results indicated that the EFL learners' WTC was significantly improved as a consequence of SA experience. Similar findings are shared by Leis (2015) who examined the effectiveness of a short study abroad program on WTC. In that regard, 80 Japanese junior high school students answered a pre and post questionnaire after they attended a ten-day study abroad program to Sydney, Australia. The findings showed that there was a salient decrease in the anxiety level of students for English speaking practice.

While factors generally concentrate on student aspect, Chang (2018) asserts that research does not focus on the viewpoints of the ESL university students and their professor in terms of factors affecting WTC. Based on this gap, the researcher investigated the factors that influence the WTC of ESL university students from the point of both the students and their oral communication professor. Chang (2018) found out that the influencing factors for WTC from student perspective were "interest in the topics, conversation partner, vocabulary and pronunciation, English language proficiency, student-professor rapport, and physical and psychological issues." It was revealed that the professor also identified some factors as influencing students' WTC as "cultural background, interest in the activity, attitude toward the nationality of the professor, and fatigue." These studies pinpoint a requirement for determining the factors affecting WTC and improving students' WTC to help them acquire the target language.

Current Turkish Research on Willingness to Communicate

In Turkish EFL context, despite limited number of studies exploring L2 WTC, there have been some attempts to illuminate the learners' desire to speak in educational setting.

In a study, Çetinkaya (2005) investigated whether college students who were learning English in Turkish EFL context were willing to communicate when they were provided an opportunity and whether the WTC model explained the relations among social-psychological, linguistic and communication variables in this context. The Structural Equation Model (SEM) analysis was used to investigate the interrelations among students' willingness to communicate in English, their language learning motivation, communication anxiety, perceived communication competence, attitude toward the international community, and personality. The findings demonstrated that Turkish students were somewhat willing to communicate in English and their WTC in English was directly related to their attitudes towards international community and linguistic self-confidence. The attitude toward international community was correlated with personality. Students' motivation and personality were also indirectly related to their WTC through their linguistic self-confidence.

Şener (2014) displayed the levels of WTC of Turkish ELT department students together with its relationships with their linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitudes toward international

community, and personality by using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Results revealed that there were significant correlations between self-confidence, attitude toward international community, and WTC in English. It was seen that the most significant predictor of learners' WTC was self-confidence. Additionally, students' motivation had a partial impact on their WTC.

In another study, investigating the relationship between the levels of WTC inside the classroom and language learning strategy (LLS) use among Turkish university students, Merç (2014) found out that Turkish EFL learners were willing to communicate in the classroom in a range from half of the time to usually willing. In addition, a significant positive correlation was found between WTC and LLS.

Öz, Demirezen and Pourfeiz (2015) examined EFL learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) in Turkish context. The participants who were enrolled at EFL teacher education program at a Turkish university answered questionnaires on WTC, communication and affective factors. The results showed that 21.6% of the participants had high WTC, 13.4% had high communicative competence and 18.7% had high level of communication apprehension. In addition, the results of SEM demonstrated that communication competence and communication apprehension were the strong predictors of WTC while motivational factors indirectly affected WTC. A strong correlation between integrativeness and the ideal L2 self and attitudes towards learning situation and instrumental orientations was found out. In other words, when learners are more aware of their ideal L2 selves, they will be motivated to communicate more.

Examining WTC through a structural model with the attendance of 251 freshmen students, Asmalı (2016) found out that participants' WTC in English directly affected by their attitude toward international community, their motivation to learn English, and their confidence in English communication. Carrying out a research on the predicting effect of three self-guided motivational units, namely, idealL2 self, academic self-concept and levels of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) on L2 WTC, Kanat-Mutluoglu (2016) found out that ideal L2 self was the best predictor of L2 WTC. Similarly, Öz and Bursalı (2018) found out parallel results that the relationship between the Ideal L2 Self and L2 WTC was statistically significant. In their study, Hişmanoğlu and Özüdoğru (2017) revealed that major of learners or their experience of communication with English speaking people influenced learners' WTC in English.

As can be inferred from the studies cited in the previous studies, research in Turkish context mainly underlines the concepts of WTC level of L2 learners and its relationship with learner's self-confidence and motivation. Although some recent studies carried out to explore the factors related to the L2 WTC, the reasons why tertiary level Turkish EFL learners show for their willingness or unwillingness while communicating in L2 have not been investigated thoroughly. Thus, there is still a need for conducting studies in Turkish EFL context to shed light on the relation between WTC and speaking achievement, particularly at tertiary level. Additionally, carrying out more research on WTC in terms of speaking proficiency of learners

and their motives to be engaged would provide opportunities for both L2 learners and teachers to enhance the production of target language.

Overall, given the dearth of research on the exploration of WTC regarding speaking achievement in Turkish EFL context, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a correlation between the speaking component of WTC inside the classroom and speaking achievement exam scores of Turkish EFL learners?
2. What factors affect L2 WTC of Turkish EFL learners in speaking skill?

Methodology

The current research followed a mixed-method design in which a quantitative research was conducted first, then qualitative data was analysed to explain and clarify the findings in depth, as part of 'explanatory design' (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Convenience sampling technique, which requires willing and available participants (Dörnyei, 2007), was used for recruiting the subjects of the study. The quantitative dimension of the study consisted of a correlation analysis while the qualitative dimension included the data obtained from the open – ended questionnaire.

Participants

The participants in the study were Turkish intermediate level EFL learners studying at English Preparatory Program of a state university. There were 40 participants including 21 males and 19 females whose ages are ranged between 18 and 22. In the beginning of the academic year, the institution held a proficiency and a placement exam designed by the testing office of the institution and based on the results of these exams, the students were placed. For this reason, the participant group was homogenous. Intermediate level is categorized in independent user based on CEFR (Common European Framework). CEFR specified that B1 learners

> "Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
>
> Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken.
>
> Can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes/ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans." (Council of Europe, 2001)

The students have been taking 20 hours of English classes, including 12 hours 'Main Course' and 8 hours 'Reading and Writing'. A separate speaking course does not take place in the

curriculum of the institution; however, instructors were expected to do speaking activities of main course books and reading books in classes.

Setting

The study was carried out at English Preparatory Program of a state university in İstanbul, Turkey. The preparatory program provides one-year English education for students who will study at English departments like Molecular Biology and Genetics and Political Science and Public Administration. In addition to these English obligatory programs, students studying at departments in which Turkish is medium of instruction prefer to study at English preparatory program voluntarily in their first year. The program aims B2 (upper intermediate) exit level based on CEFR. The program offers 22-20 hours in a week according to students' level.

Instruments

In order to find out a relation between the level of WTC inside the classroom and speaking achievement, and the factors affecting WTC, three data collection instruments were used: WTC scale, speaking achievement exam scores, and an open-ended questionnaire.

WTC Scale

In the study, WTC Scale developed by MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod (2001) was used. The scale is originally composed of four sections. In the current study, only one section of the scale entitled "Willingness to Communicate Inside the Classroom" was used. The scale includes 27 items to measure students' willingness to engage in classroom tasks and activities.

The items are categorized in four skills as speaking (8 items), reading (6 items), writing (8 items) and comprehension (5 items) in L2. Students are supposed to demonstrate their willingness to communicate on a scale from 1 to 5 (1=almost never willing, 2=sometimes willing, 3=willing half of the time, 4=usually willing, 5=almost always willing) in each sentence of related sub-skills. The scale was used in the research conducted by Merç (2014) and translated into Turkish in the context of that research. This Turkish version of the scale was used for the current study as well, with slight modifications to clarify the context.

Speaking Achievement Exam Scores

Speaking achievement exam scores were obtained from the institution at which participants were studying. English Preparatory Program of that institution holds periodical midterm exams including written and speaking parts every two months. In speaking part, students have approximately 10 minutes to speak and answer the questions of the interlocutor.

Speaking exam is composed of three parts. In the first part, the teacher asks the student questions about daily life. Then, the teacher asks two different questions to the student about education, technology, health or food. Afterwards, the student picks a topic among several speaking topics asking their opinions. The student prepares for the topic by taking notes in 3 minutes and starts sharing his ideas on the topic. Two teachers assess the student's speaking performance. The Interlocutor teacher gives an overall score over 20 and the Assessor teacher gives his score based on a detailed rubric (Appendix A). The student performance is recorded via audio recorder. If there is a big difference between two teachers' marking (more than 3 points), teachers listen to the record together and decide on the final score of the student. In the present study, midterm 3 (B1 level exam) speaking scores of the students were collected.

Open-ended Questionnaire on Factors Affecting WTC

Open-ended questionnaire (Appendix B) was adapted from the study carried out by Chang (2018). The questionnaire included 6 questions. These questions were asked in participants' native language, so that they could give answers in their mother tongue which help them to feel better while expressing themselves. The aim of the questionnaire was to find out reasons for why students show willingness or unwillingness in communicative engagement in the class.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedure followed the steps below:

1) Firstly, the participants, in different three classes, were asked to answer WTC scale during a class hour by their teachers. Participants completed the scale in 15-20 minutes.

2) Secondly, speaking achievement exam scores of the participants were obtained from the institution at which students studying after a formal permission.

3) After the completion of first two stages, the participants with high score, medium score and low score were randomly chosen as the representatives of each group and the questionnaire was administered to these students. 6 students from each group, 18 in total, were asked to answer the open-ended questionnaire in their regular class hour with the guidance of their teacher.

Data Analysis Procedures

In order to answer the first research question "Is there a correlation between the speaking component of WTC inside the classroom and speaking achievement exam scores of Turkish EFL learners?", the descriptive analysis was conducted and mean scores of WTC inside the classroom scale and speaking achievement scores were calculated. Afterwards, the Product – Moment correlation coefficients were calculated between the speaking component of WTC inside the classroom scale and speaking exam scores.

To answer the second research question "What factors affect L2 WTC of Turkish EFL learners in speaking skill?", the information gained from qualitative data was analysed using Content Analysis Method (Miles & Hubermann, 1994). Focusing on three categories as strategies to develop EFL learners' communicative skills, factors affecting WTC in their opinion and their suggestions to have higher WTC presented in the open-ended questionnaire, codes were determined. Similar codes were grouped together for next step to form subcategories. Then, emerging subcategories were written under the title of main categories; strategies to develop their communicative skills, factors affecting WTC in their opinion and their suggestions to have higher WTC. To show evidence from data, some excerpts were presented for main categories.

Results and Discussion

RQ 1: Is there a correlation between the speaking component of WTC inside the classroom and speaking achievement exam scores of Turkish EFL learners?

In order to calculate the correlation, firstly mean scores of the whole scale and the components of the scale were calculated. This analysis aimed to find out the level of WTC inside the classroom of Turkish EFL learners in four language skills. The descriptive analysis of the WTC inside the classroom scale displayed that the overall mean for WTC was 3.34 (3= Willing half of the time, 4= Usually willing). Findings revealed that the participants were placed between half willing and usually willing as the scale illustrates.

Table 2

Mean scores for WTC Inside the Classroom

Components	N	Mean
Reading	40	3,7958
Comprehension	40	3,7500
Speaking	40	3,1781
Writing	40	2,9219
Overall	**40**	**3,3454**

1= Almost never willing
2= Sometimes willing
3= Willing half of the time
4= Usually willing
5= Almost always willing

In addition, the mean scores of the four components were calculated to see the level of WTC inside the classroom. It was found out that willingness to read in class (on your own) was the highest component among others (3.79). The second highest component was comprehension

in class (3.75). Speaking in class took the third place among other components (3.17) and writing in class had the lowest mean (2.92).

As displayed in Table 2 above, Turkish EFL learners' WTC level is slightly high above *"willing half of the time"* in overall mean score and in mean scores of the components, except writing. It is seen that the participants are quite willing to communicate while they do not have overall willingness inside the classroom in terms of speaking skill. It is a striking point that the participants are not much willing for writing skill which has the lowest mean score.

Table 3 below shows the correlation analysis between the speaking component of the WTC inside the classroom scale and participants' speaking achievement exam scores to see whether there is a relationship between them.

Table 3

Correlations among speaking component of WTC and speaking exam scores

		WTC Speaking	Speaking Exam Scores
WTC Speaking Component	Pearson Correlation	1	,329*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,038
	N	40	40
Speaking Exam Scores	Pearson Correlation	,329*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,038	
	N	40	40

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The findings in Table 3 represent that there is a significant moderate positive correlation between speaking component of WTC scale and speaking achievement of the participants (r=.329, p<.05). It indicates that those who has higher level of WTC in speaking component tend to get higher scores from the speaking achievement exam, or vice versa.

These results are in line with the previous research in various contexts (Valadi, Rezaee & Baharvand, 2015; Chen, 2018; Cong-Lem, & Thu-Hang, 2018; Riasati, 2018). The findings also agree with the previous study conducted by Merç (2014) in Turkish EFL context. The researcher found out that first-year Turkish university students who were enrolled at English Language Department were neither unwilling nor high willing to communicate inside the classroom in terms of both overall willingness and willingness in four language skills. In a similar way, Merç (2014) noticed that the students were quite less willing for the productive skills, speaking and writing.

RQ 2: What factors affect L2 WTC of Turkish EFL learners in speaking skill?

To find out factors affecting L2 WTC of Turkish learners, participants' answers were categorized in three main categories; strategies to develop their communicative skills, factors affecting WTC in their opinion and their suggestions to have higher WTC. Sub

categories can be listed as practicing English, watching English movies / TV series and participating speaking activities for the first main category; teacher, topics, classroom activities and self-confidence for the second main category; and speaking, reading and listening for the last main category.

Findings related to developing communicative skills are demonstrated in Table 4 below. It is seen that all groups practice English even if in different contexts and watch English movies and TV series even if with different purposes.

Table 4

Participants' answers based on developing communicative skills

	High	Moderate	Low
Developing communicative skills	➢ Practicing English with family members with foreign friends with tourists with international students via message on their own ➢ Watching English movies/TV series repeating dialogues heard in movies in real life learning patterns ➢ Participating in classroom activities speaking activities in class	➢Practicing English reading books listening podcast listening songs with lyrics ➢ Watching English movies/TV series with subtitles learning words ➢ Participating speaking activities in class	➢ Practicing English with foreign friends reading books messaging with friends playing games study on internet ➢ Watching English movies/TV series

The analysis showed that students with low speaking scores do not mention about participating speaking activities in class while answering the related question. It can be concluded that low level students do not get involved in-class speaking activities and so they do not consider this strategy as developing their communicative skills. Besides, low level students only mention about watching English movies or TV series, but they do not state any purpose or strategy for it. On the other hand, high level students state they learn patterns while moderate level students express they learn words through English movies.

The excerpts below illustrate how students improve their communicative skills.

(1). I feel anxious while I am speaking English, so I go to Sultanahmet and **speak English with tourists** there to improve my speaking skill and **control my anxiety**. *(Student 19 –Moderate level group)*

(2). I try to understand English words by watching English TV series and movies. (Student 15 – Moderate level group)

(3). I talk to my **family members in English**. I have **speaking practice with my foreign friends** once a week. I **repeat the dialogues** performed on English TV series in my daily life. *(Student 28 – High level group)*

The excerpts show that students with higher scores use various strategies and real-life opportunities to enhance their speaking skills in target language including practicing English with family members, foreign friends, tourists and using the phrases in English movies.

Findings related to factors affecting WTC are illustrated in Table 5 below. Based on findings, the participants' answers were categorized in four subcategories; teacher, topics, classroom activities and self-confidence. As it is seen in Table 5, only low and moderate level groups mention self-confidence. It can be concluded that while high level students do not have a problem with their self-confidence, low and moderate level students consider it as an influencing element for their WTC.

It is noteworthy that low level students give more detailed explanation about self – confidence. They expressed some reasons for not being self-confident such as feeling shy, feeling not proficient, being afraid of making mistake and being introvert.

Table 5

Participants' answers for factors affecting WTC

	High	Moderate	Low
Factors affecting WTC in speaking skill	➢ Teacher with fun activities listening to the students motivation knowledge encouragement ➢ Topics enjoyable interesting ➢ Classroom activities group-work pair work teacher-student activities	➢ Teacher good rapport encouragement having fun ➢Topics enjoyable interesting background information related to their major ➢ Classroom activities friendly atmosphere pair work games ➢ Self-confidence fear of making mistake being introvert	➢ Teacher good rapport encouragement ➢ Topics enjoyable interesting interest-based ➢ Classroom activities motivation in class pair work games ➢ Self-confidence fear of making mistake being introvert feeling shy felling not proficient

The excerpts below demonstrate these key points affecting students desire to do speaking practice in the class.

(4). Speaking in front of others is the thing makes me unwilling to communicate. I am unwilling because I'm **afraid of making mistake** and I **feel nervous**. *(Student 31 – Moderate level group)*

(5). The biggest reason is **self-confidence**. For this reason, **it bothers me when the teacher asks me a question** even if I know the answer or the topic. I feel really **nervous** when the question is addressed, and I start **not to participate** to the activities. But I understand them.

If I were a teacher, I would do anything I could to make students engaged. *(Student 10 – Low level group)*

(6). I **feel relaxed while I am talking to my friend** next to me and I become eager to speak. *(Student 26 – Moderate level group)*

The excerpts above indicate that *low level student 10* (5) emphasizes the importance of self-confidence. They know the answers of the questions asked in the class; however, they are not confident enough to share their opinions in L2. Similarly, *moderate level student 31* (4) declares that being afraid of making mistake hinders him speak with others. *Moderate level student 26* (6) confirms the result that moderate and low-level students prefer to talk to their peers in pair-work while practicing speaking in the class. They avoid speaking in L2 while all classmates are listening to them. These findings align with the recent study of Tan, Yough and Wang (2018). The study demonstrated that confidence had the highest weight in determining Chinese undergraduate students' WTC.

Similar to the study of Osterman (2014), the findings demonstrate that the environment play an essential role in why students do not actively engage in English communication in class or with each other. Osterman (2014) found out that some students were less active and participating than they need to be. Therefore, this demotivated mood seemed to affect the classroom atmosphere and decrease the level of WTC. In the current study, the participants share same opinions as stating, "motivation in class" and "friendly atmosphere" as factors affecting their willingness to speak in the class. One of the participants in Osterman's study (2014) mentioned that when the "classroom is quiet," it prevents him from talking. Similar comments are seen in the excerpts presented above.

Another striking subcategory is the 'teacher' factor. High level students consider teacher as a motivator, organizer of fun activities and an authority for delivering knowledge. These factors are lessening through moderate and low-level students. Moderate level students have high WTC when their teachers have good rapport, encourage them and create an enjoyable atmosphere in the class. However, low level students only expect their teachers to have good rapport and to encourage the students.

The findings related to 'teacher' as a factor affecting WTC show similarity with previous studies (Zarrinabadi, 2014; Vongsila & Reinders, 2016; Chang, 2018). Zarrinabadi (2014) explored how teachers can affect learners' tendency to talk in class. The findings showed that teachers' error correction and support exert influence on learners' WTC. In the current study, the participants highlighted teachers' error correction and encouragement as a factor affecting their willingness to speak. It was found out that participants do not have high level of WTC when the teacher corrects their mistakes constantly. They also feel avoidance of making mistakes in front of their classmates, thus they do not prefer teacher's interference.

Table 6

Participants' suggestions for WTC

	High	Moderate	Low
Suggestions for WTC	➢ Speaking learning through mistakes for fun not feeling anxious ➢ Reading focusing on understanding interesting	➢ Speaking with foreign friends on your own summer job to speak presentation not feeling anxious ➢ Reading books	➢ Speaking attending clubs activities online sources ➢ Reading books ➢ Listening music

Findings related to suggestions for WTC are displayed in Table 6 above. The results yielded that the participants' answers were categorized in three subcategories for WTC suggestions; speaking, reading and listening. Table 6 demonstrates that low level students do not mention the experience of speaking with foreign people or international friends. In terms of speaking practices, they suggest attending a speaking club, activities and using online sources. Real life interaction with native speakers was not found in their suggestions. On the contrary, the moderate level students suggest speaking with foreign friends, working in summer to speak English and making a presentation, which reflect real life experiences.

As Yu (2015) states WTC is dynamic and is jointly established by the interlocutors during communication. Higher level students mentioned factors related to speaking with foreign people to speak English while low level students do not include these factors. As the study of Yu (2015) supports, co-constructed speaking environment formed by the communication participants tend to increase WTC. Low level students' low WTC might stem from not having real-life conversation in this case.

The excerpts below support this finding since some students expect real-life context in the class. *Low level student 37* (7) and *student 18* (8) state that boring activities in the class are the reason for their unwillingness to communicate.

(7). The topics are **boring.** I suggest my teacher to do speaking activities like discussion groups, it would be more fun. *(Student 37 – Low level group)*

(8). I suggest my teacher **not to follow boring parts of the book**. I want them to ask questions about the things we like, or we wonder. *(Student 18 – Low level group)*

Conclusions and Implications

This study tried to discover the relationship between the speaking component of WTC inside the classroom and speaking achievement exam scores of Turkish EFL learners. The research also aimed to investigate factors that influence students' WTC in target language based on students' views. The results of this study demonstrated that there was a significant moderate positive correlation between speaking component of WTC scale and speaking achievement

exam scores of the participants. In other words, those who have high level WTC in speaking skill tend to get higher scores from a speaking achievement exam.

Furthermore, the qualitative analysis demonstrated that teacher, topic, classroom activity and self-confidence are related factors which influence students' WTC. Students' suggestions for high level WTC consisted of improving speaking, reading and listening skills. Besides, the findings indicated that students with low speaking scores tend to ignore speaking activities. They do not prefer participating in classroom activities and speaking activities in class. Unfortunately, it creates a vicious circle; they may not put in effort, then they become unwilling to communicate and consequently their speaking score might go down. In the end, they might convince themselves that they cannot speak English.

Considering the results of the study, educators should take the factors affecting students' WTC into account. The results of the study hold several implications for EFL curriculum designers and EFL teachers. In the curriculum design, the experts should determine students' needs for speaking skill and prepare the program based on these needs, aims and expected outcomes. Assignments appealing students' interests like watching a movie, listening a song or speaking English with a tourist could foster motivation, autonomy and WTC.

EFL teachers have a major role in enhancing student engagement, so they should offer opportunities to evoke interest and interaction among students to generate WTC and improve their self-confidence. Considering that students feel more relaxed while speaking to their peers, teachers should promote peer-interaction which will lead to pair works and group works. After experiencing collaborative speaking tasks for a while, students could realize that they are able to speak in L2 with everyone in the class and their fear could disappear. Moreover, teachers' encouragement, friendly manner and good rapport in learning environment can result in less anxiety for students.

Some limitations of the current research include limited number of participants (n=40), restricted period for speaking achievement results and the specific context of English preparatory program. Further research is required among other EFL contexts to determine if the similar results are revealed. Furthermore, research studies which explore each main factor affecting WTC should be conducted. Addressing specific reasons could bring solutions, so such research findings could provide different perspectives in terms of how to improve WTC.

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Appendix A

Speaking Achievement Exam Rubric

	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation and Fluency		Discourse Management
			Pronunciation	Fluency	
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.	- Is intelligible. - Intonation is appropriate. - Sentence and word stress is accurately placed. - Individual sounds are articulated clearly.	- Produces stretches of language with a fairly even tempo although hesitant as searching for patterns and expressions. - There are very few noticeably long pauses.	- Produces extended stretches of language with very little hesitation. - Contributions are relevant and there is a clear organization of ideas - Uses a range of cohesive devices and discourse markers.
4	Shares the features of both 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.	- Is intelligible. - Intonation is generally appropriate. - Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed. - Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.	- Produces stretches of language generally with a fairly even tempo although hesitant as searching for patterns and expressions. - There are quite a few noticeably long pauses.	- Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation. - Contributions are relevant and there is very little repetition. - Uses a range of cohesive devices.
2	Shares the features of both bands 1 and 3				
1	- Shows a good degree of simple grammatical forms.	- Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about everyday situations.	- Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.	- Produces stretches of language with a broken tempo and very hesitant as searching for patterns and expressions. - There are a lot of noticeably long pauses.	- Produces responses which are extended beyond short phrases, despite hesitation. - Contributions are mostly relevant, despite some repetition. - Uses basic cohesive devices.
0	Performance below 1				

Appendix B

Open-Ended Questions Related to Willingness to Communicate

1. What do you do to improve your speaking skill?

2. What do you think would make you more likely to speak English in class?

3. What do you think would make you more unlikely to speak English in class?

4. What activity in the course do you remember best? How does this activity help your oral communication in English?

5. What would you suggest to the professor to modify her teaching to motivate you to speak more in class?

6. What would you recommend to your classmates to improve their oral communication skills?

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

PART II: THE PROSPECTIVE TEACHER

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

The Co-Construction of Plurilingual Professional Identity of Prospective Language Teachers at a Turkish State University

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Abstract

The present study aims to explore the dialogic negotiation of plurilingual professional identity on the construction of identity, positioning it in the sphere of foreign language learning and foreign language teacher education among pre-service language teachers who come from multifarious and multilingual language ecologies. This is a case study because plurilingual pre-service foreign language teachers' dialogic process of multiple identities in terms of plurilingual and professional identities is reconciled in a multilingual environment. The plurilingual international students coming from multilingual family backgrounds were intended to be chosen as the participants for the present study to explore the dialogic negotiation of plurilingual and professional identity co-construction. In this regard, congruent with the research aims, convenient sampling method was utilized since two international students were close to hand. As for the first step of the data collection process, a language background questionnaire was applied. After the questionnaire, in-depth interviews were organized to have detailed information about their co-construction of professional and plurilingual identities. Briefly, the study concluded that despite their awareness of the current aims of language education, student teachers felt some difficulties in picturing themselves as language teachers.

Keywords: plurilingual professional identity, dialogic negotiation, (co-)construction of identity, professional practice

Introduction

Presentation & Statement of Purpose

The study explores how plurilingual and professional identities are co-constructed through the dialogic negotiation of identity construction among pre-service language teachers who come from multifarious and multilingual language ecologies and how this dialogic negotiation contributes to their understanding of identity. Negotiation here has a Bakhtinian stance. As

Pavlenko and Blackledge (2003) put it, "in a heteroglossic Bakhtinian view assumed here, negotiation does not necessarily involve two or more physical parties – it may also take place 'within' individuals, resulting in changes in self representation" (p.21). This study also has a critical nature in the sense that it proposes a synthesis of a cross-disciplinary construct, i.e. identity construction in the individual and public spheres. The aim of the present study is to discuss the *co-construction of plurilingual professional identity* with a special focus on the sphere of foreign language learning and foreign language teacher education.

Background to the Study

In the course of history, monolingual ideology was exclusively perceived as "an original state" (Lüdi and Py, 2009, p. 155), and plurilingualism or multilingualism was believed to be a result of a divine curse during the construction of the tower Babel. Such a monolingual mode was highly legitimate and intended by the policy-makers from the French Revolution to the First World War, with the rise of the concepts/myths of nationality or nationhood. Pluri-/multilingualism is conceived to be a 'national' threat to the 'national' language(s) and culture(s) within this monolingual state (ibid.). Pluri-/multilingualism is regarded as "a duplication of monolingualism" (Lüdi and Py, 2009, p. 155). Yet, given the advancement in technology, economic flexibility appears to be led by globalization, international education exchange and the growing mobilization possibilities of relatively various language speaking groups caused by migration, languages have densely been in contact in virtue of the increasing "interrelations between individuals, groups, institutions, and societies who use different languages" (House and Rehbein,2004). This mobilization and globalization phenomenon seems to be triggering a variety of modes of communication, exclusively a multicultural mode in different contexts leading to an individual's co-construction of a plurilingual identity. A language teacher's professional identity construction seems to be dialogically affected by the formation of plurilingual identity as a result of an individual's language background, personal histories and plurilingual 'self'.

Research Question

A. How are plurilingual and professional identities co-constructed through the dialogic negotiation of identity construction among pre-service language teachers who come from multifarious and multilingual language ecologies?

Literature Review

This section presents the definition of terms to be utilized throughout the paper: *multilingualism, plurilingualism* and *polyglotism* along with the definition of *identity*. It also provides the theoretical framework and relevant studies concerning identity construction in language studies.

Clarification of Differences in Terminology Vol. I: Plurilingualism, Multilingualism or Polyglotism

In a number of field studies in social sciences, there seems to be a kind of "terminological caos" (Özkırımlı, 2009, p. 23) whilst discussing some controversial concepts and notions. Multilingualism appears to be no other exception to the rule. To understand this "term inflation", it is enough to scan the titles of the most current publications on the issue: "*plurilingualism*" (Pinho and Andrade, 2009; Stratilaki, 2012), "*multilingualism*" (Rash, 1998; Martin-Jones, Blackledge and Creese, 2012) and "*polyglotism*" (Leland, 2012).

Plurilingualism suggests that language speakers develop a multilingual repertoire in the course of their language experiences to construct a diversity of compentences, i.e. communicative, intercultural etc. As for the term plurilingualism, exclusively within the Common European Framework, it is referred as the individual multilingualism, defined as "[t]he ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent, has proficiency of varying degrees, in several languages, and experience of several cultures" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 168). For this definition, communicative competence and mutual intelligibility are desired rather than the mastery of the target language. On the other hand, multilingualism can be defined as a mode of communication or language ecology in which plurilingual people interact with each other for a variety of purposes by means of language. In literary, cultural, and philological studies, polyglotism is utilized as a term instead of the constructs *multilingualism* or *plurilingualism*.

In this regard, Lüdi and Py (2009) wrote an article which is a criticism focusing on the relevance of different models, concepts and theoretical frameworks of plurilingualism deviating from the monolingual and unilingual paradigms. As stated by Lüdi and Py (2009), "plurilingualism represented, so to say, a duplication of monolingualism, with varying degrees of success" (p. 155). A diachronic historical account of the terms 'bilingualism' and 'plurilingualism' is presented pertaining to the predominantly long–standing monolingual paradigm. The notion of situated multilingual resources has been discussed following the constructs of becoming plurilingual – being plurilingual and speaking plurilingually. These constructs have been presented in the sense that plurilingual individuals make use of their linguistic repertoire in a variety of plurilingually-mixed manner which is regarded as neither a third grammar nor universal, special principles governing code-switching. In Lüdi and Py's (2009) own words, "a theory of plurilingual competence would not, in the final analysis, be different from the theory of language in general" (p. 161). This remark summarized the theoretical framework of the critical paper in a general sense.

House and Rehbein (2004) define the multilingual communication as 'the use of several languages for the common purposes of participants, multilingual individuals who use language(s) to realize these purposes, the different language systems which interact for these

purposes and multilingual communication structures, whose purposes make individuals use several languages' (p. 1).

Within the scope of the present study, plurilingualism as a construct is utilized in the sense that it stresses individual and social spheres of multilingualism in multilingual communication.

Clarification of Differences in Terminology Vol. II: Multifarious Definitions and Forms of Identity

As stated by Beijaard *et al.* (2004) "the concept of identity has different meanings" (p. 108). However, what is common is that identity is defined as multitudinous processes of "self-representation and belonging" (Ceginskas, 2010, p. 221) which is in constant flux with a dialogic relation with individual's 'self' and 'identity'. It, being a considerably catch-all term, has been defined by a great number of scholars. On the other hand, an intact and comprehensive definition has not been viable (Zembylas, 2003; Dikilitaş and Yaylı, 2018). Yet, "it remains unclear how exactly the concepts of 'identity' and 'self' are related (Beijaard *et al.*, 2004, p. 124). In that sense, symbolic interactionist Mead (1934) states that 'identity' is related with the 'self': "[s] elf can arise only in a social setting where there is social communication; in communicating we learn to assume the roles of others and monitor our actions" (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 107). The term identity has been studied and somehow shaped by a good number of scholars from various fields such as the prominent psychologist Erikson (1959), the symbolic interactionist Mead (ibid.), and teacher educator Beijaard et al. (2004).

In the recent literature, the concept of identity shares four premises: (a) identity is constructed within various and multiple *contexts* (Rodgers & Scott, 2008); (b) identity is developed "in *relationship* with others and involves *emotions*" (p. 733); (c) identity is in a constant flux (in *status nascendi*); and (d) identity is a process of negotiation of meaning "through *stories* over time" (Rodgers & Scott, 2008, p. 733).

In this regard, Noels, Yashima, and Zhang (2011) tried to explain the several factors that affect the identity formation of people. It is stated that identity is a concept that has been directly affected by the society we live in and the community where we belong. Norton and Pavlenko (2019), in this respect, exemplified five identity clusters: multilingual, ethnic, global, postcolonial and gendered identities. Within the scope of this study, however, multilingual identity will be on the focus.

When it comes to the identity formation of a person who is learning another language, there are some other factors that should be taken into account. According to Lambert (1956, 1978), there are two types of bilingualism in terms of identity formation in the process of second language learning. If a language learner feels himself/herself as a person belonging to the minority group that feels inferior to the majority group, s/he may become subtractive bilingual. However, if the learner belongs to a majority group who considers himself/herself superior to the group the language of which s/he is learning, she may become additive bilingual. What is

more, if a person is planning to learn a language of a community that s/he admires and the culture of which s/he wants to learn, this might be a motivational factor for the learner and s/he will go through "integrative orientation" because s/he wants to integrate with that culture and community and s/he wants to be part of it.

It is also discussed that identity is multiple and it may depend on the situation and the context where a person uses the language (Norton and Pavlenko, 2019). Thus, identity depends on the context in such situations. What is more, identity in intercultural situations is problematic because the speaker may not achieve effective communication unless s/he has a notion of the host culture perspective and notions.

In terms of the negotiation of identity, Giampapa (2004) explores the negotiation of the identity of three Italian-Canadian youths "with regard to what it means to be and become Italian Canadian in Toronto" (Giampapa, 2004, p. 193). Data were collected through participant observation, interviews (individual, focus group and community-based), shadowing, self-taping, questionnaires, and participants wrote reflections on their experiences. The reasons for selecting these three Italian Canadian participants were stated as follows: (a) they were all born in Canada and had their own linguistic, educational and cultural experiences; (b) they are all identified in the periphery (in other words, margin) of their own worlds; and (c) they identify themselves with the linguistic and discursive practices within Italian-Canadianness. The data demonstrate that these three Italian Canadians tried to find ways to reconcile their identities in the multifarious spaces as to what it means to be an Italian Canadian.

In a similar vein, De Costa (2016) investigated the dynamics of Singaporean language learners' language acquisition with a special focus on deeper social issues that characterize the nexus of language identity, policy-making and migration.

There are a good body of studies on teachers' professional identity in the literature of second/foreign language education (Karataş and Karaman, 2013; Dikilitaş and Yaylı, 2018) and primary and secondary teacher education (Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009; Beltman et al., 2015; Assen et al., 2018). Since this study substantially focuses on the dialogic negotiation between plurilingual and professional identities of pre-service teachers, the review of literature is basically confined to the studies exploring the negotiation between plurilingual and professional identities.

As the participants of this study are the prospective teachers, they have already had an evolving professional identity as well as their personal identities. Bouchard and Chevrier (2000) associate teacher professional identity with some terms as the influence and the role of particular dimensions (such as the personal trajectory, experience from practice, social context, lay theories, and personal ambitions) in the construction of professional identity, and the tools contributing to trainee teachers' professional identity awareness and development (as cited in Pinho and Andrade, 2015). Beacco and Byram (2007) also emphasize that teachers' professional identity is not something that stays stable in language teaching due to the recent changes in the field such as plurilingual and intercultural education. Therefore, the aim of this study is to

explore the dialogic negotiation of plurilingual professional identity on the construction of identity, positioning it in the sphere of foreign language learning and foreign language teacher education.

In Achugar's study (2009), the researcher aims at exploring the dialogic negotiation of professional identity through linguistic practices and trajectories of an academic community (a focus on 3 graduate students out of 12 and a professor) from a social constructivist perspective within Systemic Functional Linguistic (Halliday, 1994) theoretical framework in an English-Spanish bilingual creative-writing program in the USA. As for the data collection of this qualitative study, classroom observations were utilized to find a specific exercise in which participants negotiated a particular case in a communicative way. Later, the researcher conducted retrospective interviews with the participants to get a better understanding as to how they constructed their disciplinary knowledge in relation to their professional identity through bilingual linguistic practices. The analysis of discourse practices and trajectories of the participants suggests that the construction of professional identity develops a multifarious spectrum within bilingual contexts in which there is tension between monolingual and personal language ideologies in congruent with national and institutional ones.

Congruent with this study, the aim of the study conducted by Pinho and Andrade (2009) is to investigate a research project called Project EMIP/DL (Didactica de Linguas: um estudo meta-analitico da investigac¸a˜oem Portugal/Language Didactic) which aimed at getting a better understanding of the dialogic nature of professional development and identity of four prospective language teachers in congruence with the development of "plurilingual awareness and intercomprehension" (p. 313). Pinho and Andrade (2009) intended to shed light on "the developing representations about plurilingualism, intercomprehension and themselves as language teachers" (p. 313). There is a central research question: Are the student teachers able to develop a different self-image as language teachers based on a plurilingual conception of language teaching? These four pre-service language teachers were doing double major both in Portuguese and English language teaching. The native language all of the participants was reported to be Portuguese while English served as a foreign language in their linguistic repertoire. The study was divided into two main phases: Phase 1 and Phase 2. In the first phase, in congruence with the aims of their study, the researchers analyzed the curriculum and decided to observe Education in Languages and Foreign Language Didactics (FLD) courses offered for the 4th year (2001/2002). The reason for their selection was that these two courses mostly dealt with the issues of plurilingualism and intercomprehension which were relevant for their research aims. As for the data collection, all the pre-service teachers were supposed to keep a learning journal as a course requirement. By doing so, participants were expected to provide clues about the dialogic relationship of their professional development and their plurilingualism and intercomprehension understanding through their opinions, experiences, and feelings. At the end of the course, these journals were collected and investigated by the researchers. By taking these narrative accounts into account, semi-structured stimulated recall interviews were conducted as well. At the end, both the narrative accounts and interview findings were utilized

to develop and organize the 2nd phase of the study which was "an intervention plan, which intended to bridge the gap between the subjects of study of Language Didactics (fourth year) and the teaching practice (fifth year)" (Pinho and Andrade, 2009, p. 320). As in that phase of the study, there was an intervention, the researchers were not merely non-participant observers anymore. They were intervening in the course by designing –the presupposed gap – Education Path in Intercomprehension whose design was based on observers. The data were collected from:

(i) "reflective notebooks;

(ii) lesson plans and teaching materials;

(iii) individual and group reports; and

(iv) verbatim transcriptions of training sessions, planning meetings, classroom observation, and final interview" (Pinho and Andrade, 2009, p. 320). With the analyses of the data collected in two phases, Pinho and Andrade (2009) found out that courses (such as Education in Languages and Foreign Language Didactics) would help pre-service language teachers develop plurilingual professional development to "transform the idealized representations into real ones", as suggested by Pinho and Andrade (2009, p. 325). In another study conducted by Pinho and Andrade (2015), they tried to determine the effects of an in-service teacher training program on the professional identity formation of the teachers. It is also stated in their paper that identity is context-bound and the identity may reflect some changes in accordance with the context. Thus, so as to achieve their research aim, they chose an inset program called "Languages and education: constructing and sharing training", the aim of which was the construction of a collaborative teacher education context for learning and transformation of experiences, views and practices in language education, and involved teachers, teacher educators, and researchers. The researchers chose a teacher who attended this program and required that the teacher participant kept a journal about her experiences throughout the inset program. They did a content analysis for the journal kept by one participant teacher and they did coding from the things written. It was found in the study that identity formation is affected by the inset program because during the program teachers learned how to cooperate with each other and they shared some ideas and thoughts with one another. What is more, narration (journal-keeping) also contributed to the professional identity formation of this participant teacher because while she was keeping her diary, she questioned what she had learned previously by trying to combine and relate both her previous experiences and the things that she learned from the inset program.

In addition, Forsman and Hummelstedt-Djedou (2014) studied on the identity formation of children who were coming from different ethnic family backgrounds in a country where multilingualism was supported. The study took its theoretical framework as the process of ethnic identity construction according to the view of identity as co-constructed, within a social constructionist perspective on learning. This study was conducted in Finland where both Finnish

and Swedish languages were taught in schools. This research was carried out in a school where about 25% of the children in the group had at least one parent with another ethnic background than Finland–Swedish or Finnish. The researchers especially focused on the identity formation of children who were coming from immigrant family backgrounds. So as to be able to conduct this study, they put a microphone on the participant children and recorded their conversations both with their peers and teachers on the camera. At the initial steps of the study, the students wondered why certain students were recorded on the camera and they behaved and talked to those students cautiously so as to avoid some conversations that neither their parents nor their teachers favor but at the later stages the children got accustomed to the camera and all the procedure. It was found in the study that both their peers and the teachers supported the identity formation of these little kids by supporting them becoming aware of their differences and they did not feel threatened or intimidated to share their differences both with their peers and their teachers in such a supportive atmosphere.

In line with the studies mentioned above, Ceginkas (2010) explored both the impact of school environments on the negotiation of multilingual identity of the multilingual individuals who grew up in "multilingual habitus" (Kramsch, 2003) and the dialogic nature of multilinguality and identity. The participants were 12 adults who had multilingual and multicultural backgrounds in the sense that their parents come from two different language backgrounds, thus the participants had been exposed to a variety of languages in their social environments since birth. Most of the participants had their schooling in the schools of host countries in which the medium of instruction was delivered in the national or local language of the host country. On the other hand, some participants went to international schools to which a variety of multilingual learners attended so that the national or local language of the host country is not supposed to be the medium at all. As for the data collection, questionnaires and both semi-structured and in-depth interviews were conducted. The reason for conducting a questionnaire was to gather data in terms of participants' personal and linguistic background information. Interviews were employed in order to get a deeper understanding of the participants' negotiation of multilingual identity in different schooling constellations. The interview accounts of the participants show that the negotiation of identity is heavily influenced by the school systems, meaning the ones who had their education in "predominantly homogenous" national or local schools conceived multilinguality as a source of problem for their identity. On the other side, the ones who had attended to international schools where they had contact with their multilingual peers had more favorable attitudes towards their multilingual identity in the study conducted by Pinho and Andrade (2009) which was entitled as"Plurilingual awareness and intercomprehension in the professional knowledge and identity development of language student teachers".

Stratilaki's study (2012) also investigates the dialogic linguistic and social representations of bi/multilinguals in terms of specific social contexts (prestigious school environments) in which learners employed multiple linguistic identities which were status nascendi. The phenomena discussed in this article are multilingual competence, linguistic representation, and interaction. The data were collected from three French-German bilingual High Schools in which plurilingual

programmes (French-German) were employed, and German and French shared equal status, meaning that these two languages were utilized as the media of instruction. As a language policy, all students are supposed to learn more than two languages to develop metalinguistic awareness by making use of two or more languages in a communicative manner. Interestingly, there is no reference to the number of the students who participated in the study in spite of the fact that they are said to be female and male students whose ages range between 16 and 19 years. It is stated that these participants were chosen through a "strict selection criteria" (Stratilaki, 2012, p. 194) process:

(1) by taking their answers in a bilingual questionnaire (consisting of 25 open questions),

(2) and "according to their trajectory as multilingual learners and speakers" (Stratilaki, 2012, p. 194).

On selecting the participants, data were collected through "informal recorded interviews". The central questions of the study are:

(1) Within a school setting, what are the dominant representations regarding multilingualism as a strategic advantage in language learning and use?

(2) What is the influence of these representations on the development of multilingual competence and discourse strategies that learners apply in language use?

As a result of this study, the reasons for language choice and use of plurilingual speakers – and learners at the same time – in multilingual constellations are heavily affected by a number of pragmatic and semantic factors including learners' trajectories, their life experience, linguistic practices and their social roles as plurilingual interlocutors.

Methodology

Our research is a descriptive qualitative case study as we analyzed a case in which plurilingual pre-service foreign language teachers' dialogic process of multiple identities-in terms of plurilingual and professional identities-is reconciled in a multilingual environment.Creswell (2013) defined the case study as "qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case)" (p.103) considering variables that affect this process such as the context and data collection tools that will facilitate the collection of data that will be analyzed in depth.

The Study: Context, Participants and Data Collection Tools

Context

The context and participant information of the study is to be presented before analyzing the empirical data. The department of foreign language education in a public Turkish university that accepts international students especially coming from the post-Soviet republics such as Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan, and Southeastern countries like Malaysia.

As for the general information and policies of the Department of Foreign Language Education, the website of the program reads as follows (METU, FLE, 2020):

> Taking into consideration the latest developments in the field, students are provided with a solid foundation in the English language, English literature, methodology, educational sciences and linguistics in order to make them fully qualified teachers of English in primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions.

Given the history of the institution, the Department of Foreign Language Education was founded in 1982. "During the 1982-83 academic years, the department also worked on the design of an undergraduate curriculum to be submitted to the Higher Education Council for approval and to be implemented during the following academic year. However, the Higher Education Council designed its own curriculum and distributed it to all Faculties of Education for implementation during the 1983-84 academic years". (METU, FLE, 2020)

International students who graduate from a high school are supposed to accomplish the criteria set by the Higher Education Council for the university entrance in Turkey, especially the public university under investigation for the present study. (Turkish Higher Education Council /YOK, 2020). In addition, they are required to take the minimum score for exemption from the 1-year English preparatory program provided by the Department of Basic English as the medium of instruction is English in the state university for which the international students apply for their higher education. (METU, DBE, 2020).

Participants

The plurilingual international students coming from multilingual family backgrounds were intended to be chosen as the participants for the present study in order to explore how plurilingual and professional identities are co-constructed through the dialogic negotiation of identity construction among pre-service language teachers who come from multifarious and multilingual language ecologies and how this dialogic negotiation contributes to their understanding of identity. In this regard, twelve international students from post-Soviet and southeastern countries were selected by means of convenient sampling (Creswell, 2011). They were informed of the aims and design of the study and asked whether they would participate in the study. *Three international students (EGu, FaD, and SaM)* accepted to participate in the

study. As for the first step, first of all, we conducted a language background questionnaire "developed for a TÜBİTAK research project to shed light on their family background (Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) (Project Number: 110K432)" (Akkuş, 2013, p. 45). After the questionnaire, we also had interviews with two of them to have detailed information about their linguistic and family backgrounds. One of the participants was from the post-Soviet country, Kyrgyzistan, where people speak Russian both as a regional Lingua Franca and official language. They also make use of their vernacular native languages such as Kyrgyz, Uzbek, Tajik and Kazakh languages with their family members as well. This participant was coded as **P1**. The other participant is from one of the far eastern countries, the Philippines, where they speak English as an official language along with other so many different tribal languages. This participant was coded as **P2**. Both participants learned English during their schooling starting from their early teenage years.

They were both taking a degree in the teaching of English (as a foreign language) at the time of the study. Two of the participants were male and between 21 and 22 years old, who had started their courses in the 2012-2013 academic year.

Data Collection Tools/Instruments

In this study, two different data collection tools were used: a questionnaire that was used to select the participants that would be interviewed individually with the interview questions prepared by the researchers.

The participants were interviewed to make them reflect on their identities better. The language used in the interviews was English because it was the lingua franca between the researcher and the participant. The interview questions were inspired from a language background questionnaire "developed by Sağin-Şimşek and Cedden-Edipoğlu for a TÜBİTAK research project to shed light on their family background (Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) (Project Number: 110K432)" (Akkuş, 2013, p. 45). The questions were created by the researchers but the questionnaire questions gave some idea about what to ask during the individual interviews (See Appendix for more information).

These participants were also observed in their departmental courses so as to determine how their identities had been shaped, especially their professional identity and how their identities that are affected by their multicultural family backgrounds were reflected in the lessons as to whether they participated and contributed to the lessons. Observation checklist was formed by the researchers according to the reviews read in the relevant literature and observations were made accordingly (See Appendix for more information).

During the interviews, students were encouraged to share as many experiences, anecdotes from their lives as possible to better understand what they had gone through all through their personal and educational lives so that it would be possible to make logical guesses about

their identity formations. The importance of such data collection tools especially for identity formation studies was emphasized by several researchers like Withrell and Noddings (1991):

> Teachers' personal identity can be brought to self-awareness through narrative self-reflection. […] Self-knowledge not only assumes that one can establish one's own personal identity by means of stories, but also assumes that one can be accountable narratively for how one has developed as a person, as a teacher–for how one has become what one has become. […] by means of stories, teachers justify the manner in which their character, wishes and interests have grown and changed as a result of past circumstances, decisions, and formative experiences in specific circumstances (as cited in Leitch 2006, p. 550).

Data Analysis

Data collected through interviews were kept in audio recordings. Those recordings were transcribed by one of the researchers to better analyze the data. These transcriptions were sent to the other researcher to check the accuracy. Later these ptranscritions were examined in detail by both of these researchers at the same time to find certain categories to present the findings of the study.

Gall et al. (2003) defined a category as "a construct that refers to a certain type of phenomenon mentioned in the database" (p. 454). After the analysis of the transcriptions, certain categories were found and the researchers reached a consensus on the ones that will be presented in the following section of the paper.

After determining the categories, the researcher who did the interviews revealed these categories to these two different participants to assure that the right conclusions had been reached by means of the analysis for member-checking purposes, which requires "the researcher to ask one or more participants in the study to check the accuracy of the account" (Creswell, 2011, p. 259). These were the necessary steps that must be taken for a qualitative case study defined by Gall et al. (2003) as "a process of examining case study data closely in order to find constructs, themes, and patterns that can be used to describe and explain the phenomenon being studied" (p. 453). What is more, direct quotations were also taken from the transcriptions to support the constructs found after the analysis and they were presented in the results because Gall et al. (2003) stated that "direct quotes of the remarks by the case study participants were particularly effective because they clarify the emic perspective, that is, the meaning of the phenomenon from the point of view of the participants" (p. 469).

Along with the quotations, the contextual factors of both the participants and the place where this case study was conducted were also provided because Mackey and Gass (2005) highlight the importance of thick description for qualitative studies which are context – specific most of the time.

Results

According to the data collected for the purpose of this study, the construction of plurilingual professional identity of prospective language teachers was affected by several factors such as context, language attitude and the experiences of the prospective teachers

The Impact of Language Policy, Context and Background

It can easily be understood from the interviews conducted with these two different participant prospective teachers coming from multilingual countries that the language policy of the country where they were grown up affects the identity formation of these student teachers. If people are raised in a multilingual country where more than one language is official, they are already ready to speak more than one language. P1 explained the situation by saying:

> *We have two official languages: Russian and Kyrgyz. Russian is more specific in the capital, Bishkek. In small villages, they don't speak Russian. In the south, they speak Uzbek. It is our neighbour country so there is a lot of people from Uzbekistan.*

It can be concluded for the case of P1 that not only the language policy but also the context also affects the language preference of the participants. In other words, by saying context, people who are around as well as the place where you live both have a striking impact on the language choice of the participants. P1 said:

> *When I came to Turkey, I met some other people that came from different parts of Kyrgyzstan where people speak the Kyrgyz language. Though I grew up in Bishkek where Russian is the dominant language spoken by all the people living there, I started to speak Turkish with my compatriots living in Turkey.*

It can be understood from the quote that the combination of both where you are and whom you are with has a great effect on the language choice of the participant. What is more, the influence of background, especially parental one, cannot be denied because the language of the family plays a key role in the language that you speak. P2 articulates:

> *In our house when we speak with our mother, we use the language of my mother. With my father, the only one that knows the language of my father is me and I also have a younger sister. We have other siblings and they don't know the language. Because in my case, I stayed for 4 years in the village of my father and then I moved to the city of my mother. When I was around 7 or 8 years old, we move to the other city which is Disenbenga, where we live now and they also use different languages so I need to learn them. Wherever you go in the Philippines you can speak Tagalog you might survive but it is also difficult because in the remote areas they don't know Tagalog.*

It can be understood the family background and its culture also affects the language choice of the person.

The Impact of Language Attitude

The attitudes of people towards the languages spoken also affect the choice of languages. Socially widely accepted languages are much more preferred as P2 says:

> *If you are going to ask me which book to read, a Tagalog one or my own native languages from my mother and father so you are going to give me four books. I am almost certain I am 100 % sure that I am going to read the English one. Because I wouldn't understand the same book with another language as I have been exposed to English books at school and I have been educated in English and the language of education was English so it is natural for me to choose English books.*

This shows that the participant is directed to a more prestigious language if he is asked to choose a language to learn something.

The Impact of (Mono–or Pluri-Lingual) Language Identity

The ways people are exposed to different languages are also determinants of the language identity. How people have acquired different languages also shapes their character. Even the sequence of learning different languages is an important factor for a person to be able to consider himself/herself as a monolingual or multilingual. (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2003) That is why these participants were also asked whether they felt multilingual and how this process affected their identity. They both stated that different languages that they were exposed to in different contexts at different times had a considerable effect on the way they claim themselves as multilingual. P1 explained:

> *Well, I am a monolingual in terms of the way I learned the language but I feel as a bilingual because my second language is dominating over the first language. If you consider all the languages, maybe I am a multilingual but I don't know. I haven't thought about it before coming here. So, it is a bit difficult question.*

Thus, it can be understood that although he learned different languages at different times, he felt as a multilingual because of the way he was exposed and the ways he used the languages.

Facilitative Role of Plurilingual Identity on Profession

As these participants had an experience of learning different languages as their second and third languages, they claimed that this facilitated their language learning. Thus, their previous learning with other languages made it easier for them to learn English and understand the

learners of English as well as the difficulties that one may face during the learning process of the English language. P2 explained the situation:

> *I got my school experience and I just thought. I think it really helped me a lot because knowing English since… I am not saying I know English since kindergarden but then I was learning English since I was kindergarten and using it for every day I think it helped me a lot. Also, the languages, for instance, the Chewakano, it really helped me a lot when I was learning Italian.*

It can be inferred from this quotation that learning another language besides one's first language either as a second or a foreign language might make it easier for the person to learn another language because it is significant for a language learner to know how to learn another language. Thus, this might be an advantage for a teacher who already knows how to learn another language easily because s/he can transfer what s/he has already experienced in learning a language to his/her students easily and become more tolerant of his/her students.

Experience as a Mediator for Plurilingual Identity and Professional Identity

Along with their experiences with language learning, these participants had some teaching practice in their practicum schools for one of their departmental courses called "school experience". Therefore, they had the chance to teach students English and they were asked whether this teaching experience together with their multilingual identity had something meaningful for their professional identity. They both said that this school experience course with its "micro teaching" practices along with their multilingualism highly contributed to their teaching skills that they will use in their profession, which will be part of their professional identity. They both said that they got aware of their linguistic skills and how to teach them to the students with this practice. P1 elaborated on the issue by saying:

> *Last year during our community service course we were going to Sincan. There is ODTÜ ortaokulu. I started teaching there. Actually, during high school, I was giving extra lessons to other girls. I always try to integrate other cultures to make students learn about other cultures. One of the factors that my students are so attentive to me is that I am foreigner. Also, I got aware of the interplay of plurilingual and professional identities in my teaching.*

It can be understood that this prospective teacher has used his multilingual background as an advantage in his class by integrating the culture teaching in his lesson. Also, his multilingual background has attracted the attention of the students who were willing to learn about their teacher, which had positively made a contribution to the flow of the lesson according to the participant. Hence, his multilingualism has become an inevitable part of his teaching identity that he will use in his teaching career.

Conclusion & Discussion

Congruent with the relevant literature (Pavlenko and Blacledge, 2003; Achugar, 2009; Ceginkas, 2010; Pavlenko, 2019), it can be concluded from this study that the identity of the plurilingual professional identity of the prospective teachers coming from multilingual language backgrounds is affected by several factors such as context, language attitude and the experiences of the prospective teachers which are the determinant constructs of the data analysis presented in the "results" section.

Context is one of the main factors affecting the language choice of these participants because the people with whom they spent their time affected the language preference of these participants. The language choice highly differs when they are with their friends or family members or even with their teachers. Therefore, it can be stated that identity is developed "in *relationship* with others and involves *emotions*" (Rodgers and Scott, 2008, p. 733).

Along with the people around, the place or the country where they lived also affected their language choice because P1 stated that he mostly preferred to speak Russian with his Kyrgyz friends in Kyrgyzistan whereas he chose to speak Turkish in Turkey with the ones living in Turkey. Not only different countries but also different regions in the same country had a strong impact on the language choice of the participants. P2 mentioned that he switched codes according to the region where he stayed at that moment. Therefore, it can be concluded that identity is constructed within various and multiple multilingual *contexts* (Rodgers & Scott, 2008).

Language attitude is also another variable that affects the identity construction of the participants because the importance given to the language spoken in one specific region makes people tend to use that language of importance or prestige. Take the case of P1 and P2, who have both the liability to speak Russian and English respectively due to the status given to these two powerful languages in Kyrgyzistan for the former and in the Philippines for the latter. Even though there is no rule that one language is superior to others, some languages might be considered as more powerful and prestigious than the other because of the sociopolitical and socioeconomic power of the people speaking that language of the country, which affects the identity formation because people using that language feel themselves closer to that language and the users of it.

Experiences of the participants with the language that they use also affect their identity formation. Past experiences during the learning of that language also have something to do with the identity of the speakers. As these participants were teacher candidates, it was natural for their learning experiences to have an influence on their teaching methodology as well. As they were both grown in a multilingual environment, this aspect of their language learning was reflected in their teaching as well because they integrated culture teaching with their language teaching in their practicum schools which made a great contribution to their professional identity, as they both claimed. It can be understood that identity is a process of negotiation of meaning "through *stories* over time" (Rodgers & Scott, 2008, p. 733). As they take departmental

courses and do their teaching practices, their professional identity will be shaped in accordance with the new experiences that they have gone through in professional settings as well.

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview Guides focusing on Language and Family Background

Where are you from? What kind of a state structure does the country in which you were born and grew up (central or federal) have? Can you describe the environment where you grew up?

What are the official language(s) of the country (if there is any)? What do you think about it? Which languages are spoken in this neighborhood and in your family (father and mother)? Which one(s) is/are dominantly used? Is it the case all over the country? Is it the case for your family (too)? Why do you think it is the socially-dominant language?

Interview Guides focusing on Plurilingual Identity

Which language(s) do you feel yourself closest to? Why? How do you define yourself linguistically? Do you define yourself as a bilingual or plurilingual? Why/why not? In which environments and conditions did you learn the languages you speak? In which situations do you speak them?

What do you think about multilingualism/plurilingualism?

Interview Guides focusing on Educational Background

Can you tell us the languages you used/have been using during your education? (kindergarten, primary, secondary and tertiary education)? Why did you use these languages in these institutions? To be moreclear, can you define the dynamics of these institutions?

Sub-question: Did you use the same language(s) with your friends as the one(s) you used with your teachers?

Interview Guides focusing on Professional Identity

How did you decide to study English Language Teaching profession? Did your pluringual background affect your decision to be an ELT expert?

Sub-questions: How do you reflect your plurilingual identity on the courses that you have been teaching in terms of course participation?

How do you reflect your pluringual identity in your microormacro – teaching for your School Experience course?

APPENDIX B

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

The pre-service teacher

Observable actions	Impact on plurilingual identity	Impact on Professional identity
Concords teaching points with multilingualism		
Relates his/her multilingual background with teaching		
Allows students to code – mix in the classroom environment (if appropriate)		
Takes multilingual context into consideration in planning and implementing the course plan		

The Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service Teachers towards World Englishes

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Abstract

World Englishes (WE) refers to varieties of English that emerge across the world, drawing attention to the pluricentric and multicultural nature of English at present. Studies focusing on WE highlight sociolinguistic realities that challenge established ideas, such as native speakerism and Standard English ideology, and offer new directions and conceptualizations in relation to English pedagogy, including English language teacher education. Drawing from current WE-related discussions in the field of English language teaching, this study aimed to investigate perceptions of pre-service teachers towards WE and to this end it examined the perceptions of 110 Turkish EFL pre-service teachers enrolled at private and state universities. Quantitative data collected through the WE Perception Questionnaire were analyzed by means of Descriptive Statistics and Independent Samples T-test. The statistical results indicated that pre-service teachers enrolled at both private and state universities had positive perceptions towards WE and there was not a statistically significant difference between them in relation to their prior training on WE, overall perceptions towards the ownership of English, the concept of WE, and native and non-native speakers of English teaching them English. The results also revealed that pre-service teachers felt the necessity of instruction on WE during their pre – service teacher education and they were highly willing to participate in training regarding WE. In this context, the results of the study can contribute to curriculum developers, instructors and teacher educators.

Keywords: World Englishes, EFL pre-service teachers, non-native English teachers

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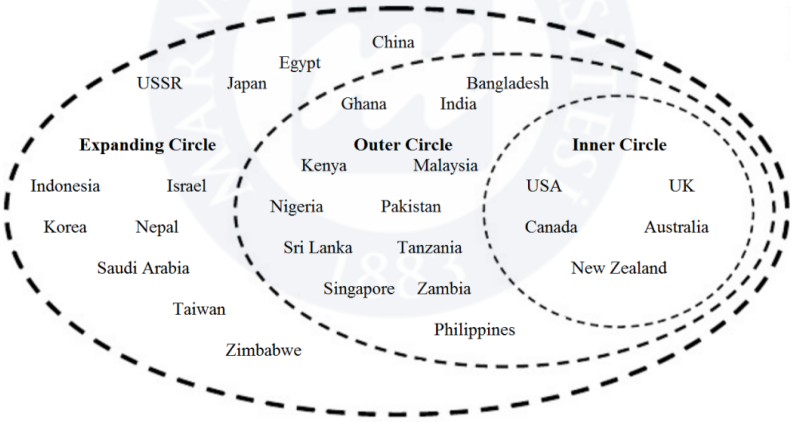
Introduction

The rapid spread of English around the world has created a number of different sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts and caused the emergence of new norms and standards in these contexts, resulting in new nativized varieties of English. All these varieties of English are referred to as World Englishes (WE) and defined as the "institutionalized second-language varieties of English spoken around the world" (Kachru, 1985). In light of WE, Kachru (1985) categorized the use of English in different countries comprised of three concentric circles. The following diagram (Figure 1) indicates Kachru's three-circle model and the categorization of different countries.

Figure 1

Kachru's concentric three circle model: Adapted from Kachru (1992)



Accordingly, while the inner circle includes countries where English is used as the native language (e.g., the UK, the USA) providing norms of English, the outer circle consists of countries where English is used as a second language (L2) (e.g., India, Singapore, Kenya) with a norm-developing role. Lastly, the expanding circle involves countries such as Turkey, Israel, Malaysia, and Korea where English is used as a foreign language (EFL) and is regarded as norm dependent. In this context, the term WE has drawn attention as it is claimed to be a label adopted especially in the outer and expanding circle countries, which functions as an umbrella term including all varieties of English all around the world (Pakir, 2009).

The field of ELT has long been dominated by native speaker ideology (Cogo, 2011), emphasizing a belief that native speakers are characteristically superior to non-native speakers, which becomes most apparent in teacher recruitment. However, what WE bring into ELT is the idea that English does not only belong to its native speakers and it can be taught as a global language. In this respect, in the ELT context, it has recently been accepted that English is not only the language of inner circle countries, namely the UK, the USA, Australia, and New Zealand

(Kirkpatrick, 2008) but also the language of outer and expanding circle countries as the non-native speakers outnumbered native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1 (Crystal, 2003). As a result of the new conceptualization of English as a global lingua franca and its changing character, English language learning and teaching has moved beyond the dichotomous labeling of EFL/ESL. With more pluricentric orientations, English has become a multi-cultural and global language. In this regard, Matsuda (2003) asserted that English should not be taught with the norms of Standard English (SE) used in inner circle countries but with the ones of WE.

As for the Turkish context, just like in any other expanding circle context, English is a foreign language for both non-native language teachers and learners. Teaching English with SE norms as it is done in Inner Circle countries and adopting an inner circle pedagogical model does not necessarily fulfill curricular goals and learner needs (Matsuda, 2003).

Considering the global lingua franca status of English, and the fact that English language learners are expected to use English in interaction with both native and non-native speakers of English, there is a growing need to reconsider ELT practices in light of issues entailed by the WE paradigm. A re-thinking of concepts such as communicative competence, intercultural communicative competence, standard language ideology both globally and for the particulars of the local setting inevitably calls for a re-examination of the pedagogy of English. There is a growing body of literature based on research that reveals the need for both language teachers and learners to be exposed to varieties of English beyond the inner circle, discard the native speaker fallacy and value themselves as intercultural speakers with cultural and linguistic awareness (Snow, Kamhi-Stein, & Brinton, 2006). In response to sociolinguistic changes surrounding the English language and affecting its pedagogy, there is a need to introduce the concept of WE to pre-service teachers so that they have a broader understanding of the current sociolinguistic issues addressing English and are better prepared professionally to meet the needs of their future learners in a globalized world. Thus, introducing WE in language teacher education programs is significant in raising pre-service teachers' awareness of this concept and its applicability in their teaching practices.

In the face of the increasing importance of WE in ELT, there appears a limited number of studies conducted abroad and in Turkey that examine the EFL pre-service teachers' perspectives towards WE. The present study, therefore, aimed to fill in this gap in the literature and shed light on the perceptions of Turkish EFL pre-service teachers toward WE. The findings of the study are expected to serve as an encouragement to language educators to open the doors of the EFL classroom to WE and foster learners with the knowledge, skills, and perceptions essential for today's globalized world.

Literature Review

The WE paradigm has been discussed and supported by ELT scholars around the globe (Alptekin, 2002; Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Canagarajah, 2006; Jenkins, 2007, 2009; Kubota, 2012; Lee,

2012; McKay, 2003; Matsuda, 2003) and is identified to assign an active role to WE users as they are accepted to be "agents" in the spread and development of English(es) contributing to shape the language and its functions (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). Moreover, the WE paradigm aims to create "interculturally multi-dialectical" users with the importance of addressing intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitude in interaction (Lee, 2012). Thus, WE are heterogeneous with multiple norms and grammars, and diversity is the accentuated feature (Canagarajah, 2006; Kubota, 2012).

With an unprecedented spread accelerated by globalization, English has become an international language and its usage is not bound to its native speakers anymore (Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004). The notion of one monolithic English has been replaced by the reality of different nativized varieties that have emerged in different parts of the world where the English used carries not only non-standard features of English but also various local cultural characteristics. Understanding varieties of English, therefore, is crucial not only in language teaching but also providing English users means of intercultural communication skills.

Numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of language learners on WE in the EFL context particularly in the past two decades. These studies focused mainly on the WE-related issues and investigated the participants' perceptions of diversity and plurality that characterized English, WE as a newly emerged concept, SE ideology, and ownership of English. Findings revealed by these studies ranged from an ambivalent view of WE towards a more positive one among university students in a variety of settings. Research conducted by McKenzie (2006) investigated 558 Japanese university students' perceptions of WE. The results of the study suggested that Japanese learners often have complex attitudes towards standard/ non-standard and native/ non-native varieties of English. Similarly working on the Asian context, Saengboon (2015) investigated the perceptions of 198 Tai university students regarding WE. The findings of the study revealed that the majority of the respondents were uncertain about WE, although they still prized British and American English as most desirable.

Findings suggesting a more favorable perception of WE relate this more positive outlook to either exposure or awareness. Lee and Green's (2016) study, for instance, investigated 60 Korean university students' perceptions attitudes toward WE and the factors that affect their perceptions and attitudes. Results of the study indicated that the students still had a preference for inner circle Englishes but had a keen interest in being exposed to WE for less stressful, more interactive, communicative and comprehensible uses. The study conducted by Floris (2013) with 11 pre-service teachers explored their perceptions of English as an international language (EIL) before and after taking a WE course. The findings of the study indicated that the pre-service teachers became aware of the changes in the uses and users of English and acknowledged the existence of other varieties of English after attending the WE course. Rousseau (2012), on the other hand, examined the impact of raising awareness of WE varieties on the language attitudes of Korean university students and found out that the students had significantly positive attitudes towards Chinese, Japanese, British and Korean speakers of English. In a similar vein, Galloway (2013) examined the perceptions of 52 English learners in relation to the

sociolinguistic realities of English and how these related to learning English, as well as their responses to WE instruction in a Japanese university. The results of the study revealed that the participants had positive attitudes towards native speaker varieties of English and the WE class was also found to have an important impact on students' attitudes. Learners' changing perception regarding WE following instruction on the concept was also evident in Choi's study (2007) where the researcher examined 159 Korean college students' perceptions toward WE and found out that the group taking formal lectures on WE indicated a relatively less preference towards Standard English. Jin's study (2005) showed not only how Chinese university students changed their attitudes towards WE after taking a course on it but also how such a change influenced their preference of native/non-native English teachers (NESTs/NNESTs).

Literature also includes studies that report learners' inclination towards an inner circle native variety of English. The study conducted by Snodin and Young (2015) explored the perceptions and attitudes of 251 Thai learners of English towards WE and the results illustrated that native-speaker varieties had dominance over the other varieties of English. Honna and Takeshita (2000), mark in their study how strongly Japanese students want to emulate a native speaker variety. The study conducted by Li (2009) revealed that Chinese university-educated language learners strongly aspired to native speaker-like speech.

In terms of differentiating between and reporting preference for NESTs and NNESTs, various studies reveal differing preferences of learners. Liu & Zhang (2007) analyzed student perceptions of native & non-native teachers and found out that Chinese university students regarded NESTs and NNESTs equally proficient and competent. In his study with Saudi university language learners, Alseweed (2012) reported that the participants showed an explicit preference for NESTs for their teaching strategies, however, they showed moderately favorable attitudes towards NNESTs in terms of their response to learners' needs.

Studies pursuing the same questions have also been conducted in the Turkish context. Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2009) investigated 15 English preparatory class students' attitudes at a state university in Turkey and the findings revealed that the participating students who had been unaware of WE asserted their preference for only the American and British varieties of English to be spoken all around the world and marked that British English sounded better. Similary, Ören, Öztüfekçi, Kapçık, Kaplan, and Yılmaz-Uzunkaya (2017) conducted a study among preparatory students at a private university in Turkey and found a lack of knowledge about WE as the participants showed a strong tendency toward subliming American or British varieties as the correct English.

Üstünlüoğlu (2007) investigated university students' perceptions of native and non – native teachers with 311 language learners. The results of the study indicated that the students perceived each group with their own strengths: non-native teachers fulfil in-class teaching and in-class management roles better than native teachers do while native teachers fulfil in-class communication skills and present more favorable qualities. Similarly, in their investigation of 120 university students' perceptions towards NESTs and NNESTs, Karakaş, Uysal, Bilgin and

Bulut (2016) found out that students perceived NESTs in linguistic and professional dimensions, and NNESTs in pedagogical dimension rather positively in their English language learning experience at a private university setting. Also, pointing to a difference in learners' perception of NESTs and NNESTs, the study conducted by Ürkmez (2015) with 120 students at a public university revealed that the participants showed high preference for NESTs because they could learn more about the NESTs' culture. They appreciated both NESTs and NNESTs in terms of helping with their learning process in different aspects as they found NESTs more proficient in listening and speaking skills and NNESTs in grammar, writing lessons.

Although considerable literature has been accumulated, research focusing on pre – service teachers' perceptions of WE in the Turkish context seems wanting. Considering the popularity of English language teacher education programs in Turkey, the varying educational opportunities offered by state and private universities with such programs, and all the efforts to improve the pre-service teacher education in its trajectory to better equip English language teachers for a global world, this is a gap that needs to be addressed.

To this end, the following research questions have been formulated for the purposes of this study:

1. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL pre-service teachers toward WE regarding:

a) Standard English ideology?

b) Ownership of English?

c) Recognition of localized Englishes?

d) The distinction between NESTs and NNESTs?

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between Turkish EFL pre-service teachers enrolled at private and state universities regarding their perceptions toward WE?

Methodology

Design

The present study has a descriptive research design, which includes quantitative approaches during the data collection and data analysis phases. In this regard, the quantitative aspect of the study comprised the statistical analysis of questionnaire results to describe pre – service teachers' perceptions toward WE.

Participants and Setting

The participants of the study were 110 sophomore EFL pre-service teachers (79 females and 31 males) enrolled at the Department of English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) Departments of one private (PU) and two state universities (SU) in Istanbul, Turkey during 2017-2018 academic

year as indicated in Table 1. They were selected through random sampling. During the four-year undergraduate program, these pre-service teachers are required to gain theoretical and practical knowledge relevant to language teaching. The program consists of general pedagogy courses as well as field-specific courses on language teaching methodology and cultural courses. In the fourth year, pre-service teachers are required to fulfil a year-long Practicum requirement.

The participants' ages ranged from 21 to 26. All the participants were informed about the research at the beginning of the study and asked to give informed consent before taking part in the study.

Table 1

Distribution of the participants

School type	N	Gender	
		Male	Female
State university one	56	15	41
State university two	22	10	12
Private university	32	6	26

Data Collection Instruments

Data for the present study were collected by means of the modified version of WE Perception Questionnaire adapted from Choi (2007). The WE Perception Questionnaire adapted from Choi (2007) was used to explore the perceptions of pre-service teachers on WE. The initial part of the questionnaire included five closed-ended "yes-no" questions regarding the participants' previous trainings on WE during pre-service teacher education period. These questions were included in agreement with Choi that receiving instruction on WE may have an impact on their predispositions towards the concept and its attendant issues.

The second part of the questionnaire contains 26 items which were all answered on a five-point Likert Scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to strongly agree" with values 1 to 5 assigned to them, respectively. It includes four different sections. While the first three sections contain seven questions, the last section includes five questions: The first section comprises of statements regarding American English and British English as SE and ownership of English whilst the second section includes issues of WE and varieties of English. The third and fourth sections aim to find out the preference of the pre-service teachers of NESTs/NNESTs. The reliability estimate was $\alpha = .99$ for the questionnaire and it was also justified to have the content validity (Choi, 2007). For the present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of the inventory was .81.

Procedure

All of the participating pre-service teachers were provided with the details about the research at the very beginning of the study and they were asked to give informed consent before taking part in the present study. In this regard, the questionnaire aiming to investigate the perceptions

of Turkish EFL pre-service teachers on WE was administrated to all of the participants who were informed that (a) the questionnaire wasn't a test, (b) their answers wouldn't be graded, and (c) they didn't have to give any details about their identities. The administered questionnaire contained 5 yes no questions and then comprised of 26 items which were all answered on a five-point Likert Scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to strongly agree" with values 1 to 5 assigned to them respectively.

Data Analysis

In accordance with the purpose of the study, the data obtained from the perception questionnaire were analyzed by means of quantitative techniques including Descriptive Statistics and Independent Samples T-test via using Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Results

Prior Teacher Training on WE

In order to find out the pre-service teachers' previous trainings regarding WE, their responses to five yes-no questions were assessed by means of descriptive statistics. In this respect, the results of the frequency analysis indicated that majority of the participating pre – service teachers not only in SU (group 1) (79.5%) but also in the PU (group 2) (65.6%) stated not having taken specific courses on WE. Similarly, only a small number of pre-service teachers enrolled at both SU (6.4%) and PU (15.6%) had other prior training on WE. However, more than half of the pre-service teachers in SU (55.1%) and majority of the pre – service teachers in PU (75.0%) asserted that they were familiar with the concept of WE. A high number of the participants both in SU (79.5%) and PU (84.4%) found WE-related training necessary. Lastly, the majority of pre-service teachers in SU (89.7 %) and PU (87.5 %) stated that they were eager to attend training in relation to WE as indicated in Table 2.

Table 2

Results of the Frequency Analysis of Participants' Responses regarding Prior Trainings on WE

Teacher training & WE Variables	GROUPS	AGREE	DISAGREE
Taking courses on WE	1	20.5%	79.5%
	2	34.4%	65.6%
Taking training on WE	1	6.4%	93.6%
	2	15.6%	84.4%
Familiarity with WE	1	55.1%	44.9%
	2	75.0%	25.0%
Feeling the need of training on WE	1	79.5%	20.5%
	2	84.4%	15.6%
Willingness to attend training on WE	1	89.7%	10.3%
	2	87.5%	12.5%

The Perceptions of Turkish EFL Pre-Service Teachers toward WE

In order to reveal the perceptions of Turkish EFL pre-service teachers towards WE in terms of SE ideology, ownership of English, recognition of localized Englishes, and the distinction between NESTs and NNESTs, Descriptive Statistics were used. Table 3 specifically indicates pre-service teachers' perceptions of WE in terms of sub-scales. In addition, the results obtained from the descriptive analysis including mean, standard deviation, and the percentage distributions of their perception are illustrated in detail in Table 4.

The analysis of the first section of the questionnaire including items from 1 to 7, aiming to find out the perceptions of pre-service teachers regarding the American and British English as SE, ownership of English and their attitude towards nativized varieties of English showed that pre-service teachers particularly supported the SE ideology and believed that SE was British English or American English, as can be seen in Table 4 (M=3.73, SD=1.20.).

In terms of ownership of English, Table 3 indicated that pre-service teachers did not specifically accept American and British speakers as the owners of English (M=2.58, SD= .78). As pointed out in Table 4, pre-service teachers believed that English didn't solely belong to the UK and the USA since they disagreed with other six items of this section regarding the ownership of English.

The analysis of the second section of the questionnaire concerning the issues of WE, varieties of English, and recognition of localized Englishes showed that pre-service teachers had positive perceptions towards different varieties of English used around the world and learning localized Englishes (M=3.81, SD= .57) as indicated in Table 3 since all the statements from 8 to 14 illustrated that most of the participants wanted to know WE-related practices were used as revealed in Table 4. The participants also reported a preference for familiarization with the local varieties of English. In addition, they indicated positive perspectives regarding their Turkish accent and appreciated the materials including NS-NNs interactions in English as shown in Table 4.

When the sub-scales were taken into account, in relation to the pre-service teachers' preference of the NESTs/NNESTs, the results in table 3 illustrated a stronger preference towards NESTs (M=3.19, SD= .93) and relatively less preference towards NNESTs (M=3.17, SD= .79). The analysis of section three, including items from 15 to 21, which dealt with the preference of pre-service teachers' on NESTs indicated that most of the pre-service teachers preferred learning English from NESTs since they mostly agreed with the statements in this section except when they were asked if they do not want to be taught English from Turkish teachers. Findings revealed that there was a particular preference for NESTs in learning English in accordance with the participants' strong support and tendency towards SE ideology.

The analysis of section four which aimed to explore the preference of the participating pre-service teachers for NNESTs revealed that most pre-service teachers agreed that Turkish teachers can teach English more easily than the native speakers of English since they can

benefit from their mother tongue. The participants found Turkish teachers of English better at explaining grammar and providing motivation, a reporting they drew from their own experiences as English language learners themselves which is visible in their responses to items from 22 to 26 in Table 4.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for sub-scales

Statements	N	Mean	SD
Total	110	3.19	.37
Ownership of English	110	2.58	.78
WE and Varieties of English	110	3.81	.57
Preference of NESTs	110	3.19	.93
Preference of NNESTs	110	3.17	.79

As aforementioned, pre-service teachers' perceptions of WE are taken into consideration and illustrated in terms of detailed, item by item analysis in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics for teachers perceptions regarding WE

Statements	Mean	SD	SD	D	UN	A	SA
1. Standard English is British English or American English.	3.73	1.20	7.3%	10.9%	12.7%	40.0%	29.1%
2. English belongs to the UK or the USA.	2.66	1.41	27.3%	27.3%	13.6%	16.4%	15.5%
3. It is British or American English speakers who have the right to decide how English should be.	2.65	1.33	24.5%	26.4%	20.9%	16.4%	11.8%
4. I am embarrassed by my Turkish (local) accent.	2.54	1.25	26.4%	28.2%	15.5%	25.5%	4.5%
5. If English is used differently from British or American English, it must be wrong.	2.11	1.06	32.7%	39.1%	15.5%	10.0%	2.7%
6. Only the people born in the USA and the UK are native English speakers.	2.39	1.32	32.7%	30.0%	11.8%	17.3%	8.2%
7. English can be used in ways different from the ways used by NSs.	3.98	.79	22.7%	60.0%	10.0%	7.3%	0.0%
8. I have heard of WE.	3.71	1.33	11.8%	10.0%	6.4%	39.1%	32.7%
9. More lectures should be given on WE and Turkish English.	3.84	.94	1.8%	6.4%	23.6%	42.7%	25.5%
10. I am proud of my Turkish (local) accent when I speak English.	2.92	1.10	12.7%	18.2%	41.8%	19.1%	8.2%
11. I would like to learn about different varieties of English used in the world.	4.26	.83	0.0%	6.4%	5.5%	44.5%	43.6%
12. It is important to be familiar with different local varieties of English.	4.34	.68	0.0%	1.8%	6.4%	48.2%	43.6%
13. I'd like to study English from books where NSs and NNSs communication is shown.	3.96	1.02	4.5%	5.5%	10.0%	49.1%	30.9%
14. I'd like to study English from books where communication in English is shown only among NSs.	2.31	1.19	6.4%	11.8%	16.4%	37.3%	28.2%

15. I do not want a Turkish teacher of English to teach me English.	2.38	1.28	31.8%	26.4%	22.7%	10.0%	9.1%
16. I want a NEST to teach me English as their English is Standard English.	3.43	1.22	8.2%	14.5%	25.5%	30.0%	21.8%
17. NESTs provide more reliable linguistic knowledge.	3.30	1.32	10.9%	19.1%	22.7%	23.6%	23.6%
18. NESTs correct me better when I make mistakes.	3.25	1.18	8.2%	20.0%	26.4%	30.0%	15.5%
19. Eventually, I will speak native-like English if I study with a NEST.	3.16	1.12	8.2%	20.9%	27.3%	33.6%	10.0%
20. An American or a British teacher of English sets a better of example of an English speaker than a Turkish teacher of English.	3.46	1.26	10.0%	16.4%	13.6%	38.2%	21.8%
21. I have a better chance to learn English with a NEST.	3.38	1.27	9.1%	20.05	15.5%	34.5%	20.9%
22. I learn more with Turkish teachers of English as they explain grammar better than NESTs.	2.87	1.06	11.8%	23.6%	33.6%	27.3%	3.6%
23. I learn more with Turkish teachers of English since they sometimes explain in Turkish and that helps me understand English better.	3.13	1.08	9.1%	18.2%	30.0%	36.4%	6.4%
24. Turkish teachers help me better with difficulties in learning English since they have experienced similar difficulties.	3.72	.95	4.5%	5.5%	19.1%	55.5%	15.5%
25. Turkish teachers of English set a good example of successful English learners which motivates me to study hard.	3.38	1.08	4.5%	18.2%	25.5%	38.2%	13.6%
26. I want to have a Turkish teacher as my English teacher since their English is more realistic for me to achieve as a learning target.	2.76	1.13	13.6%	28.2%	36.4%	12.7%	9.1%

In conclusion, findings revealed that pre-service teachers expressed a desire to recognize and learn localized varieties of English used all around the world. On the other hand, they preferred NESTs to teach them English, reserving a preference for Turkish teachers of English when learning grammar rules, making use of L1 for clarification and for motivational purposes. However, their preference for the NESTs was relatively higher compared to the NNESTs.

The Comparison of Turkish EFL Pre-Service Teachers Enrolled at Private and State Universities regarding their Perceptions toward WE

The second research question aimed to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference between state (Group 1) and private (Group 2) university pre-service teachers' perceptions regarding WE. To this end, an Independent Sample T-Test was used to analyze the data. In this research, the level of significance ($\alpha = .05$) was found to be sufficient to investigate whether there was a statistically significant difference between two groups. The analysis of Independent Samples T-Test indicated that there was not a statistically significant difference

between the means of both groups (t (108) = – 1.69, p > .05; Cohen's d = 0.35). In this regard, the analysis showed that there was not a statistically significant difference (p > .05) between state and private university pre-service teachers' perceptions regarding WE in total as illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5

Independent Sample T-Test Statistics of Private and Public University Pre-service Teachers' Perceptions

Statements	Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	P
Total	1	78	3.17	.36	-1.69	108	.988
	2	32	3.30	.41			**p > .05**

In addition, in order to see whether there was a statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of sub-scales, Independent Samples T-Tests were conducted for each sub-scale separately. Table 6 represents the differences between the groups' sub-scale scores in terms of their views toward WE.

Table 6

Differences Between Private and Public University Pre-service Teachers' Perceptions in Terms of Sub-Scales

Statements	Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	P
Ownership of English	1	78	2.80	.65	-1.361	108	.069
	2	32	3.00	.81			**p > .05**
WE and varieties of English	1	78	3.57	.46	-1.686	108	.982
	2	32	3.73	.44			**p > .05**
Preference of the NESTs	1	78	3.13	.96	-1.090	108	.359
	2	32	3.34	.84			**p > .05**
Preference of the NNESTs	1	78	3.18	.76	.230	108	.453
	2	32	3.14	**.86**			**p > .05**

Table 6 reveals that the results of the Independent Samples T-Test did not indicate any statistically significant differences between two groups in terms of four sub-scales including the perspectives of pre-service teachers' towards the ownership of English; issues of WE, preference of NESTs/ NNESTs. In that sense, for all the scores of the given four subscales, there were not statistically significant differences between the means of both groups (p > .05).

Discussion and Conclusion

The current study aimed to find out the perceptions' of EFL pre-service teachers enrolled at one private and two state universities in Turkish context towards WE. To that end, the WE perception questionnaire was utilized in the investigation of participating pre-service teachers' (a) previous training on WE during pre-service teacher education period (b) perceptions of

standard English ideology; (c) thoughts on ownership of English; (d) recognition of localized Englishes; and lastly (e) preference of NESTs and NNESTs. The findings reveled that regardless of their enrollment at SU (79.5%) and the PU (65.6%), the majority of the participating pre-service teachers stated not having taken any specific courses on WE. In the same vein, the findings illustrated that a high number of pre-service teachers enrolled at not only SU (93.6%) but also PU (84.4%) received no prior training on WE. However, more than half of the pre-service teachers in SU (55.1%) and majority of the pre – service teachers in PU (75.0%) claimed to be familiar with the concept of WE. Even though these participants received no prior training or attended no courses on WE during their pre – service teacher education programs, the majority both in SU (79.5%) and PU (84.4%) found training on WE necessary for themselves. In parallel with this finding, a significant number of pre-service teachers in SU (89.7 %) and PU (87.5 %) expressed eagerness and stated that they would like to volunteer and attend courses or training sessions regarding WE if they had an opportunity.

Given this lack of education in relation to WE, the emerging willingness to receive academic instruction on WE indicates a positive disposition towards WE and is in line with the existing literature. Studies conducted in higher education context to investigate perceptions regarding different varieties of English revealed previously noncognizant or slightly aware research participants revealing willingness to learn WE (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2009; Floris, 2013; Galloway, 2013; Lee & Green, 2016; Ören et al., 2017; Rousseau, 2012). Pre-service teachers' keenness on learning WE also indicates a necessity they feel for their professional development. Resonating with the study conducted by İnal & Özdemir (2015), this has clear implications for teacher education programs. Both the state and private universities where the research was conducted provided very limited opportunities for prospective teachers who had a limited awareness of WE to gain a deeper understanding of it. It is important to note that when pre-service teachers have a chance to critically engage with WE as part of their academic studies, they are likely to develop more as reflective teachers which results in reconsidering the effectiveness of their teaching practices, specific features of the curriculum and course books, as suggested by Sifakis and Bayyurt (2015). This means a transformative and innovative re-orientation for them in relation to their self-awareness as 'non-native speakers' and their use of instructional techniques, as well as the communication strategies they teach their students. These transformations will increase their self-confidence not only as NNS communicators but also as teachers at the same time as asserted by Park (2012). This finding also highlights the importance of Turkish EFL learners' eagerness to familiarize with norms necessary for the globalized world to establish an effective intercultural communication specifically with non-native speakers of English in the expanding circle countries (Coşkun, 2010).

On the matter of standard English ideology, pre-service teachers' tendency towards American or British varieties and their acceptance of them as standard English confirms the findings of the previous studies in the literature indicating the learners' appreciation of inner circle varieties (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2009; Derwing, 2003; Honna & Takeshita, 2000; Lee & Green, 2016; Li, 2009; Ören et al., 2017; Saengboon, 2015; Snodin & Young, 2015; Timmis, 2002; Yılmaz

& Özkan, 2016). This conveys the impact of SE ideology in contexts where English is taught as a foreign language. As a country in the expanding circle, Turkey is a setting to an ELT pedagogy that perceives English as a foreign language and adopts the norms of SE usage. This strongly upheld view has prevailed among not only pre-service but also in – service teachers. In terms of the ownership of English, however, the participants of the study expressed their belief that English did not solely belong to the UK and the USA as English is a common language used by many speakers of other languages around the world; and British or American speakers were not to decide how English should be used. This indicates a global ownership of English and reflects the shift in this respect from native speakers to non-native speakers as claimed by scholars (Kachru, 1985; Widdowson, 1994).

In terms of the participants' preference towards NESTs and NNESTs, the findings were in parallel with the previously conducted studies in the literature (Choi, 2007; Jin, 2005; Ören et al. 2017). Pre-service teachers had positive perceptions towards NESTs as they believed that these teachers set a good example of an English speaker. Their positive perceptions regarding the notion of WE, however, had no apparent impact on their preference for NESTs. This could be related to SE ideology and native speakerism. The participants' preference for NESTs to teach them English seems to spring from an association between NESTs and their SE use. The participants thought that they would eventually speak native – like English if they studied with NESTs since they would provide them better examples in terms of fluency in oral communication skills, which was also stated in Ürkmez's study (2015).

However, when the pre-service teachers' perceptions of NNESTs were investigated, the results showed that it was also positive. The participants stated that they could learn more with Turkish teachers of English due to their explanations in L1, which resulted in an improved understanding of English. In addition, a significant number of pre-service teachers thought that the Turkish teachers helped better to overcome difficulties in learning L2 because of their shared learning experiences when faced with difficulties during language learning process, which has been discussed as an asset of NNESTs in the Expanding Circle (Seidlhofer, 1999). These pre-service teachers may feel themselves more comfortable and motivated with NNESTs who can better understand the challenges they meet in learning English. This also echoes Phillipson's (1992) suggestion that an educated local teacher is an ideal English teacher. It should be noted at this point, however, that the teacher education programs have to focus on how to identify the assets of NNESTs and develop them as important resources to meet the needs and preferences of their learners. It is vital for pre – service teachers to capitalize on the motivation that is built in learners when they have a competent and successful NNEST (Bayyurt, 2006). The participants' divided preferences for NESTs and NNESTs reiterate the findings of the previous studies that focus on the same topic (Alseweed 2012; Karakaş et al., 2016, Üstünlüoğlu 2007). Emphasizing the linguistic and professional competence of a NNEST placed next to a NEST, the integration of WE courses in pre-service teacher education programs may better equip prospective teachers for their future jobs with a more WE-aware and confident manner.

There are, however, responses indicating a tendency towards NESTs, mostly aligning with native speakerism. Carrying traces of the established definition of a native speaker, pre – service teachers profiled native speakers solely as people born only in the USA and the UK and opted for them as their English teachers. It is also possible that NESTs that the participants might have encountered in their educational contexts influenced their outlook on them in positive way.

The difference in responses to items regarding familiarity of WE given by participants coming from private universities may result from the fact that more international instructors are likely to be found in private universities. Pre-service teachers enrolled in private universities being more familiar with WE may be accounted for by their increased contact with international teachers and their interactions with them in English. This might also lead to these pre-service teachers' comfort with their Turkish accent while speaking English.

The similarity in responses to items regarding the ownership of English, WE-related issues, preferences of NESTs and NNESTs that were obtained from the two groups of participants can be interpreted within the frame of a centralized higher education system of Turkey. As both state and private universities are regulated by the Higher Education Council (HEC), teacher education programs offered by universities across Turkey are almost the same. The recognition of WE as a sociolinguistic reality of English by the policy makers at HEC and its integration into the curriculum as a subject of study will pave the way for WE – awareness that is asked for by pre-service teachers. Such an outlook on WE is likely to entail intercultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence – two concepts that have inevitably evolved – and provide an academic platform for the way they are being discussed by scholars today. Furthermore, it could also reflect on teaching material and cater to the need expressed by the majority of the participants of the present study: learning English from books that show interaction in English occurring among native and non-native speakers of English. The integration of WE into the curriculum of teacher education programs could also provide prospective teachers with meaningful tools to integrate WE into their own classrooms within their traditional EFL curriculum via taking responsibility of the implementation, as suggested by Sifakis and Bayyurt (2015). Accordingly, as teachers, they could reflect on life – changing or transformative issues both for them and for their learners, even for their wider social circle. They will, then, have an opportunity to raise awareness, increase knowledge, develop skills, implement different strategies on WE and facilitate pupils' EFL learning process more effectively.

The strength of the present study arises from the gap it aims to fill in the literature suggesting an understanding of the perceptions of pre-service teachers towards WE. Although there are studies that explored the students' preferences of NESTs/ NNESTs, this study, in a more elaborate manner, aimed to find out the pre-service English teachers' perceptions regarding SE ideology, ownership of English, localized varieties of English, and their preference of NESTs/ NNESTs. The sample size, which presents a limitation here, is small and could be increased with multiple cases. Further research can be carried out for exploring both the perceptions and practices of pre-service teachers during their Practicum. Another suggestion can be an exploration of

possible changes that may arise in the pre-service teachers' perceptions and practices following training on WE. Further mixed method design studies could investigate prospective teachers' perceptions by means of combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches during the data collection and data analysis phases for gaining more in-depth insights regarding WE in Turkish context. Lastly, with regard to teacher education, future research could examine how to constitute and implement a WE curriculum.

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A Needs Analysis Study on Academic Writing Skills of Pre-Service Teachers at a Foundation University in Turkey

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the needs of pre-service teachers at the English Language Teaching (ELT) department regarding academic writing. The study was conducted with the undergraduate pre-service teachers from the first, second, and third years of ELT department in a foundation (non-profit, private) university in Istanbul, Turkey. The data of this needs study was collected through a triangulated approach. Specifically, a survey was administered to 58 pre-service teachers, followed by semi-structured interviews carried out with 13 pre-service teachers and five instructors. The findings revealed that pre-service teachers and instructors regarded organization, generating ideas, and proper language use in academic writing as the most challenging skills while a flow of ideas and reflection on different topics and themes were seen as the least difficult ones. The study offers suggestions and pedagogical implications about the academic writing skills of pre-service teachers in ELT undergraduate programs.

Keywords: pre-service teachers, needs analysis, academic writing, perceptions

Authors' Note

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Introduction

In today's world, the importance of English as the language of communication has increased dramatically as it allows people to communicate without borders or limitations (Crystal, 2003). English is not only a school subject but a skill that requires an extensive amount of content knowledge which facilitates learning in other subjects as well (Chen, 2016). For this reason, learning English has become an essential goal for many, people all around the world continue to learn English to reach their different goals (Lukmani, 1972). However, not all language targets are the same; they are rather differentiated by the specific purposes of the learners such as the circumstances where they are involved in and various specialties their disciplines and fields demand. Consequently, instruction of English for academic purposes (EAP) has been separated by general language acquisition as EAP requires certain skills to be facilitated to cope with academic demands (Elsaid & Nur, 2018).

Not only rising importance of English language but also the globalization of education in English has led to a need for providing academic language support since there is a still lack in scholars' and students' competence to meet the demands of their disciplines and programs As a part of academic environment, students and academics are expected to demonstrate sophisticated academic language skills in their fields as the proficiency in academic language is regarded as the sign of overall achievement in academic context (Read, 2008). When academic success and competence are considered, academic writing knowledge is a requirement since university students' academic success is mostly based on their writing. It is also mentioned by AlHashemi, AlSubaeie and Shukri (2017) that whether students are going to be successful or unsuccessful in terms of academic performance is determined by the use of academic writing skills.

Academic writing is generally defined as all writing works created for the sake of study (Chin, Khoizumi, Reid, Wray & Yamazaki, 2012). Academic writing demonstrates someone's knowledge on a particular topic, and the aimed audience is academic people for the most of the time so that it is differentiated from the other writings in terms of purpose, audience, evidence, style, and process (Chin et al., 2012). Richards (2001) states a typical sequence of how to teach writing in a second or foreign language context as follows: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing, and free writing. This sequence is adopted by most of the language teaching practitioners. On the other hand, there is also a common view that holds writing, especially academic writing, as one of the most challenging skills to master in a second or foreign language. The reason for this difficulty is stated as "the need of using an appropriate choice of vocabulary, sentence structure, and paragraph organization and to turn such ideas into a readable text" (Ghufron, Saleh, Warsono & Sofwan, 2016, p.2). Based on these overviews, it is obvious that academic writing courses need to be designed carefully to meet the needs of the students to be successful with the demands of academic context and their disciplines.

Literature Review

Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is an instrument for collecting information about students' needs so that it is possible to define the target situation and study environment for teaching English (Otila, 2015).

The needs analysis provides the teacher with a picture of what students lack in and what skills should be acquired by learners. How the learning process will be arranged and what principles will be adopted is defined by a needs analysis, and it consists of many sides of teaching and learning process such as students' background, students' current level of the language, their purpose of learning a language, etc. According to Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes (2015), the needs analysis starts with the target situation analysis, which focuses on the objective and product-oriented needs. It is followed by the learning situation analysis giving information about subjective needs and the means analysis for getting information on educational contexts.

Similarly, Hyland (2006) categorizes the needs analysis into present situation analysis and target situation analysis. The present situation analysis is for students' current conditions based on objective and subjective data and the target situation analysis concerns with students' roles, skills, and knowledge. The needs analysis results will shape the learning goals and are used to develop the teaching and learning process based on these goals. Therefore, it is the prominent step of curriculum design. It also helps teachers to see if learners benefit from an applied curriculum. After the needs analysis is carried out, the teacher and educator should clearly define learning objectives and goals and design the curriculum accordingly.

In brief, needs analysis is the collection and review information necessary to describe and validate objectives of the curriculum which support the language learning needs of students in the institutions that influence the situations of learning and teaching. Applying needs analysis as a part of teaching could help the learners recognize their needs and more importantly, monitor their learning.

Needs Analysis Studies on English for Academic Purposes

As EAP skills are profound for students to comprehend, instructors need to design lessons that answer the deficits of the learners so that learners can overcome challenges in their academic study (Asaoka & Usui, 2003). The best way to design lessons and get data about the learners' current academic language needs, needs analysis can be applied. The aim of needs analysis is to help learners to maximize their language learning skills in a given target context (Chen & Chang, 2016). There are several different studies to discover academic language needs of students.

In spite of the current studies on English for academic purposes, there is an ongoing debate on why undergraduate students have difficulty in mastering on those skills (Elsaid & 2018; Berman & Chang, 2001; Tseng, 2014). To address this problem, it is crucial to investigate students' needs for English for academic purposes. Elsaid and Nur (2018) conducted a study at the University of Khartoum with 150 participants and it aimed to identify the reasons for learning English, their conceptions about their current level of English, and to discover academic sub-skills they perceive to be improved. Their current English proficiency levels also were determined for the comparative purposes. The data were collected through open-ended

questions and a questionnaire. According to the results of the study, it can be argued that the participants perceived English as a way of communication to express their needs both in social and academic life. For this reason, they regarded speaking and writing as the most essential skill to improve, and they require their instructors to design activities that include speaking and writing skills more.

In Berman and Cheng's (2001) study, undergraduate students at a major Canadian university participated in research that addresses the needs analysis of the NS and NNS in higher education. In order to achieve that, the participants were given a questionnaire to investigate students' self-assessed difficulties in four language skills. The results showed that there is a correlation between self-perception and GPA scores. All participants with lower GPA scores perceived English for academic purposes more challenging to master and they added that they had difficulties to express themselves in productive skills. Furthermore, like previous research, it was observed that the NNS find productive skills more difficult than receptive skills, and they wanted to practice more on those skills.

In another study Tseng (2014), improving writing and communication skills were emphasized. Likert scale was used to explore the participants' perspectives and needs. The data indicated that students' main concern is to be able to communicate appropriately when they attend exhibitions or performances. Moreover, they wanted to improve their reading skills to comprehend specific and field-related reading texts about their major.

To wrap up, needs analysis plays a significant role in the design and execution of the EAP course as it identifies the learners' current and target language needs and therefore provides a solid basis for this course. Having applied the needs analysis and come up with the academic language needs of the students, the data would aid students to achieve their expected results in very successful courses.

Needs Analysis Studies on Academic Writing

There have been many needs analyses in EAP that focused mainly on academic writing skills (Huang, 2010; Leki & Carson, 1994; Lung et al., 2014; Asaoka & Usui, 2003). The studies focused on the perspectives of the students and/or the students (Leki & Carson, 1994). One study, for instance, by Huang (2010), tried to reveal the students' and instructors' perceptions of the importance of language skills to be able to be successful academically. The results of questionnaires and open-ended surveys indicated that both the learners and the instructors value academic writing so much. Besides, they claimed that it is the most problematic skill due to its nature. Since the students need academic writing skills throughout their education, the needs analysis results shaped the curriculum.

Another research by Lung et al. (2014), focused on the students' academic writing skills needs with the aim of reconstruction of the reading classes. The participants were M.A. or PhD students who need excellent academic writing skills. The writers reported that the results

would constitute the outline of the writing courses. In Asaoka and Usui's study (2003), the problems that the college students face in terms of academic writing were addressed into three categories; internal, external, and surface-level. The research pointed out that macro-level problems like planning, organization, and conclusion stand as a major difficulty in academic writing. In addition to these studies, Shi and Fujioka's study (1998) concerned about College of Liberal Arts professors' perception of students' writing at this university, which revealed that the participants thought that the most problematic area was students' writing. It was stated that the writing skills which learners exhibited were weak.

As summarized in the previous part of this study, there have been various studies conducted on academic writing skills, and they all have shed light on the alterations needed for teaching those skills. There is no doubt that academic writing proficiency ought to be mastered by university students. It is essential to adopt and implement the necessary teaching principles and activities to improve students' proficiency in writing for academic purposes (Yundayani et al., 2017). The examination of particular learning needs concerning academic writing courses will allow finding the proper ways to learn and teach. For the sake of this, the application of questionnaires and interviews to identify academic writing needs are practical tools (Dewhurst-Belcher & Braine, 1995).

Even though needs analysis studies have approached the needs in academic writing courses by focusing on different participants and their perceptions, there still exists a gap for pre-service teachers' needs including both stakeholders of students and instructors. Therefore, the present study tried to address this gap by raising the following research questions:

1. What are the needs of pre-service teachers in Turkey in academic writing?

2. What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers of academic writing in terms of motivational source, strengths and weaknesses, and activities to be included in the related course?

3. What are the perceptions of instructors at the ELT Department of academic writing in terms of students' motivational source, strengths and weaknesses, and modifications to be done in the concerned course?

Methodology

Research Design

The present study aimed to conduct a needs analysis of pre-service teachers' academic writing skills. While doing so, it employed a mixed-method research design which is defined as a method which focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data and using their procedures in a single study or series of studies (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Creswell and Clark (2011) point out that combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches

in researching provides broader and deeper information and each can give complementary information so that the shortcomings of one method research can be eliminated.

Participants and Setting

This study was conducted in the English Language Teaching Department at a foundation university in Istanbul, Turkey. The goal of the ELT undergraduate program is to prepare students to be eligible English teachers who can serve in every level of educational institutions and to donate them with the field – required skills and knowledge. The participants of the study were 58 pre-service teachers from the first, second, and third years of the ELT department, and 13 of them were the participants of the open-ended questions part as well.

Apart from the pre-service teachers, five ELT instructors in the institution participated in the present study and were given a questionnaire with open-ended questions. Most of the students at the department had an advanced level of English while the others were in upper – intermediate level. The undergraduate ELT students had advanced writing courses as must courses in both semesters of their freshmen year. These advanced writing courses aim to gain students the necessary skills to be able to write in different genres of academic writing and to make them familiar with the customs of writing in academic context. Additionally, the students are expected to complete academic writing tasks and assignments in most of their courses so that they have been familiar with the concept of "academic writing". The instructors were experienced in giving academic writing courses to undergraduate students.

Data Collection Tools

The research employed a triangulation method for the data collection so that the validity of the study would be assured. Thus, the data was collected through a survey with a Likert scale for the pre-service teachers and the questionnaires with open-ended questions for both pre-service teachers and instructors at the department which are summarized in the next part of this paper.

Survey

The survey consisted of three parts: background information part, a Likert scale for pre-service teachers' perceptions of the importance of academic writing, and a Likert scale for academic writing needs. There were two items about students' perceptions of the importance of academic writing skills in the first scale. The Likert scale for academic writing needs was adapted from another needs analysis study on the academic skills of graduate students (Köse, Yüksel, Öztürk & Tömen, 2019). The items were about sub-skills of academic writing competence. The items had been changed into full sentences, and two additional items had been added to specify some sub-skills. In total, the survey included 14 items in two parts. The pre-service teachers were expected to choose from a scale from "5" to "1" with the labels of

"*strongly agree, agree, somewhat agree, disagree and strongly disagree*". The reliability score of the new scale was calculated by using SPSS and Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be .89.

The Questionnaire for Pre-Service Teachers

A questionnaire with open-ended questions was given to some of the pre-service teachers who had answered the Likert scale. The questionnaire included eight questions in total. The questions focused on pre-service teachers' perceptions of their own academic writing competence.

The Questionnaire for Instructors

For the purposes of this study, a questionnaire including open-ended questions was delivered to five instructors teaching English Language Education courses. The instructors were asked five open-ended questions which aimed to find out the instructors' opinions on the primary purpose of the academic writing course, motivation sources of the pre-service teachers, and pre-service teachers' general needs and difficulties they face and modifications needed to be done in the academic writing course.

Data Collection Procedure

The instructors who had classes with the participants were contacted, and their consent was received in order to apply the Likert scale during their class time. The questionnaire with open-ended questions was given to pre-service teachers as written after the Likert scale since the research was carried out towards the end of the semester. In order to reach more participants, the online version of the Likert scale and the open-ended questions were also created and delivered to the participants with the help of the contacted instructors.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the Likert scale was done quantitatively. Descriptive statistics, such as the mean score, standard deviation, and median, were used to interpret the data. In order to calculate these statistics, SPSS was used.

As for the open-ended questions in the questionnaires of the instructors and the pre – service teachers, qualitative analysis was applied to interpret the answers. Qualitative data analysis is an interpretive process; the researcher is oriented to in-depth and reflective process and they try to get repeated parameters of their interpretations of the data (Clark & Creswell, 2015). To achieve that, the content analysis was done by two of the researchers. Following the data collection process, the written answers were transcribed on a Word document and meaningful parts were chosen by the researchers. Each researcher applied content analysis to reach

common codes and themes. Similar codes were placed under some categories which finally formed themes. Each researcher went over their lists and the data to check whether there was an extra or unseen code. After coding process, the lists of two researchers were compared and common themes were used to explain the findings and interpretation, which also ensured rigor of the study. The results were interpreted in order to provide a deeper understanding of the learners' essential needs and preferences and the instructors' perceptions of academic writing skills.

Findings

Survey

The data collected from the survey were analyzed through descriptive statistics to obtain information about the pre-service teachers' perceptions of the importance of academic writing skill and to determine the pre-service teachers' needs in academic writing. The results of the perception scale are given in Table 1.

Table 1

Perception Scale

Perception Items	*N*	*M*	*SD*
How important do you think academic writing skills are to your current undergraduate studies?	58	4.22	.937
How important do you think academic writing is to your future career in the long run?	58	4.21	1.005

The results showed that the means of participants' perceptions of the importance of academic writing in their current studies and for their future career are high (I1: *M*=4.22; I2: *M*=4.21). In other words, it was reported by the pre-service teachers that the academic writing skill had a significant role in their current and future academic performance.

Table 2

Academic Writing Needs Scale

Academic Writing	*N*	*M*	*SD*
I need I need academic writing skills to use proper academic language	58	4.22	.974
I need I need academic writing skills to be able to choose and use appropriate vocabulary	58	4.21	.853
I need I need academic writing skills to understand the specific language features of the academic genre	58	4.10	.892
I need I need academic writing skills to write clear introductions	58	4.17	.958
I need academic writing skills to write clear thesis statements that correspond to the intended message to be delivered	58	4.33	.944
I need academic writing skills to put forward a clear and understandable claim	58	3.97	.936
I need academic writing skills to form a reasonable flow of ideas and events in the text s/he writes	58	4.05	.981
I need academic writing skills to be able to make connections among them	58	4.10	.968
I need academic writing skills to write a conclusion paragraph supporting the paper in general	58	4.26	.849

I need I need academic writing skills to write coherent and consistent explanations	58	4.14	.888
I need academic writing skills to reflect how similar topics and themes are dealt with in different writings	58	4.02	.927
I need academic writing skills to generate ideas to write by using different sources	58	4.19	.926
I need I need academic writing skills to avoid plagiarism while using different sources	58	4.31	1.012

As for the academic writing needs, the results obtained were illustrated in *Table* 2.

When the participants' answers were analyzed in regard to the academic writing needs, it was seen that the pre-service teachers needed the most to write clear thesis statements that correspond to the intended message to be delivered (*M*=4.33, *SD*= .944). The participants also stated that they also needed academic writing skills to avoid plagiarism while using different sources (*M*=4.31, *SD*=1.012), to write a conclusion paragraph (*M*=4.26, *SD*= .846) and to use proper academic language (*M*=4.22, *SD*= .974). When other items of the academic writing needs were explored as well, there were not observable serious differences among all needs for academic writing since they are related to the parts of academic writing competency.

To sum up, the findings of the study indicated that there were some certain sub-skills which were regarded by the participants as more necessary to be competent in, and these findings will be discussed in the upcoming section of the paper along with the results of qualitative data collected from the interviews.

Findings about the Questionnaire of Pre-Service Teachers

A questionnaire with eight open-ended questions was given to 13 pre-service teachers from first, second and third year students to understand their motivation to learn academic writing skills, to determine their strengths and weaknesses in terms of academic writing skills and/or strategies, and to gain an insight about their perceptions of the aim of an academic writing course and what should be included in an academic writing course.

The first question was asking the motivation of the participants to learn academic writing skills. Four categories emerged from the analysis of the first question, and the most frequent one was academic performance. Some of the pre-service teachers shared their motivations regarding academic performance as the following:

> [...] I believe these skills will make me look more professional. (P7, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)
>
> [...] to be proficient for my future students. (P9, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)
>
> I want to study further; i.e., Ph.D., etc. I needed academic writing skills to write my thesis. (P13, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

The second question of the interview was exploring the difficulties the students face.

According to the results of the analysis, the two major difficulties were organization and generating ideas for the topic. Some of the participants shared their difficulties as the following:

> Creating and writing thesis statements and conclusions. [...] (P7, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> Topics that are given me to write an essay about. They are usually out of my interest. [...] (P2, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> I sometimes have a hard time finding inspiration [...] (P12, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

The question three and question four asked the participants about their strengths and weaknesses in academic writing alongside what in writing classes contributed them most in order to be a good writer for their academic writing. Various categories emerged from the analysis of these two questions; however, as seen from the sharings below, the major themes were organization and supporting ideas:

> [...] Organizing ideas. Preparing an outline [...] (P5, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> [...] how to write the best examples for supporting the main ideas [...] (P4, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> I feel most confident while I'm writing about supporting my idea. (P6, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> I have learned to put my thoughts in order and writing them in a meaningful and proper way. (P8, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

The questions five, six, and seven aimed to reveal the participants' ideas regarding the aim of academic writing course, how the instructors can help the learners for being a good writer, and what kind of classroom activities would be useful for their learning. The fact that the aim of the course should be helping the students gain the overall academic writing proficiency was expressed repeatedly by the students as following:

> The aim of the course should be to teach writing as a professional because it is important for our future. (P8, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> The aim should be to have "writer" students who can convey their ideas, thoughts, and feelings in a proficient way. (P9, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

In questions six and seven, guided writing, feedback, and peer-review were the most highlighted codes. As can be seen from the excerpts below, the learners think that guided writing, feedback, and peer-review are the most effective activities to enhance their academic writing skills:

> Guided writing can help to make practice, and peer feedback helps to comprehend the topic better. (P5, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> [...] detailed teacher feedback would help me the most. (P7, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> [...] I enhanced my skills mostly through drafting and feedback from my teachers. (P12, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> Peer and teacher feedback and redrafting. (P10, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

As mentioned, the feedback was one of the major themes according to the analyzed data. The last question, which explores the comments of the students on written feedback, gains another meaning. The written feedback was considered useful by many participants. However, an alternative, but less frequent view was that verbal feedback is more efficient and useful. The ideas suggesting verbal feedback is more beneficial were expressed by the participants as the following:

Useful but not much as the face to face feedback. The teacher may not understand pragmatic of the student. [...] (P5, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

> [...] however, verbal feedback is more useful for me. (P8, Questionnaire Data, 02.05.2019)

Findings about the Questionnaire of ELT Instructors

To provide a deeper understanding of the topic, the researchers gave a questionnaire with open-ended questions to five instructors from the English Language Teaching department about academic writing courses that they provide to undergraduate students. The aim of this questionnaire was to investigate the instructors' perspective about the primary purpose of the academic writing course, motivation sources of the pre-service teachers and course and the modifications that they consider as beneficial.

The first question aimed to explore the perceptions of the instructors about the main purpose of an academic writing course at ELT undergraduate program. All of the participants expressed that writing courses are crucial for the students' academic improvement. Some of

the instructors shared their perceptions of what the aim of academic writing courses should focus on as the following:

> [...] to enable students to become competent in academic writing skills as it is important to be aware of and skillfully use the academic writing conventions. (I2, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

> [...] to help students improve their academic writing strategies such as writing reflective inquiry or citing references. (I3, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

> [...] analyzing and producing different types of writing and writing styles: to help them in written assignments during their course work, having a good command of both general and especially academic English, analytical reading (analyzing, evaluating and synthesizing) of different genre and building up their writing skills including organizational skills and various sub-skills of writing in English and plagiarism. Apparently, students do not understand the same thing when this issue is brought up [...] (I5, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

The second question tried to investigate the instructors' conception of the motivation level of the students. However, each of the instructors had a different opinion. Some of them argued that the students are highly motivated, while some stated that the motivation level of the students depends on previous experiences. When it comes to the source of this motivation level, the majority of the instructors argued that the attitude of the learners has a huge effect on pre-service teachers. Some of the instructors shared their opinions like the following:

> [...] Pre-service teachers are not motivated because they regard this course as irrelevant to their future careers (I1, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

> Some of them are highly motivated. Some are moderately motivated, and some are not. Well, I don't know exactly why but it might be related to their overall language attitude. (I2, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

> [...] Some of them are motivated while the others hate it. I think it is related to their previous experience in writing and also proficiency level because if they are not proficient enough it is frustrating for them to write an academic piece. (I4, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

While another one stated as the following:

> They are generally motivated as they need to develop these skills and transfer them to the other courses in the program. (I3, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

In the third question, the aim was to investigate the general perception of the instructors about the weaknesses and strengths of the students in writing courses. Various answers emerged, and all of the instructors had different opinions. One of the instructors stated that students lack in vocabulary knowledge and organizational skills. Others are stated as below:

> They are weak at citing references, but they are good at writing academic summaries of simple ELT articles. (I3, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

> [...] Ss are weak in terms of coming up with ideas, creative and critical writing, reflective writing and expressing their opinions in a scholarly way with an academic tone of writing. For some students, language use, spelling, and punctuation are other weaknesses. They might be strong if they are asked to write in a certain template or format. They might also use several memorized cohesive devices and phrases, which might influence their writing in a negative way at most. (I5, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

In questions four and five, the instructors were asked if the writing courses meet the needs of pre-service teachers and what modification they would make in case of offering such a course. All of them expressed that the writing course meets the needs of pre-service teachers. As for the modifications they would make, one of the instructors stated that focusing more on critical writing or reflective writing could be better to help them advance their arguments in light of academic papers, research, and the literature. Some of the instructors provide writing courses for years, and they argued that material modification would make the course more beneficial for the students. In general, they expressed their thoughts as the following:

> [...] PTs should be familiarized with the writing rubric, pre-writing tasks and individual conferencing which they could incorporate into their future classes as well. (I1, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

> I would add more ELT articles to provide them with some background information about their field of study. (I3, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

In addition to these, integrating automated/digital feedback tools such as grammarly.com to reduce instructors' effort for writing tasks was mentioned by one of the instructors. S/he continued as the following:

> [...] Integrating peer-feedback would benefit students in terms of critical reading & writing, text-analysis, evaluation, synthesis and more importantly this would give students a chance to experiment with giving feedback, which will support their future teaching practices, as well besides providing many opportunities for writing practice. (I5, Questionnaire Data, 08.05.2019)

In conclusion, these excerpts indicate that even though the current academic writing courses are thought to meet the needs of pre-service teachers' needs to some extent, some modifications are still possible to enhance the efficiency of it. Such excerpts demonstrate that if some improvements recommended by the pre-service teachers would be applied, their performance could improve.

Discussion

In the first section of the survey, the aim was to explore pre-service teachers' perception of how critical writing skills are. The findings showed that academic writing skills were perceived as very important for pre-service teachers' future academic and professiona life. This finding was also supported by Elsaid and Nur's (2018) study as the participants addressed that writing is the most important skill to express themselves both in academic and social life. Since having academic writing skills is of great importance, pre-service teachers' needs play a crucial role in their development. When the questionnaires are examined in detailed, it is seen that the students have difficulty in writing clear thesis statements, and getting their message across in a comprehensible way. Besides that, the answers to the items in the questionnaire make it easy to observe that the means of participants' perceptions of the importance of academic writing sub-skills are relatively high, which also indicates how crucial they think academic writing is. These results were similar to the study of Asaoka and Isui (2003) that put the problems which the college students face in terms of academic writing into three categories; internal, external, and surface-level. According to the gathered results, it has been addressed that macro-level problems like planning, organization, and conclusion stand as a major difficulty in academic writing, which complies with the current study.

Furthermore, motivation holds a vital part in any part of learning. For this reason, in the questionnaire, pre-service teachers were asked about the motivation sources in terms of academic writing. They addressed that academic performance and personal pleasure are the two main reasons behind their writing motivation. Pre-service teachers also underlined that they mostly have difficulty with organization, generating ideas, and proper language use.

This view is supported by Shi and Fujioka's study (1998) concerning College of Liberal Arts professors' perception of students' writing at this university, which revealed that non – language teachers found organization was the most problematic area of their students writing. However contradictorily, in the same questionnaire, the participants also expressed that they feel most confident in supporting ideas, organization and proper language use which indicates that pre-service teachers are confident in those sub-skills yet they perceive those skill as challenging to perform. Similarly, in terms of the academic writing courses, pre-service teachers indicated that they mostly benefit from the instructions that are beneficial to the same sub-skills that they conceive as difficult.

According to pre-service teachers, to be able to improve those writing skills, the best way is to guided writing, peer review, and feedback. They also stated that instructors could contribute to the process by providing writing techniques and feedback which can be oral and written.

In addition, perceptions of the instructor holds a crucial part in academic courses as they are the ones that arrange the content of the writing courses and have a deeper relationship with the students. To achieve that, five questions were asked to the instructors with several different aims. One of these aims was to explore instructors' perception of the motivation level of the pre-service teachers in terms of academic writing skills. This section was the most discrepant part between the instructors. Each one of them provided a different answer in terms of proficiency level. According to one of the instructors, the motivation level of pre-service teachers depends on the student himself/herself while one of the teachers expressed that almost all of the students lack motivation in writing classes. However, it is crucial to indicate that not all of the instructors provided writing classes, which explains that this observation of instructors depends on different courses which could create diversity in students' motivation level.

Moreover, another objective of this study was to discover the instructors' perception of the importance and aim of academic writing courses. This perception of the instructors complies with students' perception as both groups indicated that academic writing is a crucial part of academic performance and needed to be improved. When it comes to deficiencies in academic writing, student's self-images also comply with the instructors' perceptions. The instructors indicated that students lack in generating ideas, organization, and proper language use. This shows that both the pre-service teachers and instructors have a common ground in terms of weaknesses in academic writing needed some support and improvement. This finding complied with Huang's study (2010) that investigates instructors' and students' perception of college students' necessity for improving their academic skills.

To be able to identify the sufficiency of the current writing courses and modifications that can be in writing courses, the instructors were asked about perceptions to answer the needs of the students. Several suggestions were provided by instructors, although some indicated that they do not provide writing classes. These suggestions indicated that students are required to have a deeper understanding of writing tasks in general.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the academic writing needs of pre-service teachers at the English Language Teaching (ELT) department. The study was conducted with the student participants from the first, second, and third years of ELT department, and their instructors.

The results shed light on the necessary modifications for the academic writing course provided at the department for pre-service teachers. The findings of this study revealed that academic writing skills are significant for pre-service teachers' future intentions and they stated

that they had difficulty in the organization, generating ideas, and proper language use while writing academically which was also underline by the instructors. The questionnaires including open-ended questions for both pre-service teachers and instructors showed that both groups agreed on pre-service teachers' weaknesses in academic writing needed some support and improvement. Therefore, the needs of the pre-service teachers are more likely to be met with the improvements of the course content, materials, and syllabus. In order to gain a better insight of the needs of pre-service teachers in terms of academic skills, not only writing skill, their needs for each year at the department can be explored, and the different skills needed to be gained for each level can be determined in detail.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Survey

Background Information

Age:

Gender:

In which year are you at your department?:

Perception Scale

		Not important at all	Slightly important	Important	Fairly important	Very important
1.	How important do you think academic writing skills are to your current graduate studies?	1	2	3	4	5
2.	How important do you think academic writing is to your future career in the long run?	1	2	3	4	5

Needs Analysis of Academic Writing Scale

	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree Agree (4)	Some Somewhat Agree (3)	Disagr Disagree (2)	Stro Strongly Disagree (1)
I need I need academic writing skills to use proper academic language					
I need I need academic writing skills to be able to choose and use appropriate vocabulary					
I need I need academic writing skills to understand the specific language features of the academic genre					
I need I need academic writing skills to write clear introductions					
I need academic writing skills to write clear thesis statements that correspond to the intended message to be delivered					
I need academic writing skills to put forward a clear and understandable claim					
I need academic writing skills to form a reasonable flow of ideas and events in the text s/he writes					
I need academic writing skills to be able to make connections among them					
I need academic writing skills to write a conclusion paragraph supporting the paper in general					

I need I need academic writing skills to write coherent and consistent explanations					
I need academic writing skills to reflect how similar topics and themes are dealt with in different writings					
I need academic writing skills to generate ideas to write by using different sources					
I need I need academic writing skills to avoid plagiarism while using different sources					

Appendix B: Open Ended Questions for Pre-Service Teachers

1. What is your motivation to learn academic writing skills?

2. What do you feel is the biggest problem you face in your writing?

3. In what areas of academic writing, if any, do you feel most confident? (using a proper language, writing clear introductions, supporting your idea with evidence, etc.)

4. What have you learned about writing that has helped you the most?

5.What do you think the aim of the academic writing course should be?

6. How can your lecturers help you to become a better writer?

7. What kind of activities do you think can help you most with your writing skills? (guided writing, peer review feedback, citation activities, etc.)

8. What do you think about the written feedback? Is it useful? Why/ why not?

Appendix C: Open Ended Questions for Instructors

1. What do you think the main purpose of an academic writing course at ELT undergraduate program should be?

2. How motivated do you think the ELT pre-service teachers are in the academic writing course? Why/Why not?

3. What skills or/and strategies do you think/believe the students are strong or weak in the writing course? Why/Why not?

4. Do you think the course meets the needs of the pre-service teachers? Why/Why not?

5. If you were going to offer this course, what modifications would you make? (e.g. syllabus design, assignments,etc.) Why/Why not?

PART III: THE EFL INSTRUCTOR

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Turkish EFL Teachers' Conceptualizations of Critical Thinking and Critical Thinking Related Practices

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Abstract

Critical thinking (CT) has been emphasized as a foundational 21st century skill. Accordingly, incorporating CT in pedagogy has become a major goal for the purpose of empowering individuals by helping them become creative thinkers, question their ego and bias, learn from their mistakes, think in a self-regulated manner, which are lifelong skills. Like in other subject areas, CT integration is also emphasized in English language teaching (ELT). Considering the key role of teachers in any pedagogical implementation, the present study aimed to explore how in-service teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Turkey conceptualize critical thinking and perceive to promote critical thinking in their classrooms. The findings revealed the teachers' positivity towards CT pedagogy, but limited conceptualization and integration of CT. These findings might be relevant for educational authorities at Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE), curriculum designers, and teacher trainers at ELT departments.

Keywords: in-service teachers; English as a foreign language; critical thinking conceptualization; critical thinking integration

Introduction

In the 21st century, we are faced with ever increasing problems related to climate change, plastic pollution in oceans, deforestation, biodiversity, sustainability, viral outbreaks and pandemics, natural hazards, food and water security, migration, and the urgent challenge to develop affordable low-carbon technologies and make the transition to use them. In addition, development of digital technologies and networks that are transforming our access to and processing of information, and the research and development work on artificial intelligence and its applications have a strong impact on how societies, politics and commerce function globally.

To combat with these changes and challenges experienced globally, for social empowerment, and to increase chances of employability, individuals need to possess the confidence and skills

to adapt in changeable conditions, be open-minded, have the ability to judge acceptability of information and seek to be well-informed for their decision-making. In line with the global demands, critical thinking (CT) has lately been identified as a foundational skill for the 21st century, although inculcating critical thinking habits in individuals has been a goal of education for decades.

An important goal for educational settings has been to teach processes of critical thinking associated with open-mindedness and the habit of truth seeking that can be applied in a wide range of real-life contexts as well as learning (Facione, 1990; Paul & Elder, 2006). CT skills can be cultivated with training whether it is studied 'in its own right' (Gelder, 2005, p.43) or embedded across the curriculum. The integration of CT across the curriculum requires teachers to accommodate strategies into their pedagogy that would foster learners' CT skills through the right instructional strategies, materials and content choice (Djamàa, 2018). While there is consensus about the benefits for CT training as evidenced by research (Davidson & Dunham, 1997; Chapple & Curtis, 2000), studies have shown that its integration in education has not been a smooth process (Mok, 2009; Şengül & Üstündağ, 2009; Li, 2016). Considering the key role of teachers in the implementation of policies and educational goals, the purpose of this study was to explore how teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Turkey conceptualize critical thinking and perceive to promote critical thinking in their classrooms. EFL teachers were also asked to comment on the context related factors that might influence their integration of critical thinking in foreign language teaching. It was hoped that the findings of this study could shed light on the perspectives of teachers regarding their readiness and practices to integrate CT and challenges they face in the process, which together may inform policy makers, teacher trainers and material designers in similar contexts.

Definition of Critical Thinking

There are various definitions of critical thinking in the related literature. Facione (1990, p.3) offers a comprehensive definition of CT by stating that it is 'purposeful, self – regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based'. For Ennis (2011a, p.1) it is 'reasonable and reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do'.

The common principles of these and other definitions available in the literature suggest that CT is the goal-directed and reflective process of using cognitive skills and strategies to judge the validity and reliability of assumptions and sources of information, to make inferences, to evaluate outcomes, to solve problems, and to make informed decisions (Paul, Elder & Bartell, 1997; Halpern, 1999; Pithers & Soden, 2000).

Central to CT are abilities such as analysis, interpretation, evaluation, and making judgment. The Delphi Project report (Facione, 1990) has identified a set of core skills that critical thinkers

are expected to employ: *Interpretation* refers to comprehending the meaning and significance of data; *Analysis* involves the process of identifying ideas and arguments, establishing inferential relationships among statements to convey information, beliefs, judgments; *Evaluation* is the skill of assessing the credibility of information and the validity of the inferential relationships among statements; *Inference* is about gathering concrete evidence to draw logical conclusions; Explanation refers to justifying that one's reasoning is based on evidential, methodological and contextual considerations. Lastly, *Self-regulation* refers to monitoring of one's own reasoning, judgment and when necessary amendment of those processes (Facione, 1990, pp.13-19). A critical thinker can employ the above listed processes effectively and is open-minded, inquisitive, can formulate plausible hypotheses based on questioning and evidence, and draw cautious conclusions (Ennis, 2011b).

Bloom's Taxonomy and Critical Thinking

In 1956, Bloom and his colleagues argued for a more holistic form of education and for that purpose worked on a classification of educational objectives. As a result of this work, they identified three learning domains: cognitive, psychomotor and affective. Cognitive domain refers to knowledge and intellectual skills and consists of six levels including *knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation*. Affective domain on the other hand includes attitudinal domain regarding feelings and emotional operations within which are *receiving, responding, valuing, organization* and *characterization*. Thirdly, psychomotor domain is related to skills-based operations such as manual or physical activities encompassing the levels of *reflex movements, basic fundamental movements, perceptual abilities, skilled movements,* and *non-discursive movements*. Within the scope of the present study, the focus is on the cognitive domain of Bloom's taxonomy.

Based on the widely acknowledged revised version of the taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001), *Remembering* is the first level of cognitive domain that is about knowing common terms, basic concepts and principles and recalling information. The second level in the hierarchy is *Understanding* which refers to comprehending meaning, interpreting, rewriting, stating a problem in your own words. *Applying* is the third level of cognitive domain that involves manipulating or modifying data and drawing graphs, application of gained knowledge into new situations and theories into practical situations. Within the taxonomy, these first three levels are categorized as lower order thinking skills. *Analyzing* is the first level of higher order thinking and the fourth of the cognitive domain. This level describes abilities such as breaking information into parts, differentiating facts and inferences, identifying bias or intent, evaluating information and its relevancy through analyzing, investigating, and explaining. *Evaluating* is the fifth level of the cognitive domain and refers to making informed judgment, critique, and arriving at conclusions or making choices based on reasoned arguments. *Creating* is the highest level of thinking domain that involves putting elements together to form a novel, coherent whole, and to create an original product. In line with the taxonomy, teaching of thinking skills is

described as teaching a set of lower and higher order skills with CT particularly associated with the higher order ones including processes such as interpreting information, establishing cause-effect relations, making inferences and predictions, evaluating outcomes, and problem solving and creativity (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001).

In classrooms, questions asked by both learners and teachers play a key role in the development of CT skills (Savage, 1998; Şeker & Kömür, 2008). Through appropriate questioning strategies that are representative of each level of the taxonomy, and especially for the higher order levels, teachers can engage learners in deep and complex thinking. As Case (2005) argues, teachers should make sure that the questions they formulate do not merely call for regurgitating facts but making judgments and evaluating alternatives to promote CT skills. While teachers can foster deep thinking through a selection of purposeful questions, it is equally important that students are encouraged to formulate their own questions to make sense of any input they are processing. As Paul and Elder (2019, p.64) put it 'thinking is not driven by answers but by questions'.

Integrating Critical Thinking in English Language Teaching

Globally there is growing emphasis on moving away from rote learning towards discovery and inquiry-based learning in education (Pennycook, 1994). Various ways in which CT skills can be integrated in foreign language teaching have been proposed. For example, content-based instruction, particularly using literature as content, is considered an effective way of teaching foreign language skills while enabling the enhancement of critical thinking with the right materials and strategies in the classroom (Lazar, 1993; Tsai & Shang, 2010). In line with the constructivist perspective, problem-based learning in the foreign language classrooms may also challenge learners to make sense of situations through exchanging ideas and information while contributing to the development of students' CT skills and knowledge (Temel, 2014; Şendağ & Odabaşı, 2009).

The development of core skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking are also closely related with the development of CT. One of the skills that learners need to develop is to be able to read and think critically when they are dealing with texts written in English (Bharuthram, 2012; Sato, 2016; Vered, 2016). When reading in the target language, learners can be encouraged to use skimming, scanning strategies, look for main and supporting ideas, and guess meaning from context, compare and contrast texts, distinguish fact from opinion, reflect on meanings, ideology of texts and detect bias. Therefore, they can utilize cognitive skills like inferencing, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating that are key to CT (Facione, 2007). To that purpose, while a wide range of reading texts can be used in classrooms, the use of literary texts has been specifically stressed for their value to stimulate critical thinking (Oster, 1989; Lazar, 1993; Djamàa, 2018).

When language learners are expected to produce an argumentative piece of writing, express their opinions or take part in a debate, they can be encouraged to prepare for such tasks by seeking to be well-informed, using credible sources as their basis for information and argumentation, be open-minded about other points of view and ready to change position when there are good reasons for that (Freeley & Steinberg, 2000; Davies & Barnett, 2015). Likewise, opinion exchange activities or a debate enhances students' critical listening skills as they need to listen to their opponents with great attention, take notes while listening and use limitations in opponents' ideas and phrasing to their advantage to win a debate.

Another way in which students can apply critical thinking is by reflecting on target language and their learning process, which can positively contribute to their foreign language development (Carter, 2004; Tarone, 2005). Learners can reflect on the links between the target language and native language in lexis, syntax, and grammar, identify and use language patterns, use their knowledge of grammar to deduce the meaning of new words and structures, and use appropriate language-learning strategies (Liaw, 2007). Learners can thus monitor their own language development and learning process more effectively.

Teacher Related Studies on Critical Thinking

There has been a growing number of research on both pre – and in-service teachers' CT skills, their conceptualization and implementation of CT. Studies that have examined the CT skills of pre-service teachers from different subject areas have found that they are at a moderate or low level (Özdemir, 2005; Batanieh & Zghoul, 2006; Güven & Kurum, 2008; Şen, 2009; Beşoluk & Önder, 2010; Çetinkaya, 2011; Aktaş & Ünlü, 2013; Coşkun, 2013; Maltepe, 2016). Other studies that have looked at the relationship between pre-service teachers' CT skills and a range of variables have been able to establish certain correlations. For example, Bayat (2014) found a positive correlation between CT tendencies and academic writing skills of 181 pre-service teachers (PTs) from different subject areas, Bökeoğlu and Yılmaz (2015) were able to establish a negative correlation between PTs' CT levels and anxiety levels in relation to conducting research. In addition, several research studies established that pre-service teachers had misconceptions of CT and a limited understanding of how to implement it (Tufan, 2008; Wagley, 2013; Petek & Bedir, 2018).

With regards to in-service teachers, findings indicate limited understanding and ineffective integration of CT in different contexts across the globe. In Gelen's (2002) study with Turkish primary school teachers, although participants perceived themselves quite adequate in promoting thinking skills, the findings suggested that their classroom practices were inadequate. In a study with 80 in-service teachers of physics, Şengül and Üstündağ (2009) found that participants had low level CT tendencies and did not include any activities to develop critical thinking in their teaching. Similarly, Mok's (2009) case study in the Hong Kong context with English language teachers showed that teachers lacked knowledge of skills and techniques to

enhance students' thinking skills and that their questioning was poor, and allowance of wait time was insufficient. In Malaysian higher learning institutions, Choy and Cheah (2009) found that teachers mainly focused on students' comprehension of the subject matter while they perceived themselves to be encouraging CT in their classrooms. In China, Li (2016) also found that teachers had positive attitudes towards integrating thinking skills in their classrooms, yet their knowledge about thinking skills was limited and they lacked appropriate instructional strategies to integrate CT into their pedagogy. As Li (2016, p.286) comments 'if teachers lack both content and pedagogical knowledge, innovation can only stay at the policy level'.

Critical Thinking in the Turkish Context

In the Turkish context, findings from different studies and assessments indicate that Turkish students have low or limited critical thinking skills. PISA exams that aim to measure '15-year-olds' ability to use their reading, mathematics and science knowledge and skills to meet real-life challenges' (oecd.org) have revealed that in 2012 Turkish students' average ranked 41st in reading, 42nd in mathematics and 45th in science out of 65 countries and were below OECD average for each subject area. According to 2015 results, Turkish students performed considerably lower in all areas compared their 2012 averages and overall ranked 44th out of 65 countries. In 2018, Turkey ranked 31st amongst 37 countries. 2018 results indicated an overall improvement in Turkish students' performances, while their averages for all areas remained well below OECD average. For all the assessment years, students who scored level 5 or higher in three areas ranged between 2-5% of all students who sat PISA exams. For higher education in Turkey, results of standardized university entrance tests that are administered nationwide reveal a similar trend. In 2018 around two million students who sat the exam had a mean net of 4 correct answers out of 24 questions based on Turkish language and literature, and a mean net of 4 out of 40 questions in Mathematics (Önal & Erişen, 2019). Overall, Turkish students' poor performances on tests that measure thinking skills from a lower to higher level spectrum indicate that rote learning is still dominant in classrooms which causes students to struggle with higher-level thinking processes (Sağlam & Büyükuysal, 2013; Önal & Erişen, 2019).

Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) have identified CT as a basic skill in its 2006 and 2015 curriculum documents (Aytan, 2016), and as a fundamental skill for the 21st Century in its 2018 policy document (MoNE, 2018). While MoNE in Turkey asserts integration of CT skills within all subject areas, little is known about EFL teachers' conceptions of CT and views of enhancing students' CT in EFL classrooms in Turkey. Considering the impact of teachers beliefs' and views' on their instructional practices and decision-making (Borg, 2006), it is useful to explore EFL teachers' views on the subject so that appropriate support at various levels such as curriculum and material development, pre – and in-service training frameworks can be developed appropriately and effectively. To that end, the following research questions were formulated:

1. How do Turkish in-service teachers of English as a foreign language conceptualize critical thinking?

2. What are these teachers' self-reported instructional practices about integrating CT skills?

3. What are these teachers' views about challenges they and their students face in CT integration and application?

Methodology

Participants

Twenty-five Turkish in-service teachers of English as a foreign language participated in the present study on a voluntary basis. For data collection, convenience sampling method was used. When the data were collected, participant teachers were working at nineteen different practicum schools in partnership with Department of English Language Teaching (ELT) of a state university in Istanbul, Turkey. The practicum partnership involved elementary, secondary or high schools, which were either state schools under the supervision of MoNE or private schools run by foundations.

Senior pre-service teachers (PTs) of the department were asked to hand out a survey to their mentor teachers at the English language teaching department in their practicum schools. Twenty-five teachers out of 120 returned the surveys to the researchers. Teachers have been assigned with numbers herein.

Data Collection Tool and Procedure

Data collection tool for this study was a Critical Thinking (CT) survey constructed by the researchers. It consisted of fifteen questions four of which targeted at collecting demographic information about participant teachers. The remaining eleven open-ended questions aimed at collecting information about the teachers' conceptualization of CT, their integration of CT into their classroom practice, and views regarding the challenges they and their students experience in integrating and applying CT.

Data were collected from in-service teachers via the abovementioned survey in the Fall semester of 2019-2020 academic year.

Data Analysis

Data collected from the CT surveys were analyzed using content analysis technique (Weber, 1990). Responses of the participants were classified into codes in terms of the purpose of the study. After suitable codes were identified, the data were systematically reanalyzed to identify examples of each code, which can be tallied. Quantitative counts and frequencies of

the codes allowed the researchers to interpret data more meaningfully. Then, similar codes were gathered into more conceptual categories. To ensure consistency and inter – rater reliability, both researchers coded the data separately and compared their categories. For that comparison, following Miles and Huberman's (1994) inter-rater formula, each rater's coding was grouped into 'agree' and 'disagree' categories. When the reliability formula (reliability = number of agreement/total number of agreement + disagreement x 100) was applied, reliability co-efficiency was found to be .89. The consistency level was high as the raters grouped similar codes under similar categories.

Results

Demographic Information

When demographics of the twenty-five participant in-service teachers were examined, it was seen that more than half of them graduated from ELT departments (17/25) while the remaining teachers (6/25) graduated from English or American Literature departments and two of them held TEFL/TESOL certification. Out of 25 teachers, two of them held MA degree in Educational Management or Linguistics. While 14 out of 25 participants worked at state-run schools, 11 worked at private schools. More than half of them (17/25) worked at secondary level and the rest (8/25) worked at elementary level. Ten out of 25 teachers can be considered novice with one to five years of teaching experience whereas the remaining 15 teachers are experienced ones with teaching experience ranging from six to 34 years. The table below summarizes the demographic information about the participating teachers (see Table 1).

Table 1

Demographic information of the teachers

University graduation	*N*
ELT	17
Philology	6
TEFL/TESOL	2
School administration	***N***
MoNE	14
Private	11
School type	***N***
Elementary	8
Secondary	17
Teaching Experience	***N***
Novice	10
Experienced	15

N = number of teachers

Teachers were also asked whether or not they received any training on CT and its integration into their pedagogy. As shown in the table below, eight of the teachers (six experienced and two novice) did not receive any training on CT integration whereas the remaining 17 teachers stated that they received training. Nine out of these 17 teachers did not identify whether they received pre-service and/or in-service training although the options were provided to them. When remaining teachers' responses were analyzed, it was seen that three teachers received in-service training on CT integration, four teachers received pre – service training, and one teacher received training at both levels.

Table 2

Training on CT integration

	N
No training	8
Training but unidentified	9
Training at pre-service level	4
Training at in-service level	3
Training at both levels	1
Total 25	

N= number of teachers

Conceptualization of Critical Thinking

To explore how the participating teachers conceptualize CT, they were asked to define it. Also, within their conceptualization of CT, teachers were asked to elaborate on the MoNE policies and coursebooks they used as these can be potentially influential factors in the teachers' conceptualization and implementation of CT.

None of the teachers left the definition question empty, all of them giving extended definitions. The provided definitions demonstrated that teachers had varied and fragmented understandings of CT. "Thinking clearly, independently, efficiently, and rationally" was the most repeated definition in teachers' answers, with seven mentions. "Understanding logical connections between ideas" was the following predominant definition with four mentions. "Analyzing the subject objectively" or "analytical method of thinking used in decision making" was the equally repeated definition by teachers, with again four mentions. "Asking questions and wondering, making research" or "asking questions, being curious and being not satisfied with what is taught at school" was another definition mentioned by teachers three times (see Table 3).

Table 3

Definition of CT

Definition	Times mentioned
Thinking clearly	7
Understanding logical connections between ideas	4
Analyzing the subject objectively	4
Asking questions	3

Few teachers identified key elements for CT such as thinking involved in problem solving as in "ability to use logic to solve a problem" (T17); formulating inferences as in "asking questions to understand something beyond the obvious meaning" (T3); and evaluating as in "evaluation of an issue in order to form a judgment" (T2). The definition by T14 is a rare comprehensive one to illustrate the issue:

> "Reading between the lines, inferencing clues, analyzing/questioning new information and synthesizing with the help of verifiable, reliable data".

As seen, limited number of the teachers mentioned higher order thinking skills such as "analysis" and "evaluation" in their descriptions. These are in fact Bloom's Taxonomy level descriptors but none of the teachers referred to the taxonomy. Only one teacher used the term "higher order thinking skills" in his definition without elaborating on it. Interestingly, none of the teachers mentioned "creativity" in their definitions. Furthermore, when teachers' definitions were compared to the core skills reported in the Delphi Project, the definitions lacked emphasis on "explanation", which is reasoning based on concrete evidence and methodological facts, and "self-regulation", which is constant self-monitoring one's reasoning and judgment. Open-mindedness was another untouched aspect in teachers' definitions although it is an indispensable characteristic of a critical thinker. Although participating teachers articulated some true characteristics of CT, the definitions lacked clarity and wholeness. Each teacher mentioned only one or two traits of CT. None of the teachers were able to provide a thorough and multidimensional definition.

The participant teachers worked at either MoNE or private schools. In Turkey, both school administrations are accredited by and follow the MoNE principles and regulations. It is assumed that the extent of the teachers' awareness and knowledge about the current policies of MoNE regarding CT could be an influential factor in the teachers' conceptualization of CT. When asked, more than half of the participants (13/25) said that they did not know anything about the current policies of MoNE about CT. Two teachers expressed that MoNE did not do anything to integrate CT in their policy.

Remaining ten teachers said that MoNE had started to pay attention to CT integration. They said that the books published and the exams prepared by MoNE included different questions expecting students to find different ideas about topics, activities encouraging students' self-improvement including observation and experiment, and lesson plans integrating criticism and evaluation. One teacher expressed his opinion as follows:

> "The system is changing in terms of CT. Two-three years ago, we used to have exams which were mostly based on multiple choice questions and these questions used to try to examine one specific kind of knowledge… Recently, the policies have changed and the questions in the exams are putting pressure on students in terms of CT. Students are now expected to understand paragraphs, relate the ideas and find the most

appropriate answer. We still have a long way, but these attempts are encouraging students to think critically." (T15)

The teachers were asked to state the textbook types and materials they used at their schools and then comment on the CT integration in the textbooks and materials. Less than half of the teachers (10/25) reported that they used textbooks prepared by private publication companies whereas only two teachers used textbooks prepared by MoNE for instruction at school. Six teachers used both publications. Remaining teachers used multiple sources; i.e., textbooks prepared by the school itself (2/25); textbooks prepared by the school itself and private publication (2/25); materials prepared and compiled by himself (1/25); materials prepared by himself and private publication (1/25); and all types of materials except for the MoNE ones (1/25) (see Table 4).

Table 4

Textbooks used by the teachers

Textbook prepared by	*N*
MoNE	2
Private publication	10
Both	6
Other	7
Total	25

N = number of teachers

When their comments were asked, almost half of the teachers (12/25) reported that the materials they used in teaching English had sufficient amount of CT integration and the rest (11/25) said that CT integration in materials was limited. The remaining two teachers reported that there was no CT integration in the materials they used. Out of these two teachers, one used materials prepared by private publication companies whereas the other used self – prepared materials as seen in Table 5.

Table 5

Textbooks used by the teachers

	N
Sufficient CT integration	12
Limited CT integration	11
No CT integration	2
Total	25

N= number of teachers

The teachers then were asked to give examples about how the materials they used helped encourage students' CT skills, if applicable. They gave similar responses. Most teachers (14/25) gave examples such as "games and activities, pictures and texts with a lot of questions" in vague terms. They reported that 'activities' made students 'think in detail' or 'indulge in unlimited

thinking'. The process of thinking or how thinking is achieved with what type of questions was not stated clearly.

Few teachers (5/25) defined materials as the ones that make students "solve problems, evaluate solutions, create solutions, see different situations/options, analyze what they learned before" but they did not provide concrete examples. These verbs were left without evidence and support.

Limited number of teachers (4/25) emphasized "student-centeredness" in materials such as requiring students "to use unique experience and perspective, to achieve specific points themselves without teacher's support, to figure out their needs and strengths".

Only two teachers described how the materials help encourage CT in detail:

> "When approaching a text, it gets students to ask questions about authors, their motivation for writing, encourages students to draw conclusions about characters/ reading between the lines/encouraging creative responses." (T5) "Students question, find out ideas (make connections), think about reason and result, learn how to respect and take other people's opinions into account." (T9)

To sum up, teachers were not able to provide a sound and accurate definition of CT although they had high perceptions of the concept. None of the teachers left this question empty. As for MoNE policies, more than half of the teachers (13/25) were unaware of the policies, which can stem from either the frequent changes of the ministers or the ministry policies. Teachers used varying teaching materials published by MoNe, private publication companies, both, or self-prepared materials. Almost half of the teachers (12/25) thought their ELT materials integrated CT to a sufficient degree while others (11/25) thought ELT materials achieved this to a limited degree or not at all (2/25). Teachers failed to provide clear examples of activities and the way in which those could encourage critical thinking. When commenting about materials, only a few teachers referred to processes that involve higher order thinking like establishing cause-effect relations, inferring, focusing on different perspectives and problem solving. Activities were mostly named without establishing how they would be utilized to promote CT.

Self-Reported Practices

In addition to the activities integrated in the materials that the teachers used, the teachers were also asked to share their comments on the activities that they themselves used. More specifically, they were asked to elaborate on how these activities promoted and encouraged their students' CT skills. Almost all the teachers mentioned a variety of activity and technique names without any elaboration on them. Asking open-ended questions or questions about a picture or a text that already exists in the textbook was the most frequently mentioned teaching technique to encourage CT skills. It was followed by debates and discussions. They

were undefined and were only provided as key words without any details. Likewise, projects and assignments, the third mostly mentioned activity type, were neither defined nor described in detail. Problem solving activities and games followed projects with three mentions each. The activity types including the seldom mentioned ones are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Activities and tasks teachers use to encourage students' CT skills

Activities and/or tasks	Times mentioned
Questions	12
Debates (undefined)	8
Projects (undefined), assignments (undefined)	7
Problem solving activities	3
Games	3
Mind maps	2
Peer collaboration	2
Peer assessment	2
Jigsaw activities	1
Role plays	1

As seen, almost all of the teachers just provided generic names but did not express how these activities contributed to CT development or why these activities were preferred as CT-related ones. Only three teachers elaborated on the activities instead of giving activity names as umbrella terms. They said that in the classroom they used activities, which encouraged students to think freely in a detailed way; to find the answers themselves; and to make connections between the topic and their own lives. Instead of activity names, three other teachers shared their question types such as "What would you do if you experienced this? In your opinion? Agree? Disagree?" Even though limited number of teachers tried to elaborate on how the activities improved students' CT skills by stating their questions, these questions were not supported by procedural evidence. How these questions triggered CT-oriented activities was not explained.

One other teacher neither gave the activity name nor the elaboration but he described what he did in the class as follows:

> "Mostly, I talk about some different kinds of situations and I leave them alone thinking and choosing the thing that they want. Also, they produce some solutions for problems. Then, we will be able to discuss about the topic and evaluate the thinking process. I make them notice that they can talk about everything they want but it's not a must to decide who is right." (T23)

This specific teacher's language sounded a teacher-centered one, again lacking the steps of an ongoing process of CT promotion.

When teachers were asked how often they based their questioning strategies in a way to encourage their students' CT skills, the same number of teachers said that they sometimes or frequently formed their questions to encourage CT skills (see Table 7).

Table 7

Frequency of teachers' questioning strategy based on CT

	N
Not really	1
Sometimes	10
Frequently	10
Always	4
Total	25

N = number of teachers

Furthermore, the teachers then were asked to give examples of the questions that they asked students to promote their higher order skills and CT. Twenty-three out of 25 teachers answered this question and provided various sample question types. The most commonly mentioned question type was asking students 'why?' to prompt them to provide further explanations for their answers. The second common question type was 'what is the cause/reason of…?'. That question type was followed by 'what do you think about…?' which invites students to express opinions on a topic or an issue, and 'do you agree or disagree with…?' which expects students to commit to an opinion. A significant number of teachers also included factual recall or understanding questions in their lists. Teachers included 'define…', 'explain in your own words…', 'is this correct or not?', 'what is…?' A few teachers also listed questions they used like 'what would you do in the same situation?', 'what would happen if…?' 'what is the main idea of the text?' to encourage higher thinking. One teacher wrote about a process that involved students writing a story without an ending, then exchanging stories with a peer and writing an ending to their peer's story.

None of the teachers gave problem-solution, compare-contrast, cause-effect type question examples and only one included creativity type question example in their answers. Three teachers listed self-evaluation questions such as 'what do I need to improve?', 'what went well?' which are noteworthy but irrelevant as the teachers were asked to provide examples of questions related to their own teaching and implementation process.

To wrap up, teachers gave activity names in broad classifications without further detail. Questions that they used to improve CT skills were limited to the textbook material in hand. Students were encouraged to 'think in a detailed way' but how this is achieved was not refined. Only four teachers reported that they 'always' used CT developing questions. The rest of the teachers (21/25) saw it as something to implement from time to time, but not central to their instruction. Most of the questioning strategies reflected higher order thinking skills (HOTS), which indicated that teachers were able to construct these questions. However, they also gave a remarkable number of questions reflecting lower order thinking skills. Questions that

promote lower order thinking skills are also necessary as they form the foundation of CT but they are insufficient in themselves for CT promotion.

Challenges Related to Critical Thinking Integration

In order to understand the challenges teachers and students face, teachers were first of all asked to comment on whether and to what degree they believed their students could apply CT. Most of the teachers (10/25) thought that their students were 'sometimes' able to apply CT and seven teachers thought their students could 'frequently' apply CT. Seven of the teachers responded that their students were 'not really' able to apply CT. The table below summarizes the results (see Table 8).

Table 8

Students' frequency of CT application

	N
Not really	7
Sometimes	10
Frequently	7
Always	1
Total	25

N = number of teachers

Teachers were then asked to state what challenges them in CT integration during instruction. Nineteen out of 25 teachers answered this question. Teachers showed the tendency of relating the challenges they faced to external factors. According to teachers, students were the primary factor that hindered their CT implementation. In particular, students' unwillingness to participate and lack of interest in the CT-bound lessons were highlighted as factors that negatively impacted teachers' CT integration (11 mentions). The teachers said that their students did not want to give answers to CT oriented questions, that they avoided thinking analytically and critically, and that they imitated their classmates instead of creating new ideas. The main reason for this, in the teachers' opinion, was that the students were not accustomed to CT-based activities. Other factors that teachers mentioned were traditional textbooks designed around teacher-centered methodology (seven mentions), and time constraints with the pressure to cover the syllabus (six mentions). Two teachers also mentioned students' low proficiency level as a challenge for CT integration (see Table 9). None of the teachers mentioned any limitations or challenges related to their own skills in CT integration.

Table 9

Challenges that teachers face in CT integration

Challenges	Times mentioned
Students' reluctance	11
Teacher-centered textbooks	7
Time constraints	6
Students' low proficiency level	2

Moreover, teachers were asked to state the challenges they thought their students faced in applying CT. Four teachers did not answer this question while the remaining 21 teachers stated several different challenge types. When the teachers' answers were analyzed, students' not being accustomed to CT was the most frequently mentioned challenge (12 mentions). Teachers stated that students were used to traditional teaching methods. For the teachers, starting with mother tongue and earlier years of education, the students had the habit of being spoon-fed, teacher-centered methodology and rote learning. Students' unfamiliarity with CT oriented activities caused them "to choose the easy way to reach the end" (T19) and students "not to think. They just want the answers." (T20). Students' low proficiency level and lack of topical knowledge were mentioned three times. For teachers, when students did not have background information about the topic, they preferred not to participate in CT related activities, but rather just answered understanding and remembering questions.

Speaking anxiety and the size of classroom followed this, mentioned twice and once, respectively (see Table 10).

Table 10

Challenges that students face in CT application

Challenges	Times mentioned
Unfamiliarity with CT	12
Lack of topical knowledge	3
Low proficiency level	3
Speaking anxiety	2
Size of classroom	1

To wind up, students' application of CT showed parallelism to that of teachers' as both parties reportedly 'sometimes' used CT skills and strategies. Furthermore, the teachers listed students' unwillingness to get involved in activities that require higher order thinking as the biggest challenge in the integration phase. According to the teachers, students' unfamiliarity with the CT integrated methodology was the most dominant challenge in the application phase. In the teachers' views, students were passive because they had not been exposed to this methodology since the early years of their education life.

Discussion and Implications

A number of key issues emerged from the data analysis in the present study. The first one is related to the teachers' understanding of the concept of CT. This study showed that participating English language teachers in Turkey defined CT in a fragmented way with expressions such as 'thinking clearly' or 'understanding logical connections' failing to address a thorough conceptualization, in line with findings of Li (2016) and Stapleton (2011). Half of the teachers did not think the textbooks they used to teach English integrated CT sufficiently, while the other half thought there was sufficient integration but were not able to describe or

exemplify this integration in explicit terms. Moreover, the number of teachers that received training in their undergraduate or in-service years was limited. Although teachers seemed to conceptualize CT in their own ways, the lack of training can be the reason for the fragmented and non-congruent definitions. Therefore, there is a strong case for arguing for both pre – and in-service teacher training, based on well-established standards, supported by evidence of research, and reinforced with high quality, to develop CT integration. In addition, such training should be tailored according to the subject area and consider contextual factors, teachers' and learners' needs in order to make a difference (Williams, 2005; Petek & Bedir, 2018).

Teachers will not be able to increase their knowledge and confidence without assistance and guidance. More than half of the participant teachers pointed out their lack of knowledge about the current policies of MoNE regarding CT, which is not a desired outcome. As Stapleton (2011) suggests the curricula should clearly illustrate the types of instruction and questions that support CT. Moreover, continuing professional development activities and in – service training programs can be regularly organized by education authorities of MoNE to enlighten and to update the practicing teachers. Teachers can attend these seminars to be updated about the continual changes in MoNE policies, CT and other 21st century skills and developments. These activities can be backed up with some workshops organized by teacher trainers working at departments of ELT with their partner schools to show the hands-on practice of promoting CT in language classrooms. This could lead to more tailored and context-sensitive provision of training for in-service teachers. For the same purpose, online discussion platforms can be established by schools for teachers so that teachers can exchange their ideas, experiences, practices with each other. MoNE can give technical support to these nationwide platforms, which can be freely used as a resource and data bank for all teachers.

Second, the study points out that all the teachers welcomed the idea of integrating CT in their language classrooms as they reported. However, when the teachers were asked to report the activity types and questioning strategies they used to promote CT, they listed some overall activity names but they did not really emphasize how and why these specific activities gauge understanding and encourage higher order thinking. Only four teachers 'always' integrated CT in their classrooms and most of their students 'sometimes' applied CT. To that purpose, the teachers mainly used additional referential and display questions to supplement the questions found in textbooks. The question examples the teachers provided indicated that they fostered higher thinking through a narrow range of analysis and evaluation type of questioning strategies such as asking 'why?' and 'what would you do?'. These findings related to the limited practices of teachers are consistent with those of other studies (Mok, 2009; Şengül & Üstündağ, 2009; Li, 2016). Hence, customized professional development programs as discussed above can be organized so that teachers get support as to how they can prepare specific materials and activities to promote CT (Petek & Bedir, 2018). With question examples that the teachers listed, one further finding was that only one teacher gave a sample question emphasizing the "creating" aspect of CT as defined by the revised version of Bloom's taxonomy. This is interesting because the ability to put forward a novel product through creative thinking is a

core skill as indicated both in Bloom's Taxonomy and the Delphi Project. It is also one of the most important and useful skills in the 21st century. Sadly, the teachers did not acknowledge it as part of their instructional practices. This and the above mentioned findings are consistent with Turkish students' poor PISA exam performances in higher level thinking, and previous studies that found rote-learning is common in Turkish classrooms which causes students to struggle with higher level thinking processes (Sağlam & Büyükuysal, 2013; Önal & Erişen, 2019).

Finally, the teachers in the study pointed out the challenges that they faced in CT integration and their students faced in CT application. The biggest challenge for the teachers in CT integration was the students' unwillingness to participate in higher-order thinking activities. The teachers believed that traditional textbooks and pressure of class time because of the squashed curriculum were other challenges for their CT integration. This finding is consistent with that of Choy and Cheah (2009) and Li (2016). The reported challenges of the students were associated with mainly their unfamiliarity with CT incorporated lessons, followed by their inadequacy about the topic being discussed in class and their low English proficiency. In the teachers' viewpoints, all the challenges stemmed from externally driven factors. Teachers can be trained to self-reflect and self-evaluate themselves so that they can at least consider teacher-related drawbacks as well.

The present study has a number of limitations: the number of participants was small, all participants worked at K12 level, and data were based on self-reports. These yield several ideas for further research. A similar study can be conducted with a larger population size working at K12 or higher levels. Furthermore, there may or may not be discrepancies between what the teachers reported in the CT surveys and what they actually do in their classrooms. Therefore, follow-up classroom observations can be conducted to observe teachers' teaching practices over a period of time. In relation to the non-participant observations, stimulated recall protocols can be carried out with the teachers. In addition to classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews, focus group interviews with a smaller group of volunteering teachers can be conducted to have in-depth understanding of teachers' conception and practice of CT integration.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study aimed at exploring how Turkish in-service teachers of English as a foreign language conceptualize CT and perceive to promote it in their classrooms. The study also tried to find out the challenges that the teachers and their students encounter along the way. The abovementioned results and implications can be of interest to educational authorities working in MoNE and other policymakers trying to improve English language education in Turkey, particularly related to efforts involving curriculum design and successful adoption of policies. The results can also be useful for teacher trainers at departments of ELT who are willing to collaborate with teachers at K12 schools and offer subject-specific tailored training.

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Learning Through a Reciprocal Peer Observation Experience: Perspectives of EFL Instructors and Professional Development Unit Head at a Private University

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Abstract

This study investigated how four EFL instructors and the head of professional development unit in the preparatory school of a private university evaluated a reciprocal peer observation of teaching process (POT) in terms of its contribution to their teaching practices. The analysis of qualitative data collected through peer-observation forms, post observation discussions, reflective journals, and interviews conducted at the end of the process revealed that reciprocal POT has significant benefits to offer for the professional development of instructors having the role of an observee and observer, and for the institution. The study also has important implications for the future planning and implementation of POT process both in this institution and in similar higher education contexts considering the perspectives and suggestions of those involved in this process.

Keywords: peer observation of teaching, reciprocal peer observation, professional development unit, higher education, EFL instructors

Introduction

Teaching is a complex cognitive process. What makes it even more complex is teachers' constant need to improve or expand their professional knowledge to increase their teaching

Author Note

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quality. A considerable amount of work has shown the importance of professional development for teachers and the most effective activities and tools that support it (Cosh, 1999; Farrell, 1999; Freeman, 1982; Harris et al., 2008; Lomas & Kinchin, 2006; Munson, 1998; Peel, 2005). As research provides ample evidence for the role of collegial interaction, collaboration, and observation in such activities (Saroyan & Amundsen, 2001; Shortland, 2004), institutions encourage their instructors more for observational practices to enhance their teachings (Peel, 2005).

Observation of teaching has been used for decades as a significant tool for professional development (Blase & Blase, 2006; Bozak, 2018; Freeman, 1982; Gosling, 2005; McMahon et al., 2007). Briefly, it is to observe the teaching practices of a colleague and get observed by a colleague to give and receive feedback on the pre-determined aspects of teaching (Eraut, 1995). Over the years, it has been classified into different types: Some have focused on the way it is implemented and classified it as directive supervision, self-help explorative supervision, supervisory observation, peer coaching, and peer observation (Gebhard, 1984; Munson, 1998). Some others, on the other hand, have focused on their aims and classified the models of observation as evaluative, developmental, and collaborative (Cosh, 1998; Gosling, 2002).

Evaluative models of observation (e.g. supervisory observation) is mainly implemented for managerial purposes with the involvement of a senior manager or an academic staff to ensure that the teaching practices comply with the standards of the program. Despite its popularity in 1960s, it is not preferred today due to its explicit judgemental nature (Munson, 1998; Yiend et al., 2014). It is usually perceived to be an assessment tool that threatens instructors emotionally rather than a professional development tool (Çağlar, 2013; Harris et al., 2008). The developmental and collaborative models, on the other hand, are less judgemental, formative and collegial in nature. Developmental models (e.g. peer coaching) involve an educational expert or an experienced teacher observing novice or pre-service teachers to give them support, suggestions, and immediate feedback on their teaching practices (Ackland, 1991; Bowman & McCormick, 2000). Even though this developmental model of observation is useful for training purposes, it has also been criticised on the grounds that it is more evaluative than cooperative (Blase & Blase, 2006; Çağlar, 2013).

However, in collaborative peer review models, namely peer observation of teaching (POT), colleagues with a shared knowledge of a discipline observe each other in a reciprocal manner. Such an observation in which observer and observee are equal partners is acknowledged to offer more benefits for the improvement of teaching than the other models (Bozak, 2018; Richards & Farrell, 2005). First, voluntary participation of colleagues with mutual trust fosters the dissemination of good practice through discussions and self – development through personal reflection (Cosh, 1998; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). As peer observation naturally involves dialogue and reflection on teaching practices thanks to its cyclic nature that includes the steps of pre-observation, observation and post-observation, it encourages teachers to interact and collaborate with each other not only during the observation, but also before and after the observation (Martin & Double, 1998; Yiend et al., 2014). Second, even though the information

shared during the observations stay confidential, teachers sometimes feel nervous about being observed by an outsider (Cosh, 1999; Norrish, 1996). Especially when the observations are held for administrative reasons, teachers may develop a negative attitude, which limits the expected positive outcome of observation procedure (Richards & Lockhart, 1992; Shortland, 2010). Therefore, in order to demolish the anxiety of being observed and improve self-efficacy, it is suggested that teachers should be part of this process both as an observer and an observee (Blase & Blase, 2006; Cosh, 1999; Hendry & Oliver, 2012; Lomas & Kinchin, 2006; McMahon et al., 2007; Peel, 2005). Third, POT has more benefits to offer to the institutions as it creates a sharing environment for teachers in which they develop institutional identity and feel valuable (Cosh, 1999; Lomas & Kinchin, 2006; McMahon et al., 2007; Peel, 2005). Hence, unlike evaluative or judgemental observations led by an administrative agent, a senior academic or an educational expert, POT becomes a powerful tool of sharing insights (Bell, 2005), and of mutual development (Richards & Farrell, 2005) in a less threatening and more motivating way (Fletcher, 2018; Gosling, 2005).

However, like all types of observation, POT is subject to limitations. Kohut et al. (2007) documented that lecturers involved in peer observation in a higher education institution were not comfortable in making critical comments on their colleagues' teaching practices, which raised the doubt in the contribution of peer observation to the development of critical reflection in teachers. In a sense, the success of POT implementations can be affected by the capacity of teachers to evaluate the practices of other teachers with a critical perspective (Cosh, 1998). To eliminate this factor, instructors' training on peer observation can be inevitable as often suggested in the literature.

Research on POT Implementations

POT implementations and their benefits within the context of higher education have been documented from the perspectives of stakeholders including staff members, administrators, and coordinators in a variety of programs and departments in different contexts (eg. Bell & Cooper, 2013, in an engineering program, and Bell & Mladenovic, 2015, in the Business School of a university in Australia; Byrne et al., 2010, at a department in a university in the South of England; Santos, 2017, in an extensive language school in ESL context in Hong Kong, etc.). University lecturers in a study conducted by Hendry and Oliver (2012) stated that while they learned new strategies of teaching and tactics by watching their peers, seeing them use the same techniques they used affirmed their self-efficacy. The lecturers thought receiving feedback on their practices was useful, but not more beneficial than what they observed in a peer teaching.

Research studies on peer observation in university setting in Turkish EFL context are rather limited. While a few of them involved the use of observation models with pre-service teachers to see the impact of peer observation on prospective teachers' self-efficacy, instructional skills,

and language teaching skills (Göker, 2006; Yüksel, 2011), a few were conducted with in-service teachers observing each other for professional development purposes. For instance, in an action research Yeşilbursa (2009) investigated how three university ELT instructors improved their teaching practices through peer observation and reflective journals. Their involvement in this process both as an observer and observee allowed them to make discoveries about their teachings and provided them with an alternative perspective to solve their problems. Similarly, in her study with seven EFL instructors, Gökmen (2014) found that POT and collaborative action research contributed to reflectivity.

In a study by Çağlar (2013) ELT teachers, coordinator, and head of professional development unit found POT a beneficial and desirable activity for the institution. However, the study highlighted the importance of voluntary participation, peer cycles, and training before observations as issues to be handled in peer observations and suggested a model for POT implementation. Finally, Trotman (2015) who had 24 teachers observe each other concluded that peer observation was a highly qualified strategy for professional development realized in a less-hierarchical manner.

Academic staff in many universities go through a peer observation of teaching each academic year (Byrne et al., 2010). In other words, POT has increasingly become a practice in higher education institutions in many contexts, but this is not the case in Turkey despite the studies on POT initiatives mentioned above. Therefore, the present study was designed to pilot larger-scale peer observations planned to be used by the Professional Development Unit (PDU) of a private university as regular practices to sustain teaching quality. Reciprocal peer observations were designed and implemented for the purpose of the study, and evaluated from the perspectives of PDU head and EFL instructors involved in the process both as an observer and an observee. More specifically, the following questions were addressed in this case study:

1. What did EFL instructors gain from engagement in the reciprocal peer observation of teaching process as an observer?
2. What did they gain from this process as an observee?
3. How does the head of PDU perceive the contribution of POT process to instructors' teaching practices?

Method

Setting

The study was conducted at the preparatory school of a private, English-medium university in Istanbul. The preparatory programme aimed to develop competent and autonomous users of English language, and offered courses at four proficiency levels, namely A1 (Elementary), A2 (Pre-intermediate), B1 (Intermediate) and B2 (Upper-intermediate), designed based on the

Common European Framework (CEFR) outputs. Each level had eight – week modules in which students were offered skills-based and grammar courses 25 hours a week.

Preparatory program had five units with different responsibilities: Curriculum and Material Development Unit, Testing Unit, Digital Support Unit, Student and Instructors' Affairs Unit, and Professional Development Unit. The PDU had been recently established to provide instructors with in-service trainings on a variety of issues (e.g. classroom management, effective lesson preparation etc.), and to arrange peer observations throughout the year. Although the institution had a tradition of making formal observations in which the coordinator observed the instructors for appraisal in the past, the PDU aimed to replace such evaluative observations with more collaborative peer observation of teachings.

Participants

The participants of the study were four English language instructors and the head of professional development unit, all with L1 Turkish background. These instructors who got involved in POT both as an observer and an observee were nominated out of 30 instructors as a result of a series of formal observations made by the PDU head and the coordinator. Then their informed consent was obtained to participate in the study. These instructors were teaching young adult learners at A2 and B1 levels for 20 hours a week.

Instructors were given pseudonym names to provide anonymity. Melda was a 30-year old English instructor with nine years of teaching experience. She graduated from the department of American Studies and participated in a European funded project on intercultural communication as a project coordinator upon her graduation. After the completion of the project, she began her career in education and had Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA). She has been working at the current program as an instructor since 2015, and teaching skills and grammar courses at various levels. At the time of data collection, she was teaching a class with 24 students at A2 level.

Beril was 26-year old English instructor with a BA degree in ELT and with two years of teaching experience. At the time of data collection, she was teaching grammar course at a class with 23 students at B1 level.

Müge, who was at the age of 32, received her BA degree in English Language and Literature. She had seven years of teaching experience in various high schools. She has been working in the current institution for about a year and teaching grammar-based courses to a class with 20 students at A2 level.

Yeliz, who was at the age of 30, held a BA degree in ELT and an MA degree in Creative Drama in Education. She had worked in various private institutions as an instructor and coordinator for 11 years. She has been working at the current institution for five years and teaching skills and grammar courses to a class with 23 students at B1 level.

The head of PDU had started to work as an instructor at the beginning of the Fall semester and been appointed as the head of professional development unit established in response to an emerging need to support teachers' professional development for the accreditation process. Holding her BA and MA degrees in English Language and Literature, she had seven years of experience as an instructor and group head at another university. Before getting appointed to this position at the current institution after two years of teaching, she was sent to attend a short-term in-service training programme on teacher training held by Cambridge University.

Procedure

Choosing Observation Themes for Pot Implementations

For peer observation to be beneficial as a professional development tool, teachers need to be aware of possible aspects of teaching to get focused during the lessons to be able to give each other effective feedback. Therefore, determination of the focus of observation had been an essential stage not only for this research study but also for the PDU that aimed to train all instructors on the process of POT in the long-run after this study.

For this purpose, the coordinator, the PDU head, and all of the instructors came together to discuss the needs of the prep program from the perspectives of all stakeholders in line with CEFR outcomes. Instructors were also asked to complete a form with two open-ended questions prepared by PDU head to find out how they would define a good language classroom and a qualified teaching process. Their responses included aspects of teaching that were initially classified under the themes of the *organization of lesson, presentation of lesson, teaching approach and aids, student response, and general observation of the current lesson.*

The observability of these themes were checked in pilot observations of two non – participant instructors by the coordinator, the PDU head, and the first researcher who also worked in this unit before. The piloting showed that the aspects of teaching to observe under these themes were not clear to the observers. Therefore, these initial themes were revised by the researchers in collaboration with the PDU head and in reference with the literature to create a more useful tool for POT implementations. Based on the themes of classroom observation tasks suggested by Wajnryb (1992), the observation focus was defined by the themes of *a) engaging learners, b) learning, c) lesson structure, d) teaching techniques*, and *e) resources and materials*. After the discussion of what each involves, four instructors, not the actual participants of the study, were randomly selected to pilot these themes in a session of peer observation. Hence, the final scheme was approved by the coordinator and the PDU head.

Development of a Shared Understanding

Next stage was a two-hour training session with participating instructors to develop a shared understanding of the meanings and definitions of these themes.

Engaging learner was defined as the active participation and the readiness level of the students for learning. It involved the sub-themes of active involvement *(Are students engaged actively?)*, student interest *(Are students interested?)*, feedback *(Do students receive effective feedback?)*, critical thinking skills of the learners, and communication *(Are they encouraged for communication and critical thinking?)*.

Learning was defined by the factors affecting students' learning in the classroom (*What kind of learning environment does the teacher create, controlled/ or relaxed? Is environment appropriate to achieve the objectives? Does teacher monitor student learning effectively? Does teacher provide scaffolding?*).

Lesson structure focused on how teachers planned and organized their lessons. It included the subthemes of timing, sequencing, planning, and transition *(How is the lesson organized / sequenced? Does teacher allocate enough time for the activities? Does teacher use individual, pair and group work activities effectively? Does teacher make smooth transitions between the activities?)*

Teaching techniques included the sub-themes of teacher instructions, error correction, connections, teacher talking time (TTT), and asking questions. As part of this theme, the following questions were directed to create a clear and better understanding; *Are instructions clear and appropriate to the age and the proficiency level of the students? Does teacher use effective error correction techniques? How much does teacher talk? Does teacher ask any questions during the lesson to evaluate the understanding of the learners?*

The final theme, *the resources and materials*, included the use of course book, classroom aids like smart board, extra materials, and technology in classes during a lesson. Questions to guide observation were; *Is technology used effectively in the class? Does teacher use supplementary material effectively? and Does teacher use course book effectively?*

At the end of the training session, participants explained their understanding of each theme to make sure a shared understanding was achieved through the discussions.

POT Implementations

After the development of observation scheme, participants' reciprocal observation schedule was planned during the last module of the Spring semester considering their teaching hours. Their weekly teaching workloads were reduced to 20 hours by the coordinator so they could have time for peer observations. Each of four instructors became observing partners for six weeks as shown in Table 1 and made a total of 24 hours of observation. The feedback was given and taken through post-discussions and reflective journals were kept twice a week.

Table 1

Peer Observation Cycle

Time	Observee	Observer
Week 1-2	Beril	Yeliz
	Yeliz	Beril
	Melda	Müge
	Müge	Melda
Week 3-4	Beril	Melda
	Melda	Beril
	Müge	Yeliz
	Yeliz	Müge
Week 5-6	Beril	Müge
	Müge	Beril
	Yeliz	Melda
	Melda	Yeliz

Data Collection Instruments

Data were collected through multiple tools:

Pre-observation form: Pre-observation form was filled by the observee basically to inform the observer of the teaching objectives and the organization of the lesson to be observed. The observee also indicated the grade level of the classroom, materials and teaching aids to be used as well as the anticipated problems and solutions on this form. This tool was given to the observer at least one hour before the lesson started. This way the observer had an initial idea about the class to be observed.

Peer observation form: Peer observation form included six questions with regard to the five focus themes that had been discussed before with the participating teachers, and asked them about their comments on issues other than those included in pre-determined themes. At the end of the lesson, the observer used these notes to give her peer feedback.

Post-observation discussions: Post-observation discussions aimed at giving immediate feedback to the observee right after the observations. The purpose was to exchange opinions on the strengths and weaknesses of the observed lesson. These audio – recorded discussion sessions generally took 10 minutes. Hence, approximately 8 hours of recorded data were obtained.

Post observation reflective journals: These were weekly accounts of reflections on the weaknesses and strengths realized during the observations, how they felt giving and receiving feedback, and what they learned through this process. Although participants indicated that they were all familiar with reflective journal keeping, they were informed about reflective

writing and given guiding prompts both for the role of observer and observee. Each participant submitted one weekly writing to the researcher, which meant 24 journal entries in total.

Semi-structured focus group interview: At the end of six weeks, all four instructors were brought together for a semi-structured focus group interview to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of POT experience. The instructors were given the chance to express their thoughts in the language of their own choice. The data included approximately one hour of recorded data.

Interview with PDU Head: At the end of the observations, PDU head had a chance to discuss the ongoing project with the instructors to have an insight about the observation process. Besides, she had the opportunity to observe one hour of each pair, in total four hours, to check the applicability of the reciprocal peer observation process in the classes as well. Therefore, an interview was conducted with her in order to find out how she evaluated the implementation of this process. Interview questions included the purpose of POT process planned by the professional development unit, the observed attitudes of the instructors toward this process, and her perceptions regarding the weaknesses and strengths of the POT implemented. She was also asked to make comments on the contribution of POT to the collaborative working environment and the professional development of the instructors, and on her plans regarding the future POT implementations.

Data Analysis

The current study used qualitative methods to analyse data collected through post – observation discussions, reflective journals, and interviews. Data analysis procedure started with the transcription of the audio recorded data. Once the transcriptions were completed, the raw data was ready for the content analysis that is a systematic classification procedure of coding and identifying themes and patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Open-coding was performed to find the themes that emerged from the data. The emerging categories were checked by a second coder to ensure the dependability of the data (Guba &Lincoln, 1989).

Results

Instructors' Gains from the Pot Process as an Observee

The content analysis of data gathered through reflective journals, and post – observation discussions and interviews with participating instructors to answer the first research question revealed the following themes: Being observed by their peers 1) raised instructors' awareness on their teaching practices, 2) changed their attitudes towards peer observation of teaching practices, and 3) increased their self-confidence as teachers.

Awareness on Teaching Practices

All of the participants thought that getting engaged in peer observations helped them become more aware of their actions. Upon receiving some collegial feedback on the positive assets of their teaching like how well they encouraged students for classroom discussions, and how well they sequenced the activities by making them more meaningful to the students, they said they realized their strengths. One instructor stated, *"as my peer mentioned, I used body language and intonation a lot to engage students in the lesson. I didn't see that as a positive asset before"* (group interview data). Another instructor realized how good she was at managing unexpected things in classroom: *" I realized that things can go out of control, and I was able to manage these unexpected things while teaching"* (reflective journal data).

Similarly, being criticised on issues like the amount of talk in the classroom, losing the control of students, and ineffective use of technology, they admitted they happened to realize the aspects of their teachings that needed to be improved. One instructor stated in her reflective journal *"as a weakness, I can say that I realized that I could encourage and praise my students more."* So, being observed made them realize their strengths and weaknesses that they had not thought of before.

One of the observee stated *"I started to be more aware of the details in the classroom thanks to my peer (group interview data)"* referring to the fact that observation let her become more alert and sensitive to what went on in the classroom. She found herself more responsive to students' questions, how they feel, and how well they are actually learning. Besides, they also realized how they could justify their actions better when reflecting on their teaching in their post-observation journal keeping.

Changes in Attitudes Toward Pot

During the post-observation discussions and group interviews instructors often mentioned how they felt while being observed by their peers. Getting constructive and non – judgmental feedback from their equal peers instead of a coordinator or a supervisor made them feel more relaxed emotionally, and enabled them to see the value of peer observation in terms of its contribution to their teaching. One of the instructors expressed her feelings of relief by saying *"It was nice to explain yourself without any hesitation or fear…."* while another stated *"the more feedback I got, the more I felt relaxed"* (reflective journal data). Their initial feelings of nervousness caused by the idea of being observed was replaced with a positive attitude towards POT as they started to perceive it as a means to exchange their professional knowledge. Through this change in their attitude, they expressed how well they received the ideas suggested by their colleagues as in *"When Yeliz came to observed me in my class, she gave me some suggestions about vocabulary teaching, like highlighting and underlying... I tried to do it and it worked really well…"*, and *"…after I got the same genuine feedback on this (timing) issue from each observer, I tried to be more careful on this"* (group interview data).

Increased Self-Confidence

Affirming comments received from a colleague having a shared knowledge of the same field increased instructors' self-confidence. One instructor said "*I mostly got, you know, positive feedback from my observers, and if there are.. like three teachers telling you that you are doing something good, you just keep doing it and eventually become more enthusiastic*" (group interview data). Another one stated in her reflective journal "*After going through today's lesson, I felt more confident because being observed by another teacher raises a kind of self-awareness*".

Instructors' Gains from the POT Process as an Observer

Instructors' evaluation of the reciprocal peer observations in terms of what they gained professionally from the perspective of an observer revealed different themes as well. The data analysed to answer our second research question showed that observing a colleague within the same institution 1) elevated their level of distress during initial feedback sessions, but 2) encouraged them to try new ideas they gained by watching various examples of teaching practices, 3) helped them develop a more critical perspective on their own practices, and 4) let them feel more valuable as a colleague.

Elevated Level of Distress While Giving Initial Feedback

Interestingly, although instructors did not mention any elevated level of distress while hearing comments of their peers on their own teaching, they said giving the initial feedback during the first observations were very stressful for them as they did not know how well it would be received by their colleagues. They stated in their journals and during the interview "*I knew that my peer was very open to criticism, but still I felt really stressed out while giving feedback this week*", "*You need to have a poker face, and this was really disturbing for me,… I wondered if my facial expression affected my peer negatively or not*", and "*…I was afraid if she got offended by what I suggested as an observer*". However, the instructors felt relieved after the first feedback giving sessions as they were convinced that their feedback was received well by their peers.

Getting Encouraged to Try New Ideas Gained by Watching

All instructors admitted that engaging in observation of their colleagues gave them many practical and useful ideas that they could try in their own settings. One of the instructors said "*I have collected lots of beneficial ideas, even the use of her body language was very inspiring for me*" (group interview data). Another said "*even if the techniques we use are the same, observing other classes help you think different options*" and " *…after I observed lots of classes, I started to develop more creative ideas for my learners, such as games which I hadn't used in my classes before*". By referring to that every teacher has a different style of her own even when they teach the same thing, one of the participants said "*I took the best parts of each lesson and created a*

combination of all for myself". Having seen that some techniques had already worked in others' classes, they admitted they had the courage to try them as well.

Developing a Critical Perspective on Their Own Practices

Having the role of an observer gave the instructors a more critical perspective on their own teachings as can be observed in one of the instructors' comments: "*while giving feedback, you focus on the details and you start thinking about your own teaching practices and actions…*", "*I also felt that I'm also kind of learning how to create a more constructive teaching for my learners through discussion*", and "*in a post-discussion with my peer, I realized that I started to think deeper, and definitely benefitted from this experience*". The observers eventually started developing a more self-critical mind-set on issues they criticised in their peers' teaching, thinking of their own actions on similar accounts.

Feeling More Valuable

The instructors giving feedback to their peers explicitly stated how valuable they felt when they saw their suggestions were well received and put into action by their colleagues in their next sessions as in the following quotation:

> "I felt very valuable and proud when I saw my peer applied what I had suggested the previous week…. I have realized that all of us tried to use the ideas we gave each other, ..and it is a great feeling… it also felt great to see improvements in their teachings "

Another instructor stated that when they worked in collaboration to give each other feedback they developed a collegial bond and felt more valuable as part of their institution. She reflected on her feelings in her journal by stating that "*I believe observation got people close to each other, because you don't only talk about your lesson but also about the problems you face on any issue*".

POT Implementation from the Perspective of PDU Head

The data obtained through an interview with the PDU head to answer our third research questions revealed that while evaluating the current reciprocal POT implementations, PDU head often referred to previous formal observations conducted for appraisal purposes with the involvement of a coordinator or an administrator having the role of an observer. She asserted that although instructors were not willing to get engaged in such observations in the past, they developed a better attitude towards being observed by their peers in a reciprocal manner. She observed the positive consequences of such attitude change reflected in a few aspects of their teachings and behaviours.

First, she believed that teachers realized they were not giving feedback to judge or evaluate each other, but to contribute to their own and their peers' professional development as they learned new techniques and strategies by watching each other. Their prejudice was dissipated by the non-judgemental nature of such observations. Besides, she said she noticed teachers engaged in POT became more reflective on their own weaknesses. She believed instructors started to perceive reciprocal POT as a professional development tool not as an assessment tool.

Second, she observed that teachers establishing better rapport throughout the POT process became more collaborative in the program, which in return affected the work environment positively. Hence, she was convinced on the possible positive effects of POT on the collegial climate of the institution as well.

After this small-scale implementation of POT, the PDU head had some ideas for the future observations of teaching like giving participant instructors fewer teaching hours so they have more time to get together for post-observation discussions, arranging their teaching timetables to allow more peer observations, and having them exposed to a more intensive training before the actual observations.

Discussion

The study investigated the perceptions on reciprocal peer observations implemented in a higher education institution in Turkey from the perspectives of involved instructors and the PDU head. The literature presents consensual evidence for the benefits of such activities both for the professional development of teachers and their institutions (Cosh, 1999; Lomas & Kinchin, 2006; McMahon et al., 2007; Peel, 2005). Therefore, the intentions of the PDU to make it a regular professional development activity within that setting in the long run has inspired this study as a pilot project of POT implementation to see how such practices will be perceived by their instructors. More specifically, this paper explored how participating teachers would benefit from this process when they gave and received collegial feedback on some aspects of their teaching that the institution expected them to improve including engaging learner, lesson planning and presentation, use of learning activities, learning technologies and instructional materials and so on. While the nature and the frequency of the feedback they received and gave on these issues have also been investigated and will be the topic of another paper, the current paper limited its scope to the report of perceived benefits to draw some suggestions for future POT implementations.

The reciprocal nature of POT implementation in the present study offered some complementary benefits to the participating instructors of the study, which concurred with the findings of previous studies (e.g. Bell & Mladenovic, 2015; Hendry & Oliver, 2012; Yiend et al., 2014):

As observees

- instructors became more aware of the aspects of their teaching that needed improvement in a non-judgemental and non-evaluative way, and they became
- more cooperative and willing to discuss them with their observing peers (Bell, 2005; Bell and Mladenovic, 2015; Cosh, 1998).
- they became more aware of the positive aspects of their teachings. Getting an affirmative feedback from a colleague on their strengths increased their self – confidence (Chester, 2012; Donnelly, 2007).
- Having been observed by an equal partner not by an administrator as in formerly held evaluative observations, and having the chance of discussing their actions with a colleague changed their attitudes towards observations, and let them see POT as a professional development tool (Gosling, 2005; Peel, 2005).

As observers

- Teachers found giving feedback on the practices of their colleagues very distressing during the initial observations. Later on reciprocal nature of observations dissipated their nervousness (Martin & Double, 1998).
- Teachers obtained new ideas on teaching techniques and strategies by watching their peers. They admitted they could try these in their teachings (Yiend et al., 2014).
- Teachers seeing peers using the same or similar techniques affirmed their current practices (Hendry & Oliver, 2012)
- Watching their peers and thinking on their practices help them develop a critical perspective on their own practices as well (Byrne et al., 2010)
- They felt as valuable members of the institution (Saroyan & Amundsen, 2001; Shortland, 2010).

These findings provide strong evidence for the potential benefits of having reciprocal roles in peer observation. As argued by Chester (2012) who acknowledged reciprocity as one of the core features of his model of peer partnership in teaching, the mutual nature of peer observation in this study, which assigned the same instructors both to the role of an observee and observer, provided them with the opportunity for having a genuinely collegial exchange. Hence, instructors contributed to the process more meaningfully and enjoyed complementary benefits. In other words, while instructors as observers learned from the practices of their colleagues having different years of teaching experience, they also found an opportunity to discuss their own practices with them as observees. Similarly, while the instructors developed a self-evaluative and questioning perspective on their own practices by observing other colleagues, they became more aware of their own strengths and weaknesses as observees thanks to their 'critical helper' (Brookfield, 1987, p. 29) holding a mirror on to their actions. In other words, colleagues became helpers who are not judging but encouraging each other

to explore their actions. At this point the study provides evidence for the importance of reflective practice in peer observations and concurs with the claims of previous authors (Bell & Mladenovic, 2015; Cosh, 1998; Peel, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1992). Instructors of the current study who got engaged in reflective discussions with their equal peers before and after each observation developed a more critical perspective on their approaches to teaching, and this change in perspective has also been observed by the head of professional development unit. Therefore, it would not be wrong to argue that the reflective aspect of POT process is in fact what makes it a developmental tool, because the personal growth of teachers can be achieved through such awareness raising reflective exchanges (Peel, 2005).

The perceptions of the instructors and head of professional development unit also suggest that POT planned with equal partners in a sharing environment foster institutional identity (Lomas & Kinchin, 2006; McMahon et al. 2007; Saroyan & Amundsen, 2001; Shortland, 2010). Instructors contributing to the professional development of each other, feel more valuable members of that community and institution.

Conclusion

Peer observations can be perceived as professional development tools by the instructors if they are well-developed and planned within the institutions. In that sense, the study has significant implications for the instructors, institutions and other organizational units that aim to use POT to enhance and sustain teaching quality.

First, the observations involving equal peers, not an authority, having the role of an observer and observee increase participants' motivation to benefit from the feedback provided to them, because such observations are not perceived as evaluative but development tools.

Second, POT implementations should include the use of observation tools to provide some structure and focus teachers' attention to possible aspects of teaching as suggested in previous studies (e.g. Clark et al., 2010; Donnelly, 2007). In this study, the observation tools were created through a discussion with the participation of instructors and stakeholders who have the shared knowledge of their professional development needs as well as the needs of their institution. Hence, the teachers knew that the feedback they would give and receive on these agreed aspects of teachings would eventually benefit them in relation to their needs.

Next, the peers had pre-observation and post-observation discussions that enabled them to reflect upon their practices. Such activities should be an important component of POT implementations not only to encourage teachers to think critically about their actions, but also to increase collaboration and dialogue among them.

As emphasized by O'Sullivan et al. (1998) and Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond (2004), participant instructors should be supported with some training on the components of peer

observation before they are expected to get involved in it. We also suggest that PDUs or institutions should take action to offer regular trainings on how to conduct observations.

Otherwise, participant instructors may feel unconfident, which was occasionally the case during this study despite the initial two-hour training. Hence, having acknowledged the duration of our initial training as one of the limitations our study, our suggestions would be to extend the duration of trainings and repeat them as needed. Besides, to gain better insight into the effects of POT implementations and to support teachers' professional development, peer observations should be done regularly throughout the year. However, teachers' working hours, and teaching load should be adjusted to offer them a more flexible observation cycle schedule and to make some room for such professional development activities.

In addition to the limited number of training on POT the study has other limitations, too. As this is basically a case study conducted with limited number of participants, transferability has been an issue that is inherent in the nature of qualitative approach to research. Besides, although voluntary participation is often acknowledged as a significant aspect of peer observations (Chester, 2012; Fletcher, 2018), the participants in this study were selected on the basis of some initial observations made by the head of professional development unit and coordinator; and later their consents were taken before the observation cycles started. These cycles should be repeated with volunteers for a better understanding of the benefits of POT.

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Program Administrators' Perspectives on the Recruitment of Native and Non-native English Speaking Teachers

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Abstract

The present study aimed to investigate how administrators of foreign language schools prioritize their criteria for recruiting English language instructors and specifically what importance they place on an instructor's being a native English speaker. To that end, the participants were invited to consider not only Turkish teachers of English as the non-native group but also the foreign teachers coming from different nationalities whose native languages were not English. Data were collected by means of a questionnaire completed by the administrators of foreign language schools at three state and four foundation (non-profit) universities located in İstanbul, Turkey.

Results of the study indicated that although there was a consensus on teaching demonstration, teaching experience and educational background as the most important criteria, different practices regarding recruitment of non-native English-speaking teachers were reported.

Keywords: native English-speaking teachers; non-native English-speaking teachers; teacher recruitment; recruitment criteria

Introduction

The scholars in the field of English language teaching have reached a consensus on certain points regarding the position of English among other languages in the world: "the fastest growing language in the world" (Mahboob, 2005), "a lingua franca" (Seidlhofer, 2006), and "a global language" (Crystal, 2012). English is spoken all over the world and not restricted to

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one country or nation; therefore, it is the language of international communication, politics, trade, and education as well as being the official or national language of a considerable number of countries. As it is a language prevalent all over the world, the number of non-native speakers exceeds the number of native speakers by a ratio of three to one (Crystal, 2012), which challenges the ownership of English (Widdowson, 1994) and makes the definition of the term "native speaker of English" controversial.

As English has been recognized as an international language, it is hard to make a distinction between native and non-native speakers of it linguistically; "it happens to be nonetheless socially present" (Moussu&Llurda, 2008, p. 316). This reflects itself as a discrimination against non-native speakers, and causes "native speaker fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992). This fallacy which portrays native speakers as better teachers is acutely observed in educational settings. However, there is a significant number of studies that focus on the dichotomy of native versus non-native teachers of English and literature reports on different advantages of both groups in teaching. While native English speaking teachers (NESTs hereafter) have better command in vocabulary, idioms, colloquialisms, and slang" (Lasagabaster& Manuel-Sierra, 2005; Reves&Medgyes, 1994), and in oral communication skills (Pacek, 2005), non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs hereafter) are better in dealing with learning difficulties of students and feeling empathy for their students, having had a second language learning experience (McNeill, 2005).

This misconception of native speakerism leads to "unprofessional favoritism" (Medgyes, 2001) in teacher recruitment practices even though only 20% of English language teachers in the world are native speakers (Canagarajah, 2005). Employability of NNESTs is questioned because of their accent and credibility (Maum, 2002) and it has motivated the present research to investigate whether the status of applicants as native speaker or non – native speaker affects their employment opportunities.

The studies conducted on recruitment processes of NESTs and NNESTs can be classified regarding the context they have been carried out in based on Kachru's Three Circles of English Model. Mahboob (2003), the first researcher studying the employment issue of NNESTs empirically, investigated the hiring processes of 122 college-level intensive English program administrators in the US – an Inner Circle setting. Data were collected by means of a questionnaire in which the participants were asked to rate the given hiring criteria in terms of importance. Results showed that teaching experience, educational experience, and recommendation criteria were among the top criteria and followed by being a native speaker criterion. Moreover, it was concluded that there was a negative correlation between the importance assigned to being a native speaker as a criterion and the employment chances of the NNESTs since the administrators who valued the criterion more had fewer NNESTs than NESTs in their programs.

In a similar context, Mahboob, Uhrig, Newman and Hartford (2004) examined the hiring processes of 118 college-level English program administrators in the US, by asking them to rank a list of criteria for hiring language teachers. The findings suggested that the administrators

mostly value teaching experience followed by educational experience and recommendations rather than being a native speaker. However, NNESTs had a very low proportion of employability in the given setting.

Moussu (2006) investigated the hiring practices and beliefs of the administrators at college-level Intensive English programs also in the US. According to the participating administrators, NNESTs' lower self-esteem, poor self-confidence, grammar-focused approach, and foreign accent were shortcomings while their pedagogical skills, understanding of students' difficulties, and high expectations were among their strengths. Additionally, the administrators noted that in terms of teaching NNESTs could become as good as native speakers. While being a native speaker was not necessarily a criterion in their hiring process, they emphasized the need for linguistic readiness and international experience in addition to teaching experience.

One of the earliest studies on the issue of NNESTs' employability conducted in the UK – another Inner Circle setting – was done by Medgyes (1992). During his presentation in a conference held in the UK in 1991, Medgyes wanted nearly 60 ELT specialists to imagine themselves as the principal of a commercial ELT school in Britain and asked them to state how they would employ instructors by choosing one of the following options: (a) only native speakers, even if they were not qualified EFL teachers, (b) native-speaking EFL teachers, but if hard pressed I would choose a qualified non-native rather than a native without EFL qualifications, and (c) the native/non – native issue would not be a selection criterion (provided the NNEST was a highly proficient speaker of English). Results showed that while none of the respondents agreed that they would employ only native speakers, even if they were not qualified EFL teachers, around 40 of them stated that they would employ NESTs, but if hard pressed they would choose a qualified non-native rather than a native without EFL qualifications and the rest claimed that the native/non-native issue would not be a selection criterion (provided the NNEST was a highly proficient speaker of English). The researcher reported that because of insufficient time, he could not ask for justification of their choices.

In the UK, the first empirical study on the employability issue of NNESTs was conducted by Clark and Paran (2007). They worked with 90 employers of ELT instructors at private language schools, universities and further education institutions. At the end of the study, they concluded that the employers valued teaching qualifications, performance in job interviews, and teaching experience the most. When employing native speakers was an option, a large majority of respondents considered it either moderately or particularly important.

Helal (2008) worked with six program administrators of further education colleges in the UK to investigate their hiring practices of English teachers. Findings of the questionnaire and interviews showed that (i) the most important criterion in the employment of English teachers was their teaching qualification, (ii) native speakerism was not a significant factor in hiring practices, (iii) and accents of teachers were legitimate as long as they were intelligible to students.

Zhang and Zhan (2014) conducted a similar study in Canada with six NNESTs and six administrators to examine ESL program administors' perception of the criteria to be used in hiring NNESTs. Teaching skills and language proficiency were regarded as the most important components by administrators while they were identified as major challenges by NNESTs.

Unlike the previously cited studies in which participants were asked direct questions and thus had plenty of room for 'idealist' answers, Alenazi (2014) utilized a more indirect research methodology to elicit information on hiring practices. He conducted a study with 56 recruitment committee members for hiring EFL teachers at Saudi higher education institutions to answer whether they prioritize NESTs to teach in their institutions even if NNESTs are more qualified. In addition to asking them to rank a set of criteria (academic qualification, accent, nationality, being a native speaker and teaching experience) according to their importance in the recruitment process, the researcher also included a listening task in which the participants were required to listen to five different applicants' recordings. The participants were asked to state whether the applicants were native speakers of English, how qualified they were, and predict which nationality they might be, and then the participants were asked to rank all the applicants according to whom they would hire first. Along similar lines with the previous research, the participants reported that they valued academic qualification and teaching experience most. The findings of this study revealed, however, that NNESTs were less favorable since the recruiters assigned more importance to criterion of being a native speaker. The findings of the listening task showed that when asked indirectly, the participants valued native speakership most and stated they would employ NESTs even if there were more qualified NNESTs among the applicants.

In Turkey, employment opportunities offered to NESTs and NNESTs is an issue mostly discussed informally. As an Expanding Circle country, Turkey is an EFL setting popular among NESTs and the prevailing understanding of the target in ELT (i.e. native speaker-like performance) has fueled this popularity, which sometimes leads to questionable recruitment of English teachers. Given the situation, there is only one study investigating this issue of employability in Turkey. Tatar (2019) focused on the recruitment processes of local (Turkish) and expatriate teachers of English and collected data from administrators of 94 private primary and high schools in Istanbul by means of a questionnaire. Results showed that although being a native speaker of English was reported as one of the least important criteria by all administrators, it was attached more importance by the administrators from schools that employed both expatriate and local teachers.

Motivated by the significance of the problem in the Turkish setting and the insufficient body of research focusing on the issue, the present study problematizes the recruitment practices of NESTs and NNESTs in the Turkish setting, particularly at the tertiary level. The absence of an established and systematic mechanism for the employment of "foreign" English language teachers further supports the need for such research. Insight into the rationale for a preference towards a NEST or a NNEST will reveal the underlying native speakerism or lack thereof that

is strongly operational in the recruitment processes. Therefore, in order to address how the recruitment decisions are made when there are both NEST and NNEST applicants and explore the impact of various factors governing the process as well as investigating the overall impact of native speakerism on the process, the present study has formulated two interrelated research questions:

1. What are the administrators' priorities in the selection criteria for recruiting English language teachers?

2. What are the administrators' opinions regarding NEST and NNEST applicants?

Method

Participants and Setting

The data were collected in the 2018-2019 academic year from administrators of foreign language schools at three state and four foundation (non-profit) universities located in İstanbul, Turkey. These foreign language schools offer English language courses to their students who are required to pass English proficiency exam before they start to receive English medium instruction in their major departments. Demographics of the participating foreign language schools are given in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographics of the Participating Institutions

Name of the university	Total number of students	Ratio of international students	Total number of instructors	Number of NS instructors	Nationality of NS instructors	Nationality of NNS instructors
A	2400	15%	120	7	American, British, Canadian	Turkish (107), Persian (1), Russian (1), Azerbaijani (1), Jordanian (1)
B	2010	0,5%	117	2	British	Turkish (110), Russian (2), Dutch (1), Georgian (1), German (1)
C	750	1%	52	5	American, British	Turkish (46), Polish (1)
D	3000	10%	130	7	American, British	Turkish (121), Colombian (1), Romanian (1)
E	150	1%	20	2	American, British	Turkish (17) Russian (1)

F	2580	1%	200	2	British	Turkish (184), Persian (1), Greek (2), Albanian (1)
G	3200	6%	92	12	American, British	Turkish (78), Armenian (1), Greek (1)

7 administrators participated in the study. Average age of the administrators was 45. Five of the administrators held PhD degree while the other two graduated from a master's program. The average experience of the participants in the field of education was 23 years. While two of them had experience for more than 10 years as an administrator, the others had 5-10 years of experience. Three of the administrators were familiar with the concept of World Englishes through courses, seminars, and research articles on the issue, however the rest of them were not.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data for the study were collected by means of a questionnaire consisting of three parts: (i) demographic information, (ii) criteria for job applications and statements related to native and non-native instructors adapted from Alenazi (2014), and (iii) open ended questions. The first part of the questionnaire included personal demographics such as the participants' age, academic degrees, experience in the field of education as an administrator, and institutional demographics such as total number of students, ratio of international students, total number of instructors, number of NS and NNS instructors and their nationalities. The second part was adapted from the original questionnaire and consisted of (i) seven criteria scored on 6-point likert-type scale ranging from X (not applicable) to 5 (very important) and (ii) eight statements rated on 5-point likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The seven criteria given the participants to be ranked in the order of importance were; accent, nationality, educational background, native speakership, teaching experience, teachings demonstration, and recommendation. The participants had place to provide their comments on the criteria and the statements, if any. The third part of the questionnaire included four open-ended questions for further opinions.

The procedure was organized according to the preferences of the administrators. Some of them preferred face-to-face interviews and made comments on the points while completing the written questionnaire. Whereas, some administrators completed the questionnaire with open – and closed-ended parts and sent it via email. When the interview sessions were held, they were conducted in English and voice recorded with the participants' permission.

Descriptive statistics were applied to analyze the quantitative data coming from the likert-type scale items on the questionnaire. On the other hand, qualitative data obtained from responses to open-ended questions and comments of the closed-ended items were analyzed

by means of pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Miles and Huberman (1994) identified three stages for qualitative data analysis: Data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. The researchers, working collaboratively with another English instructor of the department, reduced the oral/written comments into smaller units to examine the emerging themes of answers in order to have accurate and reliable data.

Results

After collecting demographic information of the participants and their institutions, they were asked whether they were the only decision makers in the recruitment process or there was a committee for hiring instructors. All of the participants stated that their institutions had a recruitment committee mostly consisting of foreign language school administrator, vice administrator, testing, curriculum, and level coordinators. For foundation universities, the rectorate was also among the decision makers.

When asked to indicate how important the following criteria were for them in recruitment processes, the participants responded as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2

Recruitment Criteria

Criterion	Not applicable (f)	Not important at all (f)	Relatively unimportant (f)	Somewhat important (f)	Moderately important (f)	Very important (f)	Mean
Teaching demonstration	-	-	-	-	2	5	4,71
Teaching experience	-	-	-	-	3	4	4,57
Educational background	-	-	-	1	1	5	4,57
Accent	-	-	-	2	2	3	4,14
Recommendation	-	-	1	5	-	1	3,14
Being a native speaker	-	2	3	-	2	-	2,28
Nationality	-	2	4	1	-	-	1,85

*f=frequency

Giving a 'teaching demonstration' was considered the most important criterion, followed by 'teaching experience' and 'educational background' as most of the participants reported them to be very important. One of the participants explained that she assigned so much importance to the 'teaching demonstration' because it allowed her to see not only theoretical knowledge but also practical teaching skills of the applicant instructor. Although 'nationality' and 'being a native speaker' were the least important criteria according to administrators, 'accent' was regarded moderately important as most of the administrators emphasized that the instructor should have a 'clear' and 'intelligible' accent.

For the next part, the participants were asked to rate the statements according to their level of agreement. The findings are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Opinion Statements

Statement	Mean
6. I usually employ non-native speakers because native speakers are hard to attract.	4,00
1. Native and non-native speakers may have the same teaching abilities.	3,57
2. Non-native speakers can understand and deal with the learning difficulties of my students better than native speakers.	2,85
8. The students in my department prefer to be taught by English native speakers.	2,57
3. I prefer non-native speakers over native speakers to teach in my department.	2,42
4. I prefer native speakers over non-native speakers to teach in my department.	1,71
5. If I could, I would employ English native speakers only.	1,57
7. I prefer to employ native speakers to teach in my department even if their qualification level is lower than that of non-native speakers.	1,42

The sixth statement received the highest rating among the others and revealed that almost all of the participants agreed that it was hard to attract native speaker instructors to work for them. To explain the reasons, one of the participants stated: "It was already difficult to meet their expectations related to salary and workload, now with the current political tensions it is even harder to convince them to work with us".

According to the responses to the first statement, the majority of the participants agreed that NESTs and NNESTs may have the same teaching abilities. They claimed that teaching skills were independent of being a native speaker but rather related to their educational background, personality, and dedication to the profession.

For the second statement which argued that NNESTs could deal with difficulties of students better than NESTs, most of the participants were not sure because it would depend on each individual teacher's approach. One participant explained why he was not sure by saying:

> *Non-native speakers, if they are Turkish, may understand the difficulties of the students since they had the same learning experience with English. However, native speakers as well can show some empathy for the students only if they have learned a foreign language, Turkish or any other. That is why I always ask native speaker candidates whether they know any other languages or not, as I believe that it is an advantage for student learning.*

Most of the participants did not seem to be sure about the 8th statement which claimed that students preferred to be taught by NESTs. One of them explained his opinion by saying:

> *The feedback we get from students reveal that they enjoy being taught by native speakers at the very beginning but especially towards the end of the academic year they seem to appreciate NNESTs more since they benefit from them more in terms of grammar explanations and detailed constructive feedback on writing tasks.*

The third, fourth, and fifth statements were all about administrators' preferences for employing NESTs or NNESTs, and the majority of them disagreed on preferring one over the other – that is, viewing one superior to the other. One of the participants summarized why it did not matter as follows:

> *It does not matter to me whether the instructors are native or non –native as long as they are qualified, motivated, and open to professional development. The only reason I would like to have instructors from different countries in my team is to create an international and multicultural learning and teaching environment. It is not only advantageous for students but also for the staff, and it goes in line with the philosophy of our university encouraging diversity.*

Most of the participants strongly disagreed with the seventh statement "I prefer to employ native speakers to teach in my department even if their qualification level is lower than that of non-native speakers", as being a native speaker was not their priority but teaching qualification mattered most. They further added that being a native speaker did not guarantee sufficient teaching skills.

For the last part of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to answer four open-ended questions for further opinions. When they were asked whether they had any other criteria such as specialized experience, knowledge, or academic qualifications, they all mentioned similar expectations and underlined the importance of "showing effort and spending time for professional and self-development", "having teaching experience in the higher education, especially in the context of Turkey", "dedication to the work itself", and "good command of IT skills". Moreover, it was found out that CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) and DELTA (Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other) certificates were preferred by administrators and regarded as a plus when compared to others who do not have any of these.

The next open-ended question asked whether the administrators looked for any specific personal traits or attitude during the recruitment process. Key concepts commonly mentioned by the administrators were "patience", "perseverance", "enthusiasm", "motivation", "attainment", "professionalism", "positivity", "good rapport with students", "being a good team worker", and possessing "a sense of belonging to the institution".

When asked whether there was any nationality they favored in recruitment, none of the administrators specified any nationality as privileged; however, they mentioned that they tended to hire candidates from nationalities which they used to work with and appreciated.

In response to the last question, the administrators claimed that they did not prioritize native-like proficiency or being a native speaker in recruitment process, as the excerpt below illustrates:

> We definitely look for a firm educational background and proficiency in English but not in terms of native-like pronunciation or accent but having good command of language and being accurate and fluent enough to set a good example for students.

Finally, it is worth noting that despite not providing her reasons, one of the participants reported that she would prefer to recruit NESTs if she were to choose between two candidates with very similar educational backgrounds and comparable teaching qualifications.

Discussion and Conclusion

The present study investigated the administrators' priorities in the selection criteria for recruiting English language teachers. Teaching experience and educational background were reported to be among the most important criteria, which is in line with the findings of Mahboob (2003), Clark and Paran (2007), and Alenazi (2014). Although those studies were conducted in different countries (i.e. the US, the UK, and Saudi Arabia respectively), the similarity of their educational settings (i.e. tertiary level) may have led to similar findings. The participants' strong disagreement with the statement: "I prefer to employ native speakers to teach in my department even if their qualification level is lower than that of non-native speakers" confirms that teaching qualifications matter more than being a native speaker. In addition to teaching qualifications, educational background and recommendation were the most valued criteria in the previous research (e.g. Alenazi, 2014; Mahboob, 2003; Moussu, 2006; Zhang &Zhan, 2014). While the most valued criterion in the recruitment process was found to be teaching demonstration in the present study, this criterion was not included in most of the previous studies or appeared to be one of the least valued criterion. According to the administrators in this study, teaching qualifications and experience were listed as mostly used and dependable criteria, however, without a practical application, those qualifications did not seem to be enough on their own and not necessarily a certain indicator of best teaching practices. This finding of the present study may imply that the administrators wanted to see evidence of practical teaching skills in addition to the theoretical knowledge of candidate instructors.

When specifically focused on the extent to which administrators of foreign language schools place importance on an instructor's being a native English speaker, and the findings revealed that being a native speaker was among the least important criteria. The participants underlined the importance of intelligibility and reported that rather than looking for native speakership, accent, or a specific nationality, they would expect understandable and clear use of language from candidate instructors, which is consistent with the findings of Helal (2008). Even though the participants did not value being a native speaker as a significant criterion, they might have a tendency to favor native speaker instructors, as one of them reported she would prefer a native speaker over a NNEST when both candidates have the same qualifications. This finding is consistent with the results of another study (Alenazi, 2014) focusing on a similar educational setting in another expanding circle country. This similarity may imply that although

the administrators in these two expanding circle countries (i.e. Turkey and Saudi Arabia) are well aware of the importance of the teaching qualifications and experience, they seem to be somehow still under the effect of "native speaker fallacy" and more inclined to choose native speaker teachers to work with. Therefore, it may be concluded their conceptual understanding of World Englishes is not totally reflected in their practices which may be due to long held beliefs and practices of employing native speakers for better results.

As concluded, different perspectives regarding the recruitment process for "foreign" English language teachers were available in different institutions. This result could have a direct implication for policy makers. As it is the case for English language teachers with a Turkish nationality, some official regulations based on objective criteria could be made by the Council of Higher Education regarding the recruitment process of "foreign" English language teachers. With the help of such an established and systematic mechanism, the recruitment processes could be more transparent and reliable. In addition to such systematicity in the process, the administrators need support with clear cut guidelines regarding an approach to replace native speakerism – one that is based on the current understanding of English as a global lingua franca and a renewed conceptualization of its ownership.

The present study has some limitations in terms of number of participants and the location of institutions. So, further studies might be conducted with a larger sample located in different parts of the country, rather than focusing on one big city, to have more generalizable results. Additionally, data in this study were collected by means of questions inquiring about their perceptions of their institutional recruitment processes, which may have provoked idealist answers from the administrators. In order to provide insights about possible practices, further research might adopt more indirect data collection methods such as asking the participants to watch teaching demonstration recordings of various applicants from different nationalities, with different accents, varying educational backgrounds/ experience and state whom they would hire justifying their choices.

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The Effect of Task Types on Raters Assessing EFL Speaking Performance

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Abstract

Speaking has been one of the most difficult skills to be assessed because the cognition of the raters is complex and uncontrollable as it takes place in raters' minds. The study investigates what goes on in raters' minds during the assessment of speaking performance and potential effects of different task types on raters. Six non-native instructors of EFL were asked to score performances of six examinees on three different oral tasks. Then, the raters produced retrospective verbal reports on how they rated the examinees' performances. The findings revealed that the raters not only attended to the criteria given in the rating scales but they also brought their own criteria into the assessment process. Those non-rubric criteria for each task type included different aspects of assessment such as rater, examinee or task accomplishment. The raters had some concerns over the picture description task while favoring the extended monologue and question and answer task.

Keywords: Rater cognition, speaking test tasks, retrospective verbal reports

Introduction

With the influence of communicative language testing which arose in 1980s, performance-based assessment has been used prevalently in second language speaking assessment (McNamara, 1996; Fulcher, 2000; Brown, 2004). In performance-based assessment, examinees are expected to perform certain tasks (McNamara, 1996). Those performances are assessed by human raters through a rating scale. This means examinees' performances are not the only variable leading to the score. As being different from traditional assessment, performance-based assessment involves more variables such as the rubrics, raters and task types which in turn affect the validity and reliability of the decisions to be made.

Among the variables involved in the oral assessment process, task types could be considered as the key variable that affects the other three: examinees, rubrics and raters. As regards the examinees, tasks could be considered as the guide that provides the context and general format

of the target oral performance during the assessment process (Brown & Yule, 1983; Louma, 2009). However, inherent features of task types may cause variations in the performance of examinees since the relationship between the examinee and the task, and the way each examinee deals with the task might be different (Bachman, 1990; McNamara, 1996; Skehan, 1998; Robinson, 2001).

Task types are also closely associated with rubrics used in the assessment process. In performance-based assessment, tasks help generate open-ended, direct and authentic responses which cannot be marked by using a simple answer key (McNamara, 1996; Upshur & Turner, 1999; Luoma, 2009). Instead, performances have to be evaluated by the use of rubrics prepared according to the specific characteristics of the target task types (e.g. paired or individual, monologue or interview, description or narration etc.) (Stevens & Levi, 2005; Reddy & Andrade, 2010). In the assessment process, rubrics provide a sampling of behavioral domain, which make the features of the target task explicit (Fulcher, 2003). That is why task-specific rubrics have to be written for individual tasks (Brookhart, 2013).

Another important effect of task type is on raters, the other human party involved in the assessment process. Raters do not simply process what the examinees present to them, but they have to engage in highly complex mental processes such as observing, interpreting, recalling information from memory storage and then organizing, combining, weighing and integrating the information to make inferences about examinees (Myford & Wolfe, 2004; Tavares & Eva, 2013). Among those processes, observing seems to be the easiest since the assessment tasks are expected to establish *the constancy of the elicitation input* so that raters are presented similar performances by the examinees (Brown & Yule, 1983). However, raters have to interpret the rubrics at the same time while having different mental representations about specific tasks, which may distort their understanding and application of the given criteria (Bachman, 1990; Myford, 2012). Raters might even have self-generated criteria for different tasks that are not given in the rubrics, which also jeopardizes the reliability of their judgment (Campbell, 1993; Meiron, 1998; Brown, 2000). As a result, integration of information in rubrics with what examinees presented to them throughout their performance on the given task could be challenging for raters. All in all, it could be concluded that task type is an important factor affecting not only the examinees' performances but also the content of the rubrics and the judgment of the raters.

Earlier research on the task effects revealed enlightening but contradictory results. To begin with, Brown, Iwashita and McNamara (2005) studied rater orientations in the assessment of five TOEFL speaking tasks: two independent speaking tasks, three integrated tasks. They collaborated with ten trained English for Academic Purposes (EAP) raters without any criteria or scales because the study aimed to find out unguided orientations of the raters. The results revealed that raters showed variability in terms of the criteria aimed at different task types since raters seemed to attend differently to two criteria which are *content* and *linguistic resources* depending on task-type.

Chalhoub-Deville and Wigglesworth (2005) also studied the effects of task types on rater judgment. They conducted their study on native speakers of English acting as raters from different nationalities during rating process of ESL examinees' performances on three tasks of Test of Spoken English (TSE): "give and support an opinion", "picture-based narration" and "presentation". The results revealed a statistical difference among the groups in the scores given to examinees' oral performances for each of the three tasks, which means that task type affected ratings.

Similarly, Ahmadi and Sadeghi (2016) also revealed significant task effects on rater judgment in their study where they explored the effect of three different tasks: monologue, interview with the interviewer, and group oral test. The raters were four MA TEFL students with teaching experience but no training. They rated the performances both holistically and analytically. The results of holistic and analytic scoring showed that raters gave different ratings when they used different rubrics. It was also found out that the test format had a significant effect on the examinees' scores.

However, as opposed to aforementioned studies, there were some other studies which found out no task effects on rater judgment. Teng's study (2007), for instance, investigated the effect of task types on rater cognition in the assessment of EFL speaking performance and found no significant difference in the examinees' scores. Two trained raters participated in the study and were asked to assess the examinees' speaking performances based on three task types: answering questions, picture description, and presentation by using a holistic scale.

In a similar attempt, Baturay, Tokmak, Doğusoy and Daloğlu (2011) investigated the effects of three different task types which were all picture-cued: narrative, descriptive and prediction-personal reaction. Four teachers evaluated the examinees' performances through a rating scale. Similar to Teng's (2007) study, the results showed no significant difference between the scores given by the four raters. Moreover, there was no significant difference between the separate categories of the rating scale *(grammar and vocabulary use, pronunciation accuracy, fluency and thematic relevance)*.

To sum up, considering the contradictory findings, it could be expressed that there is not enough evidence to reach conclusions about the effects of the task types on rater cognition. In this respect, the current study aimed to investigate whether the task types might have an effect on rater judgment in the assessment of speaking performance. By doing so, it aimed to contribute to the growing body of research into the rater cognition field, especially in the Turkish context. Also, it was observed that the studies conducted on the task effects on rater judgment in the assessment of oral performance are mostly quantitative in their nature. Thus, by adopting primarily a qualitative approach in order to uncover the raters' thinking processes, it aimed to provide a deeper understanding about how task types might have an effect on the rater judgment.

All in all, the current study set out to investigate the following research questions:

1. How do raters' comments about rubric-related and non-rubric factors change according to 3 different task types (question & answer, picture description and extended monologue) while scoring examinees' speaking performance?
2. How do raters' scores change across three different task types?

Method

The present study set out to investigate the decision-making processes of raters during the assessment of speaking performance on three different speaking tasks. To understand what goes on in raters' minds, multi case research design was employed. In a simulation of real-life oral-exam situations, thick descriptions of six raters' retrospective verbal reports were analyzed (Yin, 2003; Gerring, 2007). The qualitative data gathered from retrospective verbal reports were compared with the raters' scores.

Setting

The study was conducted at the English Preparatory School of a state university in Turkey. At the target university, the departments which use English language as the medium of instruction in the undergraduate courses require their students to take a one-year-intensive English preparatory program offered by the School of Foreign Languages. In an academic year of this preparatory programme, oral skills are assessed through speaking exams. In each speaking exam at B1 level, a different task type is applied: the *question and answer* task is conducted with an interlocutor teacher while the *picture description* task and the *extended monologue* task do not require any interlocutor. Each of these tasks is assessed with an analytic rubric prepared by testing unit of the target university (Appendix A). In the application of the speaking exams, two instructors take part as the raters. The average of these two scores is assigned to the examinees.

Participants

There were two groups of participants in this study: six raters (2 male and 4 female) and six examinees (3 male and 3 female). The raters were all from the same educational (both BA and MA in ELT) and professional backgrounds (with 5-10 years of teaching and testing experience). Performing the three speaking tasks was the only contribution of the examinees. The examinees were selected based on their convenience and willingness; however, their English levels and departments were kept constant. All the examinees were medical students at B1 level.

Data Collection and Analysis

Overall design of the study had three phases. In phase I, demographic information of the examinees were collected and their performances were video recorded. The second and the third phases of the study included only the raters. The second phase involved having demographic information of the raters and consent forms, recording their retrospective verbal reports and the scores that they assigned to the examinees' performances. The raters were asked to watch the examinees' performances based on the tasks in the following order: the *question and answer*, the *picture description* and the *extended monologue*. In order to eliminate the possible sequence effect (Plous, 1993; Attali, 2011), each rater assessed the performance of the examinees in a different order. Besides, when the raters were producing their retrospective verbal reports, the researcher took field notes so as to shape the questions to be asked in the semi-structured interviews. In the last phase, in order to clarify the information provided in the raters' retrospective verbal reports and the researcher's notes, semi-structured interviews with the raters were carried out.

Speaking Tasks

In order to simulate the real-life exam procedure and minimize the material and topic effect, 2 sets of tasks were utilized. In each set, there were 3 task types (question and answer, picture description and extended monologue). The tasks in each set were similar but not the same which were all based on the topics derived from the curriculum. The examinees were assigned to one of the sets randomly and were asked to perform these tasks while their performances were video recorded.

The question and answer task: In the *question and answer task*, the examinees talked to one of the raters who acted as the interlocutor. The interlocutor's only duty was to ask the questions to the examinees without interacting with the examinees unless they requested clarifications.

After a short warm up, the examinees were required to answer 6 questions included in each set and asked by the interlocutor (Appendix B). The examinees were neither allowed to see the questions nor given any preparation time before the exam. The questions were about different topics and were formed to elicit personal answers with some details or examples in at least two or three utterances.

The picture description task: In the *picture description* task, each examinee was given a pair of pictures which were taken in similar contexts. In one of the picture set, there are 2 different types of restaurants (one traditional and one fast food restaurant) to be compared. In the other picture set, there are two different groups of people spending time together in their own ways. The examinees were asked not only to describe both of the pictures in detail but also to compare them. The interlocutor only showed the pictures to the examinees, she did not interact with the examinee. Before the examinees started their performance, they were allowed to have a look

at the pictures for about two minutes so that they could analyze the details that they might use during the description and the comparison process.

The extended monologue task: In the *extended monologue* task, the examinees were expected to express their opinions based on a given topic by producing a two-three-minute speech. For that purpose, each student was asked whether they agreed or disagreed with one of the following statements:

1. Women are less interested in sport than men. Why (not)?
2. Students should be allowed to use their mobiles in class. Why (not)?

After the topics were assigned to students, they were given about 4-5 minutes to get prepared for their performances, and write some notes. During their performances, the students were allowed to use their notes, but they were not interrupted or prompted even if they had difficulty in extending their speech.

Three different analyses were applied to the data obtained in the study: verbal protocol analysis (VPA) followed by frequencies of the comments made by the raters for each tasktype under rubric related and non-rubric factors, content analysis (CA) of semi-structured interviews and researcher's field notes, and calculation of average scores assigned by the raters.

In order to analyze the raters' verbal reports, first audio-recorded data were transcribed and then, following Green's (1998) guidelines, segmented into meaningful units which consist of one or more utterances with a single aspect of the event as the focus. After each segment was assigned with a relevant code, a coding scheme was designed by the researcher and the reliability of the coding was checked by a second coder who was an EFL instructor with a PhD degree in ELT. The second coder was provided with a list of codes that were identified by the researcher in the verbal reports of two raters (Rater 2 and Rater 3). The second coder both segmented and coded both of the verbal reports independently. The inter-coder reliability coefficients were calculated for each verbal report separately by applying the formula provided by Miles and Huberman (1994). Reliability coefficient calculated for the verbal protocol analysis of Rater 2 was 0.91 and of Rater 3 was 0, 93.

Results and Discussion

Changes in Raters' Comments Across Task Types

According to the results of the verbal protocol analysis, the raters attended to not only the criteria given in the rating scales (54,5 %) but they also brought their own criteria into the assessment process (45,5%). The distribution of *rubric-related* and *non-rubric factors* are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution of Comments about Rubric-Related and Non-Rubric Factors Across Task Types

	Core theme	Task 1 – Question and Answer (*f*)	Task 2- Picture description (*f*)	Task 3- Extended monologue (*f*)	Total *f* (%)
Rubric-related factors	Linguistic factors	142	138	131	411
	Task-specific factors	62	52	43	157
Rubric-related factors Total		**204**	**190**	**174**	**568 (54,5 %)**
Non-rubric factors	Examinee-related	28	12	14	54
	Task-related	42	43	75	160
	Rater-related	70	102	89	261
Non – rubric factors Total		**140**	**157**	**178**	**475 (45,5 %)**
TOTAL		344	347	352	1043

As shown in Table 1, there were two core themes under *rubric-related factors: linguistic factors* and *task-specific factors*. On the other hand, under *non-rubric factors,* there were three core themes which were *examinee-related*, *task-related* and *rater-related*. Those core themes included the codes which were not presented on the rubrics given to raters but still attended by the raters while they assessed examinees' oral performances. In the assessment of *the question and answer task*, *rubric-related factors* were attended the most. This might be because of the fact that examinee performed on *the question and answer task* much longer than they did on the other tasks. Also, contrary to the other two tasks, the raters made more comments on *non – rubric factors* related to *the extended monologue* task (*f*=178). This might imply that the rubric assessing *the extended monologue* task was not as comprehensive as the rubrics assessing the other tasks, or the raters were affected more by *non-rubric factors* for some other reasons while assessing *the extended monologue* task.

Rubric-related Factors

Linguistic factors: *Linguistic factors* contained three sub-themes: *grammar*, *vocabulary* and *pronunciation*. These sub-themes contained several codes such as *grammar mistake*, *vocabulary range* or *intelligibility* which were presented in the analytic rubrics given to raters.

Table 2

Distribution of Rubric-Related Comments Across Task Types

	Core theme	Sub-theme	Task 1 – Question and Answer (*f*)	Task 2- Picture description (*f*)	Task 3- Extended monologue (*f*)	Total *f* (%)
Rubric-Related Factors	**Linguistic Factors**	Grammar	40	51	43	134
		Vocabulary	55	46	40	141
		Pronunciation	47	41	48	136
TOTAL			142	138	131	411

As Table 2 shows, among the three tasks, the *picture description* task contained the most number of comments related to *grammar* (*f*=51) and the least number of comments related to *pronunciation* (*f*=41). This was probably due to the fact that the raters paid more attention to how the language was used rather than how accurately or intelligibly it was pronounced. On the other hand, *vocabulary* was commented on the *question and answer* task more (*f*=55) than the other tasks. This might be probably because of the fact that there were six questions in this task. Each question was about a different topic, which means the examinees were expected to use a wide range of vocabulary items to succeed in the task. In terms of *pronunciation*, there was not a noteworthy difference in any tasks.

The most important task effect on rater judgment in terms of *linguistic factors* was the emergence of *task-specific grammar* expectation. This expectation emerged only in the assessment of the *picture description* task. An example comment made by Rater 6 related to *task-specific grammar* shows that in the assessment of the *picture description* task, some raters expected examinees to use certain grammatical structures such as "present continuous tense" while describing a picture. However, the rubrics did not have any descriptors clearly saying or implying the use of such structures.

Rater 6: "*Now there are some certain things to be considered in evaluating picture description. For example, did they use there is/are or present continuous tense? These were important. The examinee used all of these and she did not make any mistakes in using them, I gave her full points in grammar.*"

Non-rubric Factors:

Examinee-related factors

Examinee-related factors included two sub-themes: *examinees' behavior* and *examinees' language use*. *Examinees' behavior* involved the criteria targeting how examinees behaved during their performances on three task types. This sub-theme emerged because the raters turned out to be affected by the examinees' *self-confidence, calmness, motivation, positive attitude, effort* or *natural speech* during the exam. *Examinees' language use*, on the other hand, involved the criteria in raters' minds related to conversational skills such as how well the examinees *use conversational fillers* and *self-correct*, what *the raters' holistic impression* about the examinees is or what *the examinees' general proficiency level* is and whether the examinees *repeated the mistakes* that they made.

Table 3

Distribution of Examinee-Related Comments Across Task Types

	Core theme	Sub-theme	Task 1 – Question and Answer (*f*)	Task 2- Picture description (*f*)	Task 3- Extended monologue (*f*)	Total *f* (%)
Non-rubric factors	Examinee-related	Examinees' Behavior	16	1	5	22
		Examinees' language use	12	11	9	32
TOTAL			28	12	14	54

As presented in Table 3, e*xaminee-related factors* were referred to more in the *question and answer* task (*f*=28) than in the other two tasks. This is probably the consequence of partial interactive nature of this task since the interlocutor asked the questions and supported the examinees when needed. Although there was mostly one-way interaction in this task, it still involved two people interacting to a certain extent. Therefore, while assessing the *question and answer* task, the raters might have empathized with interlocutor and attended to the *examinee – related* criteria more. The sample comment about e*xaminee-related factors* given below shows how Rater 4 was affected by *self-confidence* of an examinee positively;

Rater 4: "*He was quite self-confident during his performance especially his confidence in pronouncing the words was what saved him…"*

Similarly, the comment below shows how Rater 3 was negatively affected by hearing the examinee's repetitive mistake in the pronunciation of a certain vocabulary item throughout the exam;

Rater 3: "*… the word 'because' was pronounced incorrectly. It was a repeatedly used word in his performance. Hearing the same mistake again and again was disturbing. I cut 0,5 point*."

In contrast, *the picture description* task involved the least number of comments related to examinees. This might result from the fact that the examinees had to deal with materials while carrying out their oral performance. To elaborate, *the picture description* task did not involve human interaction, which made human-related criteria less important. In contrast, in *the question and answer* task, examinees need to talk to an interlocutor, a real person. This means that human – related criteria, especially examinees' behavior, were more salient to the raters in the assessment of *the question and answer* task.

Rater-related factors

Analysis of raters' verbal reports demonstrated that *rater related factors* involved two sub-themes: *rater reflection* and *rater variation*. The raters not only commented on the examinees' performance but also they made some *reflections on themselves*, on the *rubrics*, and on the *success* or *failure of the examinees*. These reflections did not have any effect on the scores assigned by the raters. On the other hand, the codes emerging under *rater variation* were identified when the raters made inter or intra-examinee comparisons (*the sequence effect*), failed to differentiate the distinct criteria (*the halo effect*), avoided assigning extreme scores (*avoiding extremism*) and employed their own criteria which were not presented in the rubrics (*mental rubric*). Comments related to rater variation affected the decisions about examinees' scores.

Table 4

Distribution of Rater-Related Comments Across Task Types

Core theme	Sub-theme	Task 1 – Question and Answer (*f*)	Task 2- Picture description (*f*)	Task 3- Extended monologue (*f*)	Total *f* (%)
Rater-related	Rater Reflection	33	35	41	109
	Rater Variation	37	67	48	152
TOTAL		70	102	89	261

As shown in Table 4, regarding *rater reflection*, there was not a noteworthy difference in the number of comments made for each task. However, in terms of *rater variation*, the comments in *the picture description* task outnumbered the comments made for other tasks (*f*=67). It had almost twice as much frequency as the *question and answer* task (*f*=37). This is probably due to the fact that the *picture description* task was the second task that the raters evaluated, which increased the number *of intra-examinee sequence effect*. Likewise, the reason of low *rater variation* in the *question and answer* task was probably the lower frequency of the *sequence effect* since it was the first task that was evaluated by the raters, which made only inter-examinee comparisons possible. In other words, while evaluating the first performance, it was impossible to make comparison between the task performances of the same examinee. The second reason for the high frequency of *rater variation* in the *picture description* task was the involvement of *mental rubric* and emergence of the *halo effect* which were the highest in the *picture description* task. Sample quotations regarding the *halo effect* and *mental rubric* are as follows:

Rater 6: "*He described the pictures but did not compare them. He said very few sentences. He even did not use present continuous tense while describing the pictures. I did not hear any of the sentences that I had in my mind.*" (*Mental rubric*) (3 points)

The sample comment made by Rater 6 above shows that the rater had certain expectations related to *the picture description* task. She clearly stated that she wanted the examinee to use certain grammatical structures to describe the pictures. That is why she cut points from the *task-specific* part of the rubric and gave the examinee 3 points. However, there was not such a descriptor in the rubric given to the rater. Thus, it could be said that apart from the criteria given in the rubrics, the rater had her own criteria that she applied in her scoring.

Rater 4: "*She only described what they were doing in the pictures. She did not compare. Because her task achievement was not good, her vocabulary score automatically decreased to 4 points.*"(The halo effect)

The sample comment of rater 4 is an example of *the halo effect* that the raters faced in their scoring. While assessing *the picture description* task, Rater 4 stated that the examinee failed in the *task achievement* criteria, but instead of cutting points only on that part, she lowered her

score on the *vocabulary* criterion, too. This means that Rater 4 had failed in attending to each criterion individually, which resulted in *the halo effect*.

Task Related Factors Appear Both in Rubric-Related and Non-Rubric Criteria

Although analytic rubrics had included a *task specific* part related to the three task types, the raters still needed to mention more *task-related criteria* that were not available in the rubrics. As a result, *task-related factors* include comments about both the criteria appear in the *task specific part of the rubric* and the criteria about how examinees were expected to accomplish the task (*task completion)* that were not directly or clearly stated in the rubrics, but the raters had in their minds.

Table 5

Distribution of Comments about Task Related Factors

	Core theme	Sub-theme	Task 1 – Question and Answer (*f*)	Task 2- Picture description (*f*)	Task 3- Extended monologue (*f*)	Total *f* (%)
Task – Related Factors	Rubric related	Task specific Rubric	62	52	43	157
	Non Rubric	Task completion	42	43	75	160
TOTAL			104	95	118	317

As presented in Table 5, the findings revealed that the number of comments about *task – related factors* appearing under *non-rubric criteria* (*f*=160) slightly exceeded the number of *rubric-related* comments (*f*=157).The interpretation of it could be that for the raters, the criteria presented in the rubrics were not comprehensive enough for each of the tasks; especially for the *extended monologue task* (*f*=75) because the raters needed to attend to more criteria than they were supplied with the rubric.

After the analysis of task related comments about the criteria both in the rubrics and in raters' minds, it was observed that different task types not only share some common characteristics, but also they have distinct features. In the assessment of all the three tasks, raters paid attention to common characteristics which were already included in the rubrics such as whether the examinees *hesitated, paused, needed support or prompting* or *repeated* what they said during their performances. Raters paid attention to some more common characteristics which were not included in the rubrics but the raters thought as important such as the *amount of data* the examinees supplied, whether the examinees *presented relevant ideas, conveyed their message*, or how *fluent* the examinees' speech was. Also, all the raters *reflected on the examinees' performance in general*.

On the other hand, it was found out that while assessing *the extended monologue* task, the raters attended to certain distinct criteria. Among those, *rubric-related* criteria specific

to the *extended monologue* task were whether the examinees used *cohesive devices*, how *comprehensible* their speech was and how well they *organized their thoughts*; *non-rubric* criteria were how much they talked *off topic*, whether there was *content repetition*, whether they *read from the notes* and whether they had problems with the *time limit* by exceeding or speaking less than the given time period.

Changes in the Raters' Scores Across Task Types

In order to answer the second research question which investigated the changes in the raters' scores while assessing the three task types, mean scores assigned by each rater and the raters' semi-structured interviews were used.

Table 6

Average Scores Assigned by the Raters to each Task Type

	Question and answer	Picture description	Extended monologue
Rater 1	18,3	14,6	15,2
Rater 2	16,4	17,6	15,1
Rater 3	17,5	17	17
Rater 4	18,5	17,3	16,9
Rater 5	15,8	15,7	15,8
Rater 6	15,3	13,3	13,8
General average	17	15,9	15,6

*The scores were given out of 20 points.

Table 6 presents the mean scores assigned to each task type by the raters. Despite the inter-rater and intra-rater fluctuations, it could be clearly seen that the highest individual rater's mean scores (rater 4=18,5 and rater 1=18,3) and the highest mean score of all raters (17) belonged to *question and answer* task. This finding could stem from several reasons. First of all, in their semi-structured interviews, two of the raters expressed that the *question and answer* task was the best for assessing speaking performance. This might have affected their scores in a positive way and they might have had a tendency to award higher scores.

In the sample quotation obtained from his semi-structured interview, Rater 2 expressed why the *question and answer* task was the best task to assess speaking performance:

Rater 2: *"I think question and answer is better because it involves communication. If the questions are chosen appropriately, it is the best task to assess oral performance."*

Another reason for the higher scores assigned to the *question and answer* task might be that the examinees' performances on the *question and answer* task were far longer than the other tasks, which might have supplied more data to the raters in favor of the examinees. The length of the examinees' performances might have given the impression that the examinees were better on that task.

The results also showed that the average scores assigned to the *picture description* task and the *extended monologue* task were close. This might be interpreted in different ways. To begin with, examinees might not have performed on both of these tasks as well as they did on the *question and answer* task. This means that these tasks somehow affected the examinees' performance or the raters' scoring negatively. Secondly, although raters expressed their concerns over the *picture description* task in their semi-structured interviews and their retrospective verbal reports, their prejudice was not reflected in their scores. For example, Rater 4 was one of the four raters who favored the *extended monologue* as the best task to assess oral performance while she criticized and expressed her concern over the *picture description* task. However, despite her concerns over *picture description* task, she had the second highest average score (17,3) assigned to the *picture description* task.

The comment taken from semi-structured interview with Rater 4 can exemplify her point over these two tasks:

Rater 4: "*I think the best one is extended monologue. We can see what the examinees have in their minds. There is a lot to talk about in the questions. They have the opportunity to extend their answers. Picture description limits the examinees even more. They cannot extend their answers. We cannot see their real potential.*"

Conclusion and Implications

The study revealed that the raters attended to not only *rubric-related* but also *non-rubric factors* while assessing all the three tasks. In other words, in addition to the specified criteria, the raters considered aspects of performance that were not explicitly included in the rubrics. It can be concluded that raters tend to bring their own criteria into assessment process in all three task types used, which is quite similar to what was referred to as self-generated criteria by Meiron (1998), and some other study findings in the related literature such as Brown (2000) and Brown et al. (2005).

First of all, by combining two research questions, conclusions can be made about each target task type, namely the *question and answer*, the *picture description* and the *extended monologue*. To begin with, it was found out that the raters preferred using *question and answer* task for assessing speaking skill because it had an interactive nature and somehow enabled the examinees to talk longer. Perhaps, as a result of it, the raters assigned highest scores to performances of this task while paying more attention to *examinee – related* criteria such as *self confidence* and *mistake repetition*.

Regarding the *picture description* task, there were several conclusions. Firstly, the raters criticized the task as having a non-interactive nature and they did not comment on the *examinee – related* factors much. The raters were commonly faced with the *halo effect* and were affected by their own *mental rubric*. However, despite the differences among the raters' expectations on

the *picture description* task and their concerns over it, the raters' scores were not much lower or higher than the scores assigned to extended monologue task. Finally, some raters expected the examinees to use certain *task specific grammatical structures* in the performance of the *picture description* task whereas some of the raters did not consider the use of *task-specific grammar* as a must. Since not all the raters have the same expectations, rubric descriptors should be paid more attention and should include more details regarding the *picture description* task.

As for the findings concerning the *extended monologue* task, it was found out that comments about *non-rubric factors* were the highest in number. Those non rubric criteria were all about *task accomplishment* since perhaps this task has distinct characteristics (such as taking notes and reading from those notes) and they were not clearly included in the rubric. This can lead to a conclusion that *task-specific criteria* given in the rubric does not fulfill raters' expectations; therefore, rubrics for that task needs special care. Surprisingly, although the *extended monologue* task was not interactive, it was not criticized as much as the *picture description* task.

In terms of *rubric-related* assessment criteria in general, it could be expressed that there was an agreement among raters, since there were not noteworthy differences in their understanding of *task-specific* features stated in rubrics. Grounded on the findings, it could be concluded that except for some differences in their interpretation of certain criteria related to what is expected from *picture description* task (mentioned above), the raters were more or less in the same path in the definition of the speaking skills since they attended to similar criteria while assessing all three tasks. This finding could be considered in parallel with the study conducted by Chalhoub-Deville and Wigglesworth (2005) who concluded that native speaker raters from different nationalities agreed on the definition of the speaking construct. This finding is promising in terms of construct validity of the speaking skill. Based on the assumption that what raters commented in their verbal reports is actually the representation of the speaking construct in their minds (Davies et al., 1999), different speaking tasks do not make significant changes in their definition of speaking construct. To sum up, within the limitations of this small scale study, it can be concluded that while each task type included in this research may have some certain characteristics that are specific to only that task itself, there are still common characteristics that are shared by all three task types.

Regarding the studies in the related literature, there were contradictory results among the ones conducted statistical analysis to investigate rater variation in scores depending on different task types. Teng (2007) and Baturay et al. (2011), for example, found no differences among the raters whereas Ahmadi and Sadeghi's (2016) study revealed significant differences. Chalhoub-Deville and Wigglesworth's study (2005), on the other hand, found a difference in rater judgment concerning different tasks, but the difference was not big enough. As for the current study, according to the mean scores, the raters turned out to have assigned the highest scores to the *question and answer* task. However, it is not possible to draw a conclusion related to the task effects on the scores since no statistical analyses were conducted.

In the light of these conclusions, the current study provides useful implications for test developers, teachers and students. First of all, the study revealed that different test tasks did not create huge differences in raters' minds, but still, raters had concerns over certain tasks. In this respect, test developers should pay more attention to the limitations of the task types. Taken this into consideration, it could be suggested that a variety of task types should be employed for assessing oral performance. Another implication that could also be useful for test developers is that a separate rubric for each oral performance task should be prepared in detail considering the different aspects and requirements of the target task.

Also, there was an important implication for the teachers acting as raters. Differences in raters' scores regarding the same task or across different task types bring about the rater reliability issue. This implies a need for rater training concerning different task types since different task types may create different expectations in raters' minds. By training the raters, they could be familiarized with task requirements and their relation to rubric criteria that they are supposed to use while evaluating speaking performance.

The final implication could be for the students. Since task familiarity is important for the examinees, the students should be given more opportunity to practice speaking tasks in class so that they can perform to their highest potential in the exams. Also, task specifications and the rubrics should be shared with the students before the exams since they need to know the exam requirements.

Regarding suggestions for future research, first of all, potential effects of task types on the examinees' performances can be studied by collecting data from students as some studies in the literature revealed that students performed differently on different task types. Also, studies can be conducted on the inherent task characteristics such as the effect of topic, planning time, task difficulty and task complexity. Finally, replications of this study can be conducted with the involvement of the raters who are native speakers of English, or with the involvement of different task types.

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Appendix A – The Rubric

Linguistic part of the rubric (Same for all tasks – when answering questions about self and talking about everyday situations// when describing and comparing pictures// when talking about given topics)				Task-specific part of the rubric (Use related column for each task)		
	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Question and Answer: Comprehension & Ability to respond	Picture Description: Picture description & comparison	Extended Monologue: Comprehensibility & Discourse Management
5	Shows a good degree of control of level appropriate grammatical forms.	Uses quite a lot of level-appropriate vocabulary	Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features.	Understands the questions accurately and responds appropriately with almost no difficulty. There are a few noticeable pauses, and hesitation. Requires no support such as repetition or paraphrasing while answering.	Both describes and compares pictures with no prompting and support. There are a few false starts and reformulations.	Produces extended stretches of language with little hesitation and pauses. Clear organization of ideas. Uses a range of cohesive devices.
4	Shares the features of both bands 3 and 5					
3	Shows sufficient control of level appropriate grammatical forms.	Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary despite limited control.	Is mostly intelligible, despite limited control of phonological features.	Understands the questions accurately and responds appropriately with a little difficulty. There are some pauses, and a little hesitation. Requires some support such as repetition or paraphrasing while answering.	Both describes and compares pictures with a little prompting and support. There are some false starts and reformulations.	Produces extended stretches of language with some hesitation and pauses. Some repetition. Uses a few cohesive devices.
2	Shares the features of both bands 1and 3					
1	Shows only limited control of a few grammatical forms.	Uses isolated words and phrases.	Has very limited control of phonological features and is often unintelligible.	Has considerable difficulty understanding and responding. Full of pauses and hesitation. Requires additional support such as repetition or paraphrasing while answering.	Has considerable difficulty in both describing and comparing pictures and requires additional support and prompting. Full of false starts and reformulations.	Produces short phrases with frequent hesitation and pauses. Frequent repetition. Uses basic cohesive devices.
0	Performance below 1					

Rater's name	Grammar (5)	Vocabulary (5)	Pronunciation (5)	Task-specific part (5)	Total (20)
Student's Name					

Appendix B – Sample Questions Asked in the Question and Answer Task

- Warm up:
- How are you?
- What's your name?
- What is your department?
- Where do you live/come from?

Interview questions:

1. Is there anything you'd love to buy but you can't afford at the moment? Why do you want to buy that?

2. What's the most difficult thing about studying English? Why?

3 Is there a sport that you really like watching or doing? What is it? Why?

4. Have you ever been disappointed by a birthday present? Why?

5. Where do you live? What do you like about the area where you live? What don't you like?

6. If you had only 24 hours (one day) to live, what would you do?

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

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MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ YAYINEVİ

This book brings together a group of research studies in English language teaching (ELT) which highlight the changes and the challenges facing EFL learners, instructors, curriculum designers, school administrators and testers in the 21st century. The studies in the volume address a wide range of current issues in ELT: 21st century skills, critical thinking, multilingual professional identity, professional development, recruitment of native and non-native English-speaking teachers, World Englishes, needs analysis for learners, academic writing skills, and assessment of speaking performance. The research studies in the volume have been conducted with participants who are EFL learners, prospective teachers, instructors, administrators, and testers at various educational institutions, mainly universities, in Turkey.

The volume has been designed as a reference and resource book for researchers, academicians, postgraduate and advanced undergraduate students as well as for those ELT professionals who are interested in following current research to enhance their professional knowledge and skills.

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