CURRENT STUDIES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

EDITORS
DR. KAĞAN BÜYÜKKARCI
DR. AHMET ÖNAL

ISRES
Publishing

CURRENT STUDIES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

EDITORS

Dr. Kağan BÜYÜKKARCI

Dr. Ahmet ÖNAL

CURRENT STUDIES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Editors

Dr. Kağan BÜYÜKKARCI

Dr. Ahmet ÖNAL

InDesign

Yunus ŞENTÜRK

This book was typeset in 10/12 pt. Times New Roman, Italic, Bold and Bold Italic.

Table of Contents

FOREWORD

'Current Studies in Foreign Language Education', this comprehensive volume offers an insightful exploration of the dynamic and evolving landscape of foreign language education by touching upon the challenges, innovations, and strategies shaping the field today.

In the first chapter, Dr. Kalelioğlu and Yurtseven explore the meaning-construction processes within literary texts and reveal the challenges experienced by practitioners and students. This research underlines the significant role of semiotic analysis tools, terminology, and rules by examining the relationships between semantic layers and engaging in semiotic analysis.

Dr. Tezikova, Dr. Slyvka, Dr. Nahach, and Dr. Mishchenko, in chapter two, analyse the educational services provided within the specialized bachelor's degree program in Philology and Translation in Ukraine. The authors address the challenges faced by educational institutions and propose strategies to overcome those challenges by discussing the crucial role of key subjects, teaching methods, and learning tasks to achieve successful educational outcomes.

In chapter three, Dr. Smelianska, Dr. Ponomarenko, and Dr. Plotnikov introduce an innovative methodology program applied to EFL teacher training in Ukrainian universities. The authors offer practical examples and insights for the design and delivery of ELT methodology sessions with the integration of different approaches.

Dr. Havara, in chapter four, highlights the importance of storytelling as a teaching method in EFL classrooms to enhance creativity and imagination in teaching and learning. The chapter examines the benefits of integrating storytelling into EFL lessons in terms of improving language skills, deepening cultural understanding, and promoting student engagement.

PhD candidate Coşkun, in chapter five, provides an analysis of studies dealing with teacher research engagement with a focus on its benefits and challenges in the field of English language teaching. The author also offers suggestions to promote research engagement among English teachers, practitioners, and pre-service teachers.

Similarly, in chapter six, Dr. Ercan-Demirel explains the ways of designing English language courses and ensuring learner autonomy. The chapter indicates the importance of a collaborative approach involving both students and teachers in the decision-making process to create an engaging and supportive learning environment to support learners' self-motivation, self-engagement, and autonomy.

In chapter seven, PhD candidate Pektaş provides a systematic review of mindfulness research in ELT with a specific focus on studies conducted in Türkiye in the last decade. The chapter

aims to promote the understanding of mindfulness practices by revealing the potential impact of mindfulness on students' and teachers' language interactions, personal and professional development, resilience, well-being, and anxiety reduction.

Ersoy and Dr. Karakaş, in chapter eight, focus on the perspectives of educators in Türkiye regarding the 2018 English Language Teaching Education Program (ELTEP). The authors identify key areas for improvement based on the feedback on program components and underscore the importance of revising teacher education programs with the help of a comprehensive needs analysis in program development.

In chapter nine, Dr. Su-Bergil provides a comprehensive overview of inclusive education's content, outlines the key competencies in English language teacher training, and reveals recent trends in inclusive education in the field of ELT and EFL. Ultimately, the chapter calls for further research and adoption of inclusive principles in English language teacher education to ensure equitable access and quality education for all learners.

Dr. Öztürk, in chapter ten, explores the relationship between virtual exchange and global citizenship education in EFL classrooms. The chapter emphasizes the role of virtual exchange and global citizenship education in enhancing critical thinking skills, intercultural communicative competence, and authentic language practices.

In the next chapter, Dr. Ponomarenko, Dr. Davydenko, and Dr.Taran highlight the significance of school-based teaching practice in shaping the professional development of pre-service EFL teachers. The authors also specify the three key stages of school practice, guided observation, teacher assistantship, and observed teaching with a particular emphasis on the role, challenges, and organization of each stage.

Dr. Andruschenko and Dr. Tezikova, in chapter twelve, explore the pivotal role of academic advising and its potential applicability in higher education contexts. The chapter underlines the necessity of academic advising and tailored guidance to change learning models and meet the learner needs in the framework of internalization.

In chapter thirteen, Dr. Tunaboylu provides a framework for effective professional development activities by revealing the interconnections between reflective teaching and professional development. The chapter also serves as a proposal for designing effective professional development practices within a four-stage scheme.

In the following chapter, Dr. Kasımi discusses the benefits of adopting Mobile-Assisted Language Learning in ESL and EFL settings. Following this, the author provides suggestions

for the readers to overcome the challenges and barriers in the process of implementing MALL applications.

Dr. Höl and Fidan, in chapter fifteen, focus on standardized English language proficiency tests for young learners. The authors inform the readers about developing and utilizing standardized English language proficiency assessments for young school-age children because of their unique characteristics compared to adult learners.

In the next chapter, Dr. Yeşilyurt presents the transformative role of artificial intelligence in transforming foreign language education. Further, AI-related innovations, practical applications of AI, major AI trends in the field of language education, and ethical dimensions and challenges of AI technology are explored in this insightful chapter.

Dr. Bardakçı and Dr. Somuncu, in chapter seventeen, delve into the field of teaching pragmatics, an essential component of communicative competence, in language education. The chapter reports the impact of pragmatics instruction in developing learners' pragmatic understanding, highlighting the need for including pragmatics as a fundamental aspect of language education and preparing learners for effective communication in diverse interpersonal contexts.

In the last chapter, Dr. Ünaldı and Dr. Bardakçı focus on the unexplored role of humor in language education with its integration into the learning and teaching processes. The benefits of using humor in the classroom, the importance of aligning it with learning objectives, and making use of it as a resource for educators are explored in this chapter as well.

Embracing up-to-date topics on ELT methodology, teacher training, professional development and applied linguistics, this comprehensive volume stands out as reflecting the scholarly perspectives and research of academics from Ukraine and Türkiye.

The authors whose work is presented in this volume provides original empirical and theoretical research with enlightening findings. Thus, the content of the volume will offer highly adequate and professional insights to meet the needs of academics doing research on various branches of ELT.

Prof. Dr. Nazlı BAYKAL

Süleyman Demirel University

CHAPTER 1: THEORY AND PRACTICE: LITERARY SEMIOTICS AND TEXT ANALYSIS

Murat KALELİOĞLU iD

Hilal YURTSEVEN iD

1. Introduction

Today, all kinds of instructive or artistic texts that contain a specific message, regardless of the field, have emerged through the meaningful sequence of signs. For instance, an anatomy text for the medical sciences, a physics text for the engineering sciences, or a biology text for the natural sciences can be given as examples for the instructive text type. The other type of text appears in the artistic field, which has a robust aesthetic side and requires interpretation. On the other hand, the sub-texts that contribute to forming the central texts in the artistic field are generally narrative and representational texts. Along with the instructive texts produced by verbal and/or nonverbal signs, artistic texts have also become an essential part of the teaching/learning process. Many of the texts are frequently used as supplementary material in language classrooms. Thus, artistic texts make thematic or linguistic achievement and signification processes active and promote the teaching/learning continuum.

It is possible to shape the adjuvant process with different theoretical backgrounds, methods, and techniques. One of these theories is semiotics:

> New ways of thinking, understanding, and interpretation methods have been developed throughout human history. Humans produce meaningful structures and use various methods to comprehend them efficiently. Semiotics has gained importance as one of the study fields that analyzes conditions of sign production and their meanings. It is one of the critical scientific fields of the twenty-first century that attempts to explain the facts and phenomena of different systems belonging to nature and culture. In recent years, semiotics has interacted with different fields of science and daily life thanks to the studies done by semioticians. Thus, the study field has been associated with different disciplines, leading to increased interdisciplinary studies. Therefore, semiotics is a field of science that can signify many systems from social sciences to engineering sciences, from fine arts to natural sciences, from human sciences to everyday life (Kalelioğlu, 2023, pp. 109-110).

Semiotics closely relates to all fields of science and paves the way for interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary studies. However, perhaps since there is the investigation of an abstract concept of "meaning" at the core of semiotics, there are not many researchers and practitioners in our country who conduct studies in semiotics and transfer the results of the studies to the in-classroom teaching/learning period. For this reason, one of the key objectives of this study is to propose an applicable methodology on how semiotic theory, techniques, and analysis instruments can be used in research and classroom practice.

Since the object of this study is a literary artwork, we placed a short story genre, which is more of a narrative text type, at the center of the investigation. "The Lottery", written by Shirley Jackson, has been selected for this study. Throughout the study, how meaning is constructed in various semantic layers within the formation process and how each layer is articulated to form the semantic universe of the text by the author of the narrative will be addressed.

2. Procedure

In a semiotic analysis, meaning production occurs in different semantic layers. A meaningful whole and its semantic universe emerge thanks to the articulation of those layers. The semantic universe's structures are divided into surface and deep. There are three descriptive and narrative-semiotic levels in the surface structure and thematic level in the deep structure (Bertrand, 2000; Greimas & Courtès, 1982). Each meaning level (plane) possesses different information, contributing to the semantic universe of a meaningful whole.

The text analysis model can be applied from the surface to the deep semantic levels in classroom situations. It is possible to analyze the research object – "The Lottery" – efficiently as the analysis process provides a specific path from visible to invisible structures:
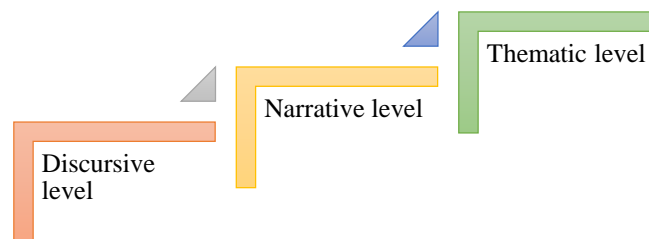
Figure 1. Semantic levels of a literary text

Accordingly, a semiotic analysis of a literary text in language classrooms will allow applicants to overcome difficulties in understanding the text deeply as they need to follow from seen to unseen structures stated in Figure 1. This is because when the representation in Figure 1 is unfolded, we come across a road map to be followed to reveal the invisible structures from the visible ones:
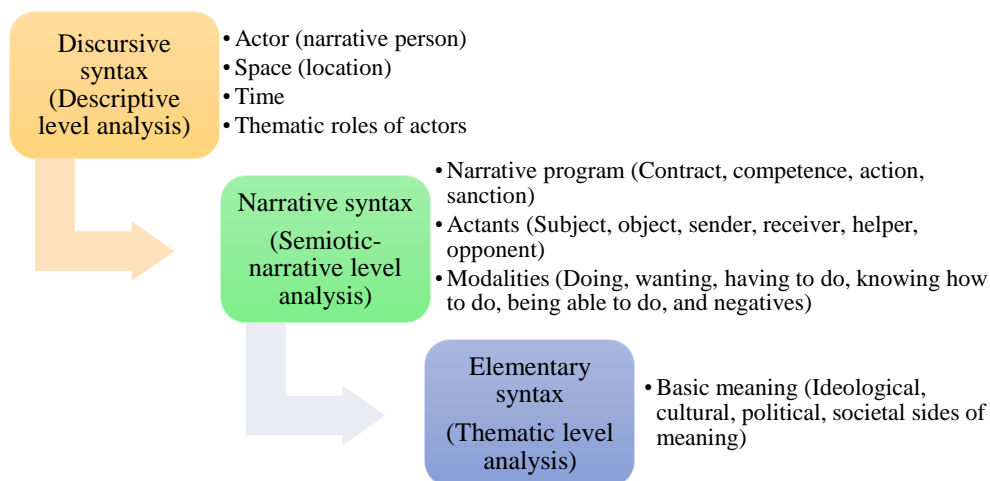
Figure 2. Formative elements of each level of a literary text (Adapted from Bertrand, 2009, p. 29)

In this context, data obtained at each level of meaning is essential to penetrate the other layers of the narrative. In a classroom examination, any of the layers of meaning given in Figure 2 can be the purpose of the practice. It would be wrong to suggest to a semiotician that an absolute order should be followed. However, since the aim here is to ensure that the subject is understood in classroom practices and to go deeper into the narrative and thus reveal the invisible meaning structures, conducting a study by following the order given in the figure would be more accurate. In this limited study, examining every constituent element shown in Figure 2 is almost impossible. However, as an example for practitioners, some critical elements that form the basis of semiotic analysis and are frequently encountered in literary studies will be emphasized.

Specifying the constituents of the fiction of the narrative as person, space, and time is vital in the descriptive narrative plane as a first step. "The discursive structure of narratives provides information about the structural status and characteristics of the constituent elements such as 'person, space, and time' that contribute to the formation of the discourse plane of the narrative" (Kalelioğlu, 2020, p. 92). Therefore, in this section of the analysis, some guiding questions will be asked to identify the referents of those formative elements, which can be barely seen in the first reading attempt. This situation can be considered an engagement with the text and a warm-up regarding the teaching and learning process. It will also help practitioners to facilitate students' learning process by providing them to realize an analysis of the process from easy to complex.

With the help of analysis of the constructive factors of the narrative, applicants can comprehend abstract structures by establishing a concrete relation between various semantic

layers and their formative elements along with the process. Such an approach helps them comprehend and describe the formative elements and criticize the relationships between all formative elements, as stated in Figure 2. Accordingly, "The Lottery" narrative will be analyzed in the context of the methodology described so far and within the framework of research questions appropriate to each level of meaning.

2.1. Descriptive Level Analysis

Person, space, and time are the critical forming elements of fiction; therefore, these factors must be defined first to demonstrate the descriptive meaning level's construction. A narrative is a text in which a series of interrelated events are narrated to the reader by placing them in a particular space and time from a point of view chosen by a particular narrator, and narrative persons are necessary to realize these events (Kalelioğlu, 2020). At this point, to identify these forming factors in the descriptive level meaning, some guiding questions, such as who the persons are, what the space is, what the time is, and their descriptive features in the narrative, should be asked during a semiotic reading. Such questions help the applicants understand the processes of actorialization, spatialization, and temporalization within the borders of the narrative. "Descriptive level has two dimensions: descriptive syntax and descriptive meaning. Descriptive syntax consists of the elements called figure, which specify narrative person, space, and time, and the isotopy formed by these figures. Descriptive meaning, on the other hand, corresponds to the semantic value signified by the figure and figurative isotopy" (Akata, 2022, p. 102). In addition, the thematic roles of the narrative persons should be identified within the reading process. These forming factors of time, space, narrative persons, and their thematic roles are intimately linked to each other to form the narrative as a meaningful whole.

The actor, time, and location should be exposed by their primary values in the narrative.

Concerning the narrative persons; their physical and psychological appearances, actions, and the other narrative characters they interact with are investigated. In terms of time, the differences and similarities between the narrative and narration tenses or the duration, historical time, and the development of incidents in the narrative over time (repetition, frequency, etc.) can be considered. As regards the location, the place that the object occupies, the size and boundaries of it, the location where the incidents occur, and displacements can be handled (Günay, 2013, p. 195).

Accordingly, to be able to display the features and the process of the formation within the narration in terms of forming factors, some guiding questions should be asked in the descriptive meaning plane. Guiding questions that help to explain the constitutive factors of the narrative are as follows (Adapted from Kalelioğlu & Büyükkarcı, 2021, p. 4):

1) How does the author set up the characterization process in the narrative? Who are the characters? What are their descriptive features and thematic roles?

2) How is the narrative spatialization constructed? What are these spaces and their concrete characteristics?

3) How did the author construct the temporalization in the narrative? What kind of descriptive features are there in this construction?

With the help of questions 1, 2, and 3, the features pertaining to person, space, and time can be easily deduced by students in the first reading. Question 1, which is about the descriptions of the narrative persons' thematic roles, would allow students to find the answers to the fictionalization of the narrative persons in terms of their functions and gained roles in the text. Hence, the constituent elements of Shirley Jackson's narrative "The Lottery" can be illustrated in the table as follows to be able to answer the questions above:

Table 1: Formative elements of the first meaning level

		Descriptive features	**Thematic roles**
(Characterization) Person	Mr. Summers (Joe, Joe Summers)	Energetic, round-faced, jovial man (p. 223), wearing clean white shirt and blue jeans (p. 224).	No children, conducted the lottery, square dances, Halloween, and teen-age club (p. 223), prepares the lists of the family names (p. 224).
	Tessie Hutchinson, Mr. Hutchinson, Tessie	Has a sweater thrown over her shoulders (p. 224).	Drying her hands on her apron (p. 224), a wife, a mother, a housewife (p. 224).
	Bill Hutchinson	Standing quiet, staring down the paper in his hand (p. 228)	Husband of Mrs. Hutchinson (p.225), father, drawing the 1st round of the lottery for his family (p. 227).
	Old Man Warner	The oldest man in town (p. 223), lucky (p. 227).	He had been in the lottery for seventy-seven years and has never drawn the paper so far (p. 227).
	Nancy (Nancy Hutchinson)	Twelve years old (p. 229).	One of the kids of Hutchinson family (p. 228).
	Bill, Jr. (Hutchinson)	Having red face and overlarge feet (p. 229).	One of the kids of Hutchinson family (p. 228)
	Little Dave (Hutchinson)	Little boy (p. 229).	One of the kids of Hutchinson family (p. 228).
	The Men	Smiled rather than laughed (p. 222).	Began to gather, watching their children, talking about planting, rain, tractors, and taxes. Standing away from the pile of stones in the

			corner, joking quietly (p. 222)
	The villagers, people of the village	Villagers (p. 222-223).	Gathering in the square (p. 222), no one liked to break the tradition represented by the black box (p. 223).
	The people	Most of them were quiet, wetting their lips, not looking around (p. 226).	had done it (the lottery) so many times (p. 226).
	Mrs. Delacroix		Wife of Mr. Delacroix (p. 226), like a friend of Mrs. Hutchinson (p. 224-225).
	The first people		First people settling down to make a village who might have done the first black box (p. 223)
	Heads of families		Heads of each household for each family (p. 224), drawing papers in the 1st round (p. 226)
	Mr. Graves		The postmaster (p. 223), preparing the papers and put them in the box for the lottery (p. 224), husband of Mrs. Graves (p. 226).
	Mrs. Graves		Wife of Mr. Graves (p.226), is the one telling Tessie everybody has the same chance in the lottery (p. 228)
	Mr. Martin		Coming forward to hold the black box steady and securely on the stool (p. 223)
	Baxter		Mr. Martin's oldest son, holding the box steady and securely on the stool (p. 223)
	Janey (Mrs. Dunbar)		Wife of Clyde Dunbar, drawing the lottery on behalf of her husband (p. 225).
	Horace	Sixteen yet (p. 225).	The Dunbars' son and is not eligible for drawing the lottery because of his age (p. 225).
	Watson (Jack Watson)	Tall (p. 225).	Watson boy, drawing the lottery on behalf of him and his mother (p. 225)
(Spatialization) Space	The village	Three hundred people living, the lottery took place (p. 222).	
	The square	Between the post office and bank (p. 222).	

	The coal-company office	Paper with black spot is prepared by Mr. Summers here (p. 230).
	A cleared space	Middle of the square where Mrs. Hutchinson is stoned (p. 230).
(Temporalization) Time	The morning of June 27th	Clear, sunny, fresh, warm summer day, profusely blossoming flowers, richly green grass (p. 222).
	The night before the lottery	Preparation of the papers by Mr. Summers and Mr. Graves (p. 224).
	Around ten o'clock	Lottery start time (p. 222).
	Every year	Time when the lottery is routinely drawn (p. 223).
	The rest of the year	The box is put away from one place to another (p. 224).
	After the lottery	Mr. Summers mentions a new box (p. 223).

Looking at Table 1, it is possible to see the traces of characterization, spatialization, and temporalization elements that Jackson used. In this table, the actors with names, descriptive features, thematic roles, different spaces, and various time frames are the elements that contribute to the formation of the characterization, spatialization, and temporalization processes to make the narrative meaningful. In responses to questions 1, 2, and 3, Mr. Summers, Mrs. Hutchinson, Bill Hutchinson, Old Man Warner, and all other figures in Table 1 are considered narrative persons; the village is considered the space, and "the morning of June 27th" (p. 222) is as time. The descriptive features of the narrative persons, space, and time in Table 1 are displayed. These features are considered the concrete data obtained from the first semantic layer.

As in the story, the space allows characters to move around and determine their fate. The village, the square, the coal company, and a cleared space are prominent spaces in the narrative because they can be seen as contributing to the ending of the main narrative person, Mrs. Hutchinson. Also, some specific time indicators emphasize the village's routineness of the lottery tradition. That is why, in terms of semiotic analysis, it is necessary to draw Table 1 to explicate the mentioned constituent elements of the narrative at the descriptive level. This will provide elbow room for the applicants from the solid to the abstract or from easy to complex to comprehend the meaning production. It would also not be wrong to say that, as seen in Table 1, the place and time, especially the narrative persons, make an essential contribution to the realization of the lottery in the narrative of "The Lottery". Considering one of the prominent narrative persons, Mrs. Hutchinson, it can be said that other narrative persons drive Mrs. Hutchinson to a dead end. Thus, the most important theme in the narrative is the realization of the lottery itself, which may be considered at the story's core. Mr. Summers's coal company office is where the papers to be picked are prepared by Mr. Summers.

In addition, considering the space in the descriptive plane in the narrative, the village in which all the narrative persons are placed can also be taken as space. There were about three hundred people in this village. The lottery takes place in the square of this village every year; therefore, the square, as another space, is vital because everybody gathers in the square to realize the lottery. Square is located "between the post office and the bank" (p. 222). This space provides a space for both the victim of the lottery and all the townspeople who are practicing the lottery. A cleared space in the middle of the square is where a stone hits Mrs. Hutchinson's head after the lottery.

The analysis did not include some of the narrative persons because they did not have function and thematic roles. Also, some place names and time indicators are not mentioned in Table 1 because of the need for descriptive features, so they are not included in the analysis. In this sense, Mrs. Hutchinson's situation changes from life to death in this village square.

As for the time, it is "the morning of June 27th, and it is a clear and sunny summer day with fresh warmth" (p. 222). At this time, "flowers were blossoming profusely, and grass was richly green" (p. 222). Again, the change in Mrs. Hutchinson's attitude and situation from life to death occurs this time. It is summertime and around ten o'clock, a proper time for everyone in the village to realize the lottery. The lottery begins at ten o'clock in the morning of June 27th every year and takes two hours. All the indicators of time given in Table 1, such as *the morning of June 27th, the night before the lottery, around ten o'clock every year, the rest of the year, and after the lottery*, are essential for realizing the lottery tradition. These elements include the preparation information, the routineness, realization time, and the repetition of the lottery.

Regarding the thematic roles of the narrative persons as responses to the 1st question, Mr. Summers can be viewed as one of the prominent narrative persons. "The lottery was conducted—as were the square dances, the teen-age club, the Halloween program—by Mr. Summers, who had time and energy to devote to civic activities" (p. 223). Mr. Summers is the conductor of the lottery, and he is the one who is "talking again about a new box" (p. 223). "The black spot Mr. Summers had made the night before with the heavy pencil in the coal-company office" (p. 230). As a conductor, Mr. Summers prepares the papers for the realization of the lottery. Also, Mr. Graves is like a helper for the realization of the lottery in the village. "Mr. Summers and Mr. Graves made up the slips of paper and put them in the box" (p. 224). At the time of the lottery, Mr. Summers calls the family names from A to Z, so the heads of the families come forward to draw the lottery and pick up a folded paper from the black box. Almost all the heads of the families contribute to the execution of the lottery, and Mr. Summers is very

careful about announcing the family names and does not miss any family. So, being a family member of the Hutchinson family, Tessie Hutchinson has no chance of being exempted from the lottery like other families in the town. The presence of the narrative persons in the narrative is crucial in constructing the meaning because these narrative persons affect one another in a way. Therefore, the narrative persons' contributions from old to very young to the lottery emphasize the importance of the lottery because almost no one objects to or challenges the lottery except Mrs. Hutchinson. This lottery is a tradition in this village, and all the villagers comply with the tradition every year.

Another narrative person, Old Man Warner, is the evidence of this traditional lottery as the oldest man in town, who experiences the lottery every year. "Seventy-seventh year I been in the lottery" (p. 227). Every year, he draws the lottery but never picked the paper with black spot. Considering the thematic role of Old Man Warner, he also knows about how the lottery used to be in the past and the ritual about it. He can be considered one of the supporters of the lottery. "…used to be a saying about 'lottery in June, corn be heavy soon.' There's always been a lottery" (p. 227). Even though Mr. Adams mentions, "some places have already quit lotteries" (p. 227), Old Man Warner seems to be so stuck to this tradition. The absence of the lottery means "nothing but trouble in that" (p. 227) for Old Man Warner, so this old man's strict stance on the lottery did not make things easier for Mrs. Hutchinson. After Mr. Adam's statement about other towns quitting the lottery, Old Man Warner defends it vigorously. He does not even consider the possibility of giving up this traditional lottery.

Especially Mrs. Delacroix and Mrs. Graves are the ones who are among the women in the town, and they do not support Mrs. Hutchinson. Mrs. Delacroix tells Tessi, "Be a good sport, Tessie" (p. 228) after the first round of the lottery, even though she seems like a friend of Tessie. She does not show any sign of support towards Tessie's protest. Also, Mrs. Graves does not show a supportive manner towards Tessie by saying, "All of us took the same chance" (p. 228). Bill Hutchinson, one of the men in town and husband of Tessie, does not behave differently than these women. Regarding his thematic role, after he draws the paper with black spot for his household and after Tessie's protest, he says, "Shut up, Tessie" (p. 228). Therefore, during the narrative, any alteration in the situation regarding life and death cannot be observed for all the narrative persons mentioned above and in Table 1, except Mrs. Hutchinson in the descriptive plane.

One of the other narrative persons is Mrs. Hutchinson, and she is the one who picks the paper with black spot in the second round of the lottery after her husband draws the lottery on behalf

of his family. In Mrs. Hutchinson's case, Bill's picking up the paper causes a change in her attitude, and that makes her a significant person in the narrative. "Mrs. Hutchinson came hurriedly along the path to the square" (p. 224). "I remembered it was the twenty-seventh and came a-running" (p. 224). "Get up there, Bill," Mrs. Hutchinson said" (p. 226). However, after Bill Hutchinson's drawing first round of the lottery, Tessie's discourse changes as "suddenly, Tessie Hutchinson shouted to Mr. Summers, "You didn't give him time enough to take any paper he wanted. I saw you. It wasn't fair!" (p. 228).

Table 2: Transformation in the attitude of Mrs. Hutchinson

Attitude I	Transformation	Attitude II
Supporting/Complying	→	Complaining/Protesting

Table 2 shows Mrs. Hutchinson's attitude transformation towards the lottery. In terms of semiotics, change in situation is important because changes or transformations create contrary situations, which lead to another situation in narratives. These changes or transformation takes place in various ways:

> It can take many forms, such as the lack of a possessed object, the possession of a missing object, the sudden disruption of an orderly life, or the cessation of complex interpersonal relationships. In other words, these transformations can be from negative to positive or from positive to negative. These structures indicate situations and transformations in the narrative (Akata et al., 2021, p. 27).

Before Bill drew the paper, she seemed to be used to this situation and complied with the traditional lottery every year. At this point, she is alive, and she has not drawn the lottery yet. It is evident that there is a transformation in Mrs. Hutchinson's attitude to the lottery because of Bill's drawing picking up the paper with black spot at first, and this change creates a contrast between her attitudes. Based on Mrs. Hutchinson's discourse of "it wasn't fair!" (p. 228), the shift in her attitude can be demonstrated in Table 2. These contrasts affect each other and are important for the semiotic analysis of the narrative because these contrasts determined at the descriptive level help produce meaning. Table 2 provides an opportunity to see these changes and transformations by comparing the situation at the beginning, development, and end stages in the narrative regarding the concept of attitude. According to Table 2, Mrs. Hutchinson, as a narrative person, supports the lottery and complies with it as everybody in the town. After Bill draws the lottery on behalf of the family in the first round, Tessie undergoes a transformation in her attitude. Her behavior towards the lottery is contradictory, from being a supporter to complaining. Hence, based on the representation of the transformation in Table 2, an opposition can be created as follows:

Before drawing the Lottery

After drawing the Lottery

Supporting
Complying

Protesting
Complaining
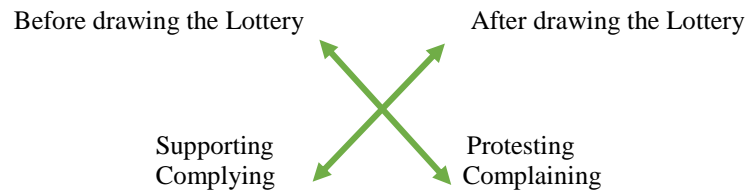
Figure 3. Contrasting situations of Mrs. Hutchinson in terms of attitude

Mrs. Hutchinson's transformation in attitude is evident based on the opposing signs in the descriptive plane stemming from the realization of the lottery in Figure 3. Thus, Mrs. Hutchinson's transformation in her attitude can be associated with the realization of the lottery on behalf of her family, which becomes present on the morning of the 27th of June in an unknown year. It would be right to think that when complying with the lottery before Bill's drawing the paper, it is expected from Tessie to support the lottery. Nevertheless, after the first round of the lottery, with the increasing chance of drawing the paper with black spot, Tessie's attitude transforms from supporting to complaining even within the same lottery. That opposition can also be viewed in Tessie's discourses from "get up there, Bill" (p. 226) to "it wasn't fair!" (p. 228).

However, the second round of the lottery among the Hutchinson family completely changes the state of Mrs. Hutchinson from being alive to being dead. She cannot escape from the lottery, and the consequence of it is stoning to death for the one who draws the paper with black spot. "Tessie Hutchinson was in the center of a cleared space by now. […] A stone hit her on the side of the head. […] Mrs. Hutchinson screamed, and then they were upon her" (p. 230).

Table 3: Transformation in the state of Mrs. Hutchinson

State I	Transformation	State II
Alive	→	Dead

As seen in Table 3, Mrs. Hutchinson's state transforms from being alive to dead after the second round of the lottery. Her situation has undergone a transformation both in terms of attitude and her vital state. As in Tables 2 and 3, a contradiction in Tessie's situation can be mentioned. Mrs. Hutchinson's discourse was "it wasn't fair!" (p. 228) while she was alive, and her discourse after the second round of the lottery changes into "it isn't fair, it isn't right" (p. 230). Based on a semiotic reading, an opposition can be formed according to the transformations in Tables 2 and 3 regarding the existence and realization of the lottery. The data in Tables 2 and 3 can be accepted as signs which are in relation to each other. Therefore,

Table 3 is also formed to show Mrs. Hutchinson's second transformation regarding life and death.

Based on the interaction and triggering of the contrasting situations in Tables 2 and 3, a new opposition can be formed for Mrs. Hutchinson's inevitable end as follows:

Life   Death

After the first round   After the second round
of the lottery   of the lottery
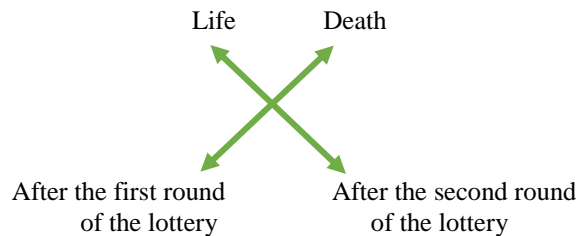
Figure 4. Contrasting situations affecting Mrs. Hutchinson's vital state

After the second round of the lottery, drawing the paper with the back spot, Tessie undergoes a transformation based on the opposing situations in Figure 4 in the descriptive plane. From a semiotic point of view, it is possible to examine these transformations in which Mrs. Hutchinson is affected and changed in opposition. Death is inevitable with the presence of the lottery for Tessie in the second round. Based on Tables 2 and 3, this transformation raises a question. Therefore, the lottery plays a crucial role in changing Mrs. Hutchinson's state from life to death.

Semiotics has identified especially the dichotomies of *life/death* and *nature/culture* in association with general, universal, logical, abstract, and deep oppositions (Rifat, 2011). In terms of semiotics, the opposition of death and life can be associated with the lottery tradition, which will guide us in understanding the formation of meaning in the following stages of the analysis. Accordingly, these oppositions are the structures that will aid in reaching deep and abstract logic and thus pave the way for understanding the fundamental structures of meaning production. Identifying such oppositions and transformations mentioned above will help to move deeper into the meaning universe of this narrative in the following stages of the analysis. The community in this town does not object to the lottery. It is willing to implement it, so the individual objection of Mrs. Hutchinson against the will of this community does not change the lottery practice. The fact that the thematic roles of the narrative persons in the descriptive plane were in favor of the lottery also changed Mrs. Hutchinson's situation from life to death in the end.

In this part of the analysis, according to the three guiding questions, the descriptive plane has been analyzed within the scope of the constituting elements, such as person, space, and time. The method followed here is transferable to classroom work. Text analysis courses

utilizing semiotics can be conducted at this level within the framework of the duration of the lesson. Subsequent semantic level examinations can be the subject of the following lessons.

2.2. Narrative Level Analysis

In the previous stage, the analysis of the constituent elements of the descriptive plane was carried out, so it is necessary to point out that some elements also constitute the narrative plane. "The way followed in analyzing the structures that represent different meaning layers of the narratives is from solid to abstract because that gives the opportunity to follow a path from visible to invisible" (Kalelioğlu, 2020, p. 114). Therefore, the thematic-level analysis of the narrative would be more abstract than the narrative-level analysis. From a semiotic point of view, this will allow the reader to better understand the structure of each meaning layer and the functions of the constituent elements of each meaning layer for any narrative. Accordingly, each narrative has a systematic structure within its general structure in forming its meaning universe. Thus, the reader has a meaningful whole when he or she holds a narrative in his or her hands.

As in the descriptive plane, constituent elements in the narrative plane contribute to the semantic universe formation. One of the constituent elements of the descriptive plane is the *person*. The narrative persons created in "The Lottery" on the descriptive meaning plane were examined only regarding their placement and thematic roles. "An actant can be thought of as that which accomplishes or undergoes an act, independently of all other determinations" (Greimas & Courtés, 1982, p. 5). Based on the definition of Greimas and Courtés, it can be said that an *actor* (person) becomes a functional *actant*, so the persons who are passive in the descriptive plane are the active actants in the narrative-semiotic plane. Here, the actant can be considered as the subject of doing in terms of being an active actor because, in the narrative plane, the characters' actions as actants and the results of these actions are important. In semiotics, 'actant' is a different type of subject that replaces each subject encountered in a narrative and has multiple functions (Kalelioğlu, 2020). So, the aim must be examining the actions of the actants and uncovering their functions because this would help to find out the relationship of the narrative-semiotic plane with other descriptive and deep planes. Also, the relationships of the actants with each other and their functions are important in the narrative in terms of actantial syntax.

Greimas reclassified the thirty-one functions identified by Vladimir Propp in his analysis of fairy tales and developed a model of six types of actants, placing them in a general actantial scheme (Rifat, 2019). These actants are the sender, object, subject, opponent, receiver, and

helper (2019). As it is seen, these six actant types are about their functions, so what the six actants do and how they function is much more important than who they are in the narrative plane. In a way, the actions of the actants and the consequences of their actions shape the narrative in terms of certain situations and transformations. As it is known, in Greimas' actantial scheme, only the subject has to be human; other actants can be animate and inanimate, an object, an abstract concept, a community, or, of course, a person (Çanakpınar, 2022). Therefore, it is the actions of the subject that shape the narrative. "The narrative program is to be interpreted as a change of state effected by any subject (S1) affecting any subject (S2)" (Greimas & Courtés, 1982, p. 245).

To talk about the narrative program here, a chain of events follows one another in a sequential relationship regarding the interaction between actants. While revealing the syntactic structure of narratives, it is necessary to pay attention to the functions of the actants, their actions, and the new situations arising from them. "A successful narrative program leads to another narrative program, and the narrative flows at its own pace" (Kalelioğlu, 2020, p. 124). Thus, dividing the narrative into segments is crucial to easily identify actants, their functions, and new situations in semiotics. These segments can also be called narrative programs (N_p). Based on this, the narrative program consists of primary and sub-narrative programs. The analysis can be performed on these narrative programs because the continuity of the main narrative program depends on the sub-narrative programs.
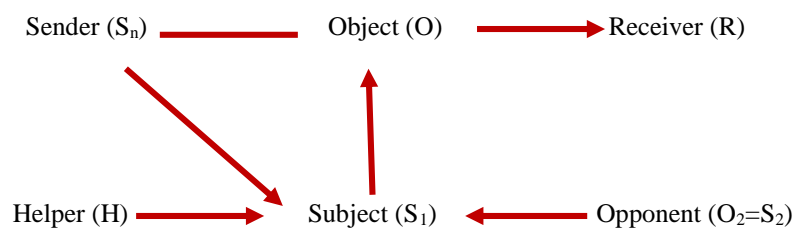
Figure 5. Actantial Schema

It is likely to come across many actants in Shirley Jackson's narrative of "The Lottery", but the roles and qualities of these actants are in the foreground. Thus, the functions and the names of narrative persons as actants in the narrative plane can be adapted to an actantial schema based on the types of actants developed by Greimas, as in Figure 5. In the process of applying the functions and the names of the actants to an actantial schema for the narrative of "The Lottery", various types of sub-narrative programs, which contribute to the main narrative program, might be identified, depending on the situational changes. The data determined in the descriptive meaning plane will be tried to be applied in the narrative plane in association with Tables 2 and

3 and Figures 3 and 4. In this sense, considering the transformations Mrs. Hutchinson, as a narrative person, becomes crucial in the main narrative program. The main narrative program is the event that happened to Mrs. Hutchinson based on the townspeople's attitudes, accustomedness, and the traditional lottery practiced every year.

As in every narrative, there are also situations and transformations in the "The Lottery" narrative. They are related to the narrative stages, such as the *initial, development, and final stages*. The situational transformations can be observed at the initial and final stages. Accordingly, Tables 2 and 3 can be considered the displays of these situational transformations, such as *State I*, *State II*, and *Attitude I* and *Attitude II*. Therefore, the actants, their actions, interactions with each other, and events reflect the dynamism of the narrative discourse. With this dynamism, the narrative flows, and transformations from one state to another occur. Therefore, dividing the study object into segments is essential based on Greimas' narrative program. This segmentation would be helpful to track the initial, development, and final stages of the "The Lottery" narrative in terms of transformations.

In this regard, Mrs. Hutchinson's transformations should be considered for such a segmentation. Thus, a few guiding points can be directed to divide the narrative into segmentations as follows:

1) Considering the main narrative person(s), form a table showing the narrative stages, such as initial, development, and final.

2) Identify the alterations as situation/transformation/new situation based on the actions of the actants pointed out in the narrative program.

Table 4: Narrative stages based on transformations

	Narrative Stages		
	Initial	Development	Final
Situation/ Transformation/ New Situation in terms of attitude →	Mrs. Hutchinson remembers the lottery date and comes to the square running.	She comes over to her husband's side and speaks supportively, saying, "Get up there, Bill" (p. 226) when their family name is called out while lots are being drawn. Bill draws the paper with black mark on behalf of his family, which causes the transformation in Tessie.	Mrs. Hutchinson suddenly starts to shout, complaining that her husband was not given enough time and that it was unfair.
	Supporting attitude (Situation)	Transformation	Protesting attitude (New situation)
Situation/	Before the second round of the lottery, Mrs. Hutchinson tells her two	The second round of the lottery begins and is drawn within the	After Tessie's picking the paper with black spot is revealed, people start

Transformation/ New Situation in terms of vital state →	married daughters' names and still protests that it is unfair. She is alive while protesting the 1sr round of the lottery.	Hutchinson family. Tessie looks around defiantly and, gets a piece of paper for herself from the box and folds it. That is the cause of the transformation in her vital state.	taking the stones in their hands. A stone hit the side of Tessie's head, and the villagers were upon her. That is the dramatic end of her.
	Alive (State)	Transformation	Dead (New State)

The main starting point of this segmentation, demonstrated in Table 4, is the main narrative person, Mrs. Hutchinson. Thus, in response to question 1, narrative stages are demonstrated according to situational transformations such as attitude and vital state during the narrative. Furthermore, this table is drawn according to the main narrative person of Mrs. Hutchinson's condition because she is the one who has undergone a transformation. Additionally, for the second question, according to Mrs. Hutchinson, state/transformation/new state features in the narrative program have been specified in 2 states, such as supportive/protesting and alive/dead. The transformations Mrs. Hutchinson experienced both in the first and second rounds of the lottery are the indicators of the narrative stages. Also, these transformations are associated with Tables 2 and 3 at the descriptive semantic level. According to Table 4 and Greimas' actantial schema model based on the types of six actants, an actantial schema can be created for the main narrative person, Mrs. Hutchinson, in terms of a mutual relationship between the subject and the object of the narrative. At this point, a third question can be asked to create the schema:

3) How is the relationship between Mrs. Hutchinson and other actants regarding her participation in the lottery?
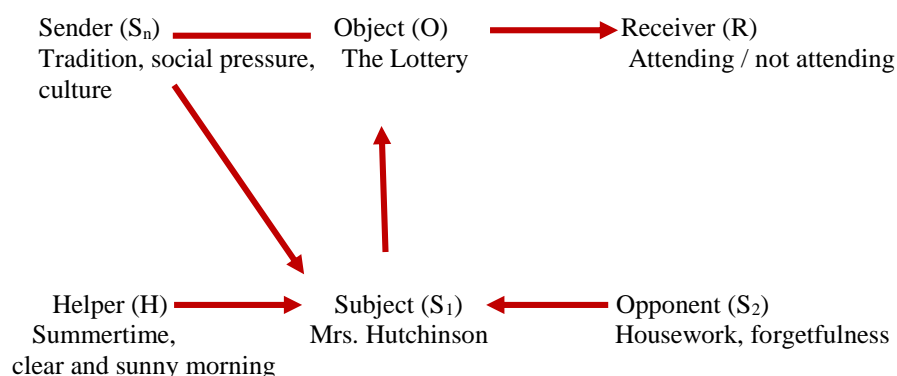

Figure 6. Actantial Schema of Mrs. Hutchinson in the realization of the tradition

The model of "actants focuses directly on the Object that the Subject aims to reach and is positioned as a unit of communication between the Sender and the Receiver" (Rifat, 2019, p.

74). Therefore, according to Figure 6, as a response to the third question, there is an agreement between the Sender (S_n) and the Subject (S_1). This agreement is related to the Object (O), namely the lottery itself. The subject/object relationship in Figure 6 depends primarily on the sender/subject agreement. Thus, Mrs. Hutchinson must go to the town square for the sake of the lottery tradition. She is compelled to take this action by the conditions of the town where she lives, which is that the lottery must be held yearly. Mrs. Hutchinson accepts and even supports this situation (the lottery); therefore, she has agreed with the sender to carry out the action. Mrs. Hutchinson keeps her agreement with the sender and arrives at the square. Hence, a meaningful relationship has been established between Mrs. Hutchinson, the subject of doing (S1), and the tradition, social pressure, and culture as the sender (S_n). This agreement is in relation to the object, namely the lottery itself.

It can be understood from the Figure 6 that there are helpers (H) and opponents (S_2) with Mrs. Hutchinson (S1):

> Mrs. Hutchinson came hurriedly along the path to the square, her sweater thrown over her shoulders, […] "**Clean forgot what day it was**" she said to Mrs. Delacroix, who stood next to her, and they both laughed softly. "**Thought my old man was out back stacking wood**" Mrs. Hutchinson went on. "And then I looked out the window and the **kids was gone**, and then I **remembered** it was **the twenty-seventh** and **came a-running.**" She **dried** her hands on her **apron**, and Mrs. Delacroix said, "You're in time, though" (p. 224).

Based on the excerpt above, the opponents (S2) can be considered the housework she had been doing before she came to the square and the forgetfulness stemming from the housework. Also, it is evident in the excerpt that her hands are still wet, and she dried her hands when she arrived at the square. The housework must have kept her busy, so she forgot the lottery time. However, when she remembers the date, she overcomes the opponents; that is her forgetfulness. Whatever Mrs. Hutchinson has been doing with the apron, she is still wearing it. Then she quits what she has been doing and comes running. As an acting subject, Mrs. Hutchinson manages to be with the value object despite the obstacles shown in Figure 6 and the excerpt.

However, Mrs. Hutchinson has the helpers as well as the opponents. Accordingly, in terms of weather conditions, the summer season contributes to Mrs. Hutchinson's more effortless arrival at the square.

> The **morning** of **June 27th** was **clear and sunny**, with the fresh warmth of a full **summer day**; the flowers were blossoming profusely and the grass was richly green. The people of the village began to gather in the **square**, between the post office and the bank, around ten o'clock […] so it could begin at ten o'clock in the morning and **still be through in time to allow the villagers to get home for noon dinner** (p. 222).

Considering Mrs. Hutchinson's situation, the fact that it was ten o'clock in the morning meant that she would have plenty of time to do her chores after the tradition was fulfilled.

Therefore, this is a helpful situation for Mrs. Hutchinson. It is also a time of year that makes it easier for everyone in the village to be in the square to participate in the lottery. As a result, upon realizing the lottery, Mrs. Hutchinson comes to the square to attend the lottery and positively completes the narrative program.

This situation points to the transformations that will occur because of Mrs. Hutchinson's action of attending the lottery. Thanks to this transformation, there is a difference between the situation at the beginning and the end of this narrative program that can be shown as

$(S1 \vee O \wedge S2)$ ⟶ $(S1 \wedge O \vee S2)$.

Therefore, according to Figure 6, Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) reaches the value object and completes the narrative program positively $(S1 \wedge O \vee S2)$. Considering the space, Mrs. Hutchinson changes her position from being at home to being at the square with the positive outcome of this narrative program. So, the narrative program leads to the emergence of another narrative program.

Even though Mrs. Hutchinson reaches the value object (O), which is associated with the realization of the lottery tradition after the first and second rounds, transformations occur in her attitude towards the lottery and her vital state. At first, she seems to be supporting and complying with that tradition. Also, her state undergoes a transformation from being alive to being dead. At this point, to be able to explicate the relation between Mrs. Hutchinson and other actant(s) in terms of the biggest and the most critical transformations in her condition, a question comes to mind to be answered as follows:

4) Explain the relationship between the main narrative person, Mrs. Hutchinson, and other actant(s) in terms of the transformations during the realization of the lottery:
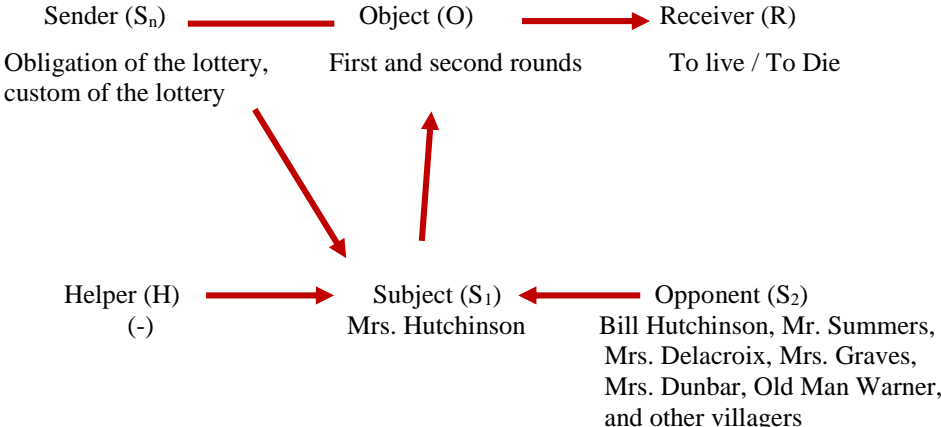

Figure 7. 2nd Actantial Schema of Mrs. Hutchinson in the realization of the first and second rounds of the lottery

Figure 7 demonstrates Mrs. Hutchinson's relational values with other actants in the narrative in terms of the first and the second rounds of the lottery. Here, an agreement between the obligation of the lottery and custom (sender) and the subject of doing Mrs. Hutchinson is established. This agreement concerns the Object (O) realization of the lottery rounds. Therefore, the obligation of the lottery and the custom (sender) imposes on Mrs. Hutchinson (subject of doing) that Bill draws the paper on behalf of the family in the first round of the lottery (object). "Get up there, Bill' Mrs. Hutchinson said, and the people near her laughed" (p. 226), as it is seen that Mrs. Hutchinson supports the tradition of the lottery at the beginning. Since Tessie may have thought that her family would not win the lottery in the first round, the value object she wants to achieve is that her family's name is not called at the end of the first round of the lottery. Each subject of doing in this process has helpers and opponents, but here, in Mrs. Hutchinson's case, it is different. It is difficult for Tessie, who wants to reach the object value as soon as possible, because she has no support to help her. The situation could have been different if only the heads of the family had not picked the paper.

According to the second round of the lottery, Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) must draw a paper because a person will be determined within the Hutchinson family. Due to the luck factor in the nature of the lottery, it can be said that Ms. Hutchinson is likely to draw the paper with black spot. Also, in the second round of the lottery, she does not have helpers but opponents. As a result of the second round of the lottery, it is possible that Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) wants to survive by achieving the value object (O) in relation to the second round of the lottery. That is why she immediately tells the names of her married daughters to Mr. Summers (S2), intending to involve them in the lottery. She may act according to her primitive human instinct to survive, so she does not think about her daughters' lives because the inevitable consequence of the lottery is death by stoning. Maybe she tries to increase her chance of living so that she will draw a blank paper in the second round of the lottery. However, it is difficult for Mrs. Hutchinson to reach the value object (O) because her opponents prevent her in almost all circumstances.

Considering the opponents (S2) of Mrs. Hutchinson, as in Figure 7, it is as if they all prevented Tessie from reaching her value object by acting in the opposite direction to her protest. At the end of the first round of the lottery, it was determined that it was the Hutchinson family. At first, the lottery seems to affect the entire Hutchinson family, but it also affects Mrs. Hutchinson solely. Thus, Mrs. Hutchinson cannot pick the paper from the black box in the first round of the lottery because tradition dictates that heads of families must draw the lottery in the

first round. Therefore, under the agreement with the sender, the subject (S1), Mrs. Hutchinson, has no other choice and must do her part to make this lottery happen.

"Now, I'll read the names-**heads of families first**-and the men come up and take a paper out of the box. (p. 226).
Then the voices began to say, "**It's Hutchinson**. It's Bill," "**Bill Hutchinson's got it**" (p. 227).
Suddenly, Tessie Hutchinson shouted to Mr. Summers. "You didn't give him **time enough to take any paper** he wanted. I saw you. **It wasn't fair**!" (p. 228).
"**Be a good sport, Tessie**," Mrs. Delacroix called, and Mrs. Graves said, "**All of us took the same chance**" (p. 228).
"**Shut up, Tessie**," Bill Hutchinson said (p. 228).
"There's **Don and Eva**," Mrs. Hutchinson yelled. "Make them **take their chance**!" (p. 228).
"**Daughters draw with their husbands' families**, Tessie, "Mr. Summers said gently." "**You know that** as well as anyone else" (p. 228).
"My daughter **draws with her husband's family**; **that's only fair**. And I've got no other family except the kids" (p. 228).
"I think **we ought to start over**," Mrs. Hutchinson said, as quietly as she could. "I tell you **it wasn't fair**. (p. 228).
"It's **Tessie**," Mr. Summers said. (p. 229).
"All right, folks," Mr. Summers said. "Let's **finish quickly**." (p. 230).
Mrs. Delacroix selected **a stone so large** she had to pick it up **with both hands** and turned to Mrs. Dunbar. "**Come on**," she said. "**Hurry up**." (p. 230).
"**A stone** hit her on the side of the head. (p. 230).
Old Man Warner was saying, "**Come on, come on, everyone**." (p. 230).
"It **isn't fair**, it **isn't right**," Mrs. Hutchinson **screamed**, and then they were **upon her**" (p. 230).

As can be observed in the excerpts above, the opponents (S2) of Mrs. Hutchinson act in an opposite way to her protest. In this case, it can be assumed that she wanted the lottery to be redrawn, saying that it was unfair. Despite her protest about the lottery being unfair for the first round, Mr. Summers, Bill Hutchinson (her husband), Mrs. Delacroix, and Mrs. Graves as the opponents (S2) act to hinder Mrs. Hutchinson, making the situation dire for her. Therefore, no matter how much Mrs. Hutchinson protests, even naming her married daughters in this sense, she can never get a positive response from her opponents. In this situation, Mrs. Hutchinson has no option. The opponents are a serious obstacle for Mrs. Hutchinson fulfilling her contract with the sender (Sn). Again, based on the excerpts above, despite her protests to increase her chance in the second round of the lottery, one of the opponents (S2), Mr. Summers, hinders Mrs. Hutchinson that married daughters can be involved in this lottery round. At this point, it is impossible to redraw the lottery for Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) because all the opponents (S2) want to finalize the event, transforming Mrs. Hutchinson's vital situation, which cannot be taken back. The opponents (S2), Mr. Summers, Old Man Warner, Mrs. Delacroix, and Mrs. Dunbar, are the ones who want to be hurried to end this brutal event. Old Man Warner (S2) tells other villagers to join by calling, "come on everyone." Mrs. Delacroix (S2) takes a large stone and directs Mrs. Dunbar to hurry to stone Mrs. Hutchinson. Even though Tessie (S1) still says "it isn't fair" (p. 230), it does not matter because a stone hit her on the side of the head.

However, according to Figure 7, Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) cannot reach her value object (O) related to just realizing the tradition, based on maybe her assumption that another family name would be called. Due to reasons beyond her control, she could not get the lottery to be drawn again, which would enable the possibility of not calling her family's name. Thus, Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) completes this narrative program negatively, in terms of being alive to being dead. In terms of semiotics, this situation is represented as (S1 ∨ O ∧ S2). Thus, Mrs. Hutchinson's attainment of the value object (O), the first and second rounds of the lottery related to surviving, was inconclusive and cost her life. Although Mrs. Hutchinson was initially a supporter, she lost her life to fulfill the lottery tradition. Compliance with the tradition of the town's lottery, in which she lives, is a situation in which Mrs. Hutchinson has been involved from the beginning, and she has not been able to escape from the brutal outcome in the end. Despite all her protests, Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) could not reach the value object (O) and lost her life by being fatally stoned. That transformed her vital state from life to death. As pointed out previously, Mrs. Hutchinson (S1) completed this last narrative program unsuccessfully (S1 ∨ O ∧ S2).

In this narrative-level analysis, some data was also obtained, and based on the relationship between different semantic layers, the obtained data is the expansion of Tables 2 and 3 created at the descriptive level. Explanations on why and how the transformations in Tables 2 and 3 of the descriptive level emerged are given in this section, where the situation/transformation/new situation shown in Table 4 is detailed, and the actantial schemas created in Figures 6 and 7 are interpreted.

Based on the situation transformations determined in Table 2, a meaning should be inferred because the descriptive plane does not say anything about meaning but gives an impression. Accordingly, thanks to these narrative programs at the narrative level, there is a close connection between the data at the descriptive level and the evaluations at the narrative level. It is necessary to look at the relationship of these signs with other signs in the same system to make the signification and comment on the actants and the programs they are in. Therefore, it would not be wrong to say that that signification process is related to the actants, their roles and actions, and the cause-and-effect relationship between different semantic planes. Thus, the transformation in the attitude of Mrs. Hutchinson from being supportive to a new attitude of protesting in Table 2 can be possible with Bill Hutchinson as the opponent (S2) in Figure 7 by drawing the paper in the first round of the lottery and having no helper (H). As for Table 3 regarding situation transformation, the actantial schema in Figure 7, which includes a cause-

and-effect relationship, is in relation to Mrs. Hutchinson's vital state transformation. Therefore, the facts leading to the transformation from life to death are that Mrs. Hutchinson, the subject of doing (S1), drawing the paper with black spot in the second round of the lottery, having no helpers (H) and that the opponents' (S2) prevention her despite all her objections to survive. According to Figure 7, the opponents (S2) and the sender (Sn) lead to such a transformation in Mrs. Hutchinson's (S1) vital state.

As explained above, there is a cause-and-effect relationship between narrative programs. The transformation taking place within each narrative program leads to the next program. While a narrative program is concluded with the actions of the actants, on the other hand, a change occurs in the narrative persons. These transformations provide a dynamism within the narrative depending on some causes, such as the actions of the actants. Within this process, meaning emerges and is produced, stemming from the articulation of these narrative programs, actants, their actions, and the transformations based on dynamism. Narrative programs, which include transformations, do not make sense on their own; that is, they can be considered as signs on their own. Likewise, when actants are considered signs, there is a relationship between narrative programs and actants within their systems.

Moreover, they are associated with other actants and narrative programs within their systems. Therefore, the descriptive plane does not explain why these transformations occur because this depends on the actions of the actant. While the descriptive plane gives the data about the descriptive features of the constituent elements of the narrative, such as actants, the narrative plane explains the cause-and-effect relationship between the actants and between the narrative programs based on the data obtained in the descriptive plane. As seen in this narrative-level analysis, each action caused a transformation and a new narrative program whose results led to one another. That is why the narrative semantic plane can be considered the semiotic-narrative plane in which there is a dynamism based on the actions of the actants and transformations.

2.3. Thematic Level Analysis

This semantic level is the most abstract one compared to the previous levels. "This is the level of abstract or conceptual syntax where the fundamental values which generate a text are articulated" (Martin & Ringham, 2006, p. 12). In this abstract plane, the values and characteristics assumed by time, space, person, and objects in the deep structure begin to emerge in relation to the invisible behind the visible in terms of semiotics.

The data obtained in the descriptive plane and semiotic-narrative plane play a crucial role here because there were some oppositional relations determined in the previous planes, and these oppositions would give an opportunity to analyze the deep structure of the narrative. Such an approach to the formulation of semiotic square utilizing the oppositional values observed in discursive and narrative levels can be seen in other semiotic examinations (for more details, see Büyükkarcı, 2021; Büyükkarcı, 2023). Accordingly, ideological and philosophical foundations value the narrative based on, and the deep structure of the narrative are tried to be examined in this semantic plane.

In this respect, it would be appropriate to use the *semiotic square* to reveal the narrative's deep structure, clarify the structure, and reach consistent information. "By semiotic square is meant the visual representation of the logical articulation of any semantic category" (Greimas & Courtés, 1982, p. 308). Thus, this semiotic square would show the logical sequence of any semantic category. At this point, oppositions are essential because, within an opposition, a meaning emerges; therefore, meaning is the consequence of the opposition, or opposition is the place where meaning is produced.

During a thematic level analysis, oppositions in the semiotic square can be determined by using Saussure's principle of dichotomies. The signs producing the meaning establish a relationship with each other, and this relationship is based on opposition. "It is possible to see the concrete visualization of the formation of the process of signification in and through opposition-based relationship in the semantic whole formed by the articulation of semes in each corner of the semiotic square" (Akata et al., 2021, p. 42). This opposition-based relationship is vital for meaning creation in semiotics. Therefore, during the analysis of "The Lottery", using the semiotic square to reveal abstract logic and the hidden meaning in the deep structure, applying opposition theory is reasonable.

Creating the semiotic square of Jackson's narrative, two questions can be asked to identify opposite relations:

1) Based on the previous semantic planes, what are the opposite poles in the semiotic square of the narrative?
2) Assuming that the deep structure is the most abstract one, try to explain the invisible intentions of the narrative persons related to the ideology and psychology they represent.
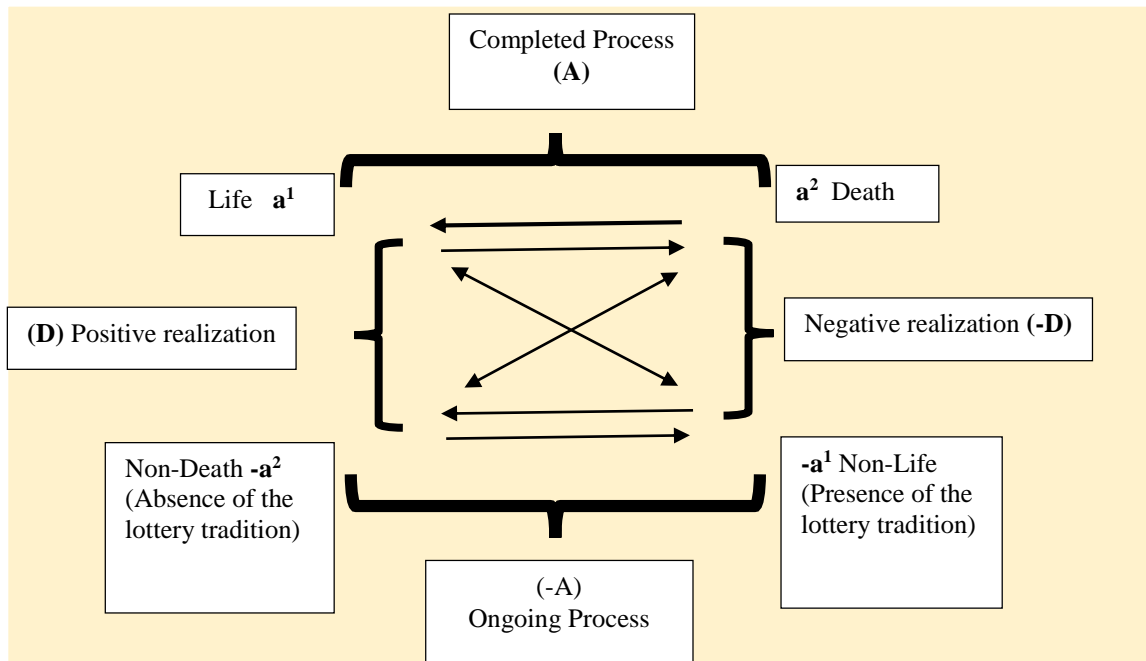
Figure 8. A general semiotic square of the narrative

Based on Figure 8 above, to answer questions 1 and 2, it is crucial to mention dichotomies because a semiotic square can be formed depending on them. Accordingly, Figures 1 and 2, formed in the descriptive plane, and 6 and 7 in the narrative plane, play significant roles in determining oppositions on the axes of the semiotic square. The supporting/protesting opposition in Figure 3 is related to the life/death opposition in Figure 4 regarding the first and second rounds of the lottery. Central narrative person, Mrs. Hutchinson's supporting/protesting attitudes can be associated with a situation oscillating between life and death, which depends on the outcome of the lottery. In this respect, Mrs. Hutchinson's attitude towards the lottery can alter from supporting to protesting, namely, whether she will survive or die. Thus, the life/death opposition in Figure 4 is associated with the rounds of the lottery opposition because her vital situation depends on the results of the first and second rounds. Also, Figures 6 and 7 of the actantial schemas relate to the abovementioned situation. Firstly, in Figure 6, to participate in the lottery, as per the tradition of the town in which she lives, Mrs. Hutchinson must attend the lottery. For this, the season stated in the descriptive plane is favorable; it is ten in the morning. Everyone in town is eligible for this event. Housework and forgetfulness are what will keep Mrs. Hutchinson from attending this event, but she gets over them and goes to the town square.

Before the first round of the lottery, as seen in Figure 6, coming to the town's square might be the indication of Mrs. Hutchinson's change in her attitude. As in Figure 7, with the realization of the first round of the lottery, Mrs. Hutchinson undergoes a transformation in terms of her attitude. There is no helper for her, but she has opponents such as her husband, who

draws the paper for his family and increases Mrs. Hutchinson's chance to draw the paper with black spot, and Mr. Summer, who stands against her will to redraw the first round of the lottery. This tradition is an obligation, and there is no setback for Mrs. Hutchinson. According to Figure 7, after the first round of the lottery, the Hutchinson family must draw the lottery, and one of them will be determined by making them pick a paper from the black box with the luck factor. Even though Mrs. Hutchinson wants to survive, the tradition must be held, and this time, Mr. Graves, Old Man Warner, Mr. Summers, Mrs. Delacroix, and Mrs. Dunbar, all the villagers, are like an obstacle in front of Mrs. Hutchinson's desire to live. Thus, Mrs. Hutchinson wants to survive in this lottery tradition, which is related to one of the cultural systems of the town, because it is a brutal tradition, and the one who draws the paper with black spot at the end is doomed to death by stoning. Her situation can be considered a process of life and death.

However, according to the semiotic square in Figure 8, one can derive many meanings from the narrative. Mrs. Hutchinson, who at first unquestioningly supports the tradition like everyone else in town, begins to protest about the unfairness of this practice when she is confronted with the possibility that one of the victims in the first round of the lottery could be a member of her own family or herself. Hence, the lottery had already been drawn by other families so far. Since the bitter outcome of this tradition had not affected her or anyone in her family, perhaps she had not had the opportunity to think about the fairness of this tradition until now. Therefore, in the first round of the lottery, she was confronted with the fact that any family could be hers. Thus, one meaning of the narrative might be about this point because, for the sake of the realization of the lottery, she seemed as blind as the others toward the outcome of the tradition.

> Mrs. Hutchinson **came hurriedly** along the path **to the square**, her sweater thrown over her shoulders, and slid into place in the back of the crowd. "**Clean forgot what day it was**," she said to Mrs. Delacroix, who stood beside her, and they both laughed softly. "Thought my old man was out back stacking wood," Mrs. Hutchinson went on, "and then I looked out the window and the kids was gone, and then **I remembered it was the twenty-seventh and came a-running**" (p. 224).
> Mr. Summers, who had been waiting, said cheerfully, "Thought we were going to have to get on without you, Tessie." Mrs. Hutchinson said, grinning, "**Wouldn't have me leave m'dishes in the sink, now, would you, Joe**?" and soft laughter ran through the crowd as the people stirred back into position after **Mrs. Hutchinson's arrival** (p. 225).
> "**Get up there, Bill**," Mrs. Hutchinson said, and the people near her laughed (p. 226).

It might be crucial to consider that when the first round of the lottery is carried out, Mrs. Hutchinson's objection is not only to the tradition itself but also to the people of the town where she lives. The people who form this community also do not care about her protest based on their adherence to the tradition.

> "**You didn't give him time enough** to take any paper he wanted. **I saw you**. **It wasn't fair**!" (p. 228).
> "**It wasn't fair**," Tessie said (p. 228).

"I think **we ought to start over**," Mrs. Hutchinson said, as quietly as she could. "I tell you **it wasn't fair**. You didn't give him time enough to choose (p. 228).
Everybody saw that" (p. 228).
"**Listen, everybody,"** Mrs. Hutchinson was saying **to the people around her** (p. 229).

Considering the excerpt above, another meaning might be that even though she resisted the tradition based on her primitive human instinct to survive, the community she lived in did not change its point of view and perhaps did not think of giving up this tradition so far. That situation may be an example for people regardless of their living conditions. In the narrative, people's destinies are determined according to a lottery, and no one is even willing to question why such an event is held yearly. These people are mindlessly loyal to the tradition regardless of the outcome. Perhaps people should question such a cruel tradition whose outcome is known. In general, it can be inferred that in the course of life, people may change their perspectives on traditions or other phenomena that are the results of the culture they have created and that they should reconsider the validity of these traditions because of questioning.

In this regard, Mrs. Hutchinson's life/death process can be examined by looking at the relational values between the axes of the semiotic square in Figure 8:

Table 5: Relational values between the axes in the semiotic square in Figure 8

	Opposite axes	Positive realization / Negative realization	(D) / (-D)
	Opposite axes	Completed Process / Ongoing Process	(A) / (-A)
	Contrariety relation	Life / Death	(a^1) / (a^2)
Relational Values	Sub-contrariety relation	Non-Death / Non-Life	$(-a^2)$ / $(-a^1)$
	Contradiction relation	Life / Non-Life	(a^1) / $(-a^1)$
	Contradiction relation	Death / Non-Death	(a^2) / $(-a^2)$
	Implicative relation	Life / Non-Death	(a^1) / $(-a^2)$
	Suppositional relation	Non-Death / Life	$(-a^2)$ / (a^1)
	Contradiction relation	Death / Non-Life	(a^2) / $(-a^1)$
	Suppositional relation	Non-Life / Death	$(-a^1)$ / (a^2)

The relational values of the concepts of life and death created in the semiotic square in Figure 8 are reflected in Table 5 (Adapted from Kalelioğlu, 2020, p. 187) above. When Mrs. Hutchinson's success and failure in the narrative programs in Figures 6 and 7 are evaluated, Figure 6 resulted in success because she could attend the lottery. However, Figure 7 failed, and the negative outcome of this program also negatively affected the narrative. The positions of the (D) and (-D) axes in Table 5 based on Figure 8 indicate the end towards which the main narrative person is heading as a result of her actions. In Mrs. Hutchinson's case, based on Figure 7, the fact that she comes from her house to the town square despite obstacles such as housework and forgetting that it is the day of the lottery is an indication that Mrs. Hutchinson moves from the (-D) axis to the (D) axis on the positive realization plane in Figure 8. This positive realization is described as -D → D = positive realization.

However, in the narrative program in Figure 7, both Bill's drawing the paper affecting the Hutchinson family in the first round of the lottery and the fact that Mrs. Hutchinson did not receive support from anyone around her when she asked for the lottery to be redrawn caused things to go wrong for her. In other words, this situation affects Ms. Hutchinson's situation from (-D) to (D) on the (-A) axis in the direction of negative realization, and the process starts to operate from (D) to (-D) because the narrative program in Figure 7 had failed in terms of the first and second rounds of the lottery. This situation is as D → -D = negative realization. Thus, in the deep structure of the narrative, the situations of success and failure for Mrs. Hutchinson begin to emerge. All actions and transformations take place on the axes of (-A). Therefore, this axis appears as the *ongoing process* axis. As a result of the struggle on this axis, there are two endings awaiting Mrs. Hutchinson: either she will succeed in reaching axis (a^1) and survive, or she will face death on axis (a^2). Thus, axes a^1 and a^2 in Table 5 are in a contrariety relation in terms of relational value. In the realization process, the sub-contrariety $-a^1$ and $-a^2$ of these two axes also emerge. Therefore, in Figure 8, while the representation of the struggle in the positive direction is $a^2 \rightarrow -a^2 \rightarrow a^1$, the representation of the struggle against the subject of doing in the negative direction is $a^1 \rightarrow -a^1 \rightarrow a^2$. A transition from a^1 to $-a^1$ ($a^1 \rightarrow -a^1$) indicates the diminishing chances of survival of the main narrative character Mrs. Hutchinson.

Situations in the narrative programs in Figures 6 and 7 show Mrs. Hutchinson's position on the line between life and death in the semiotic square in Figure 8. Therefore, Mrs. Hutchinson must do whatever is necessary on the $-a^2$ non-death axis and continue to live on the axis of a^1. However, Ms. Hutchinson has faced some obstacles related to the tradition itself and other people's attitudes towards the realization of the lottery, and there is no one to support her, neither for redrawing the first round of the lottery nor protesting in the second round. Mrs. Hutchinson's predicament may point to the corruption of the people around her in the name of adherence to tradition. In the semiotic square in Figure 8, because of Mrs. Hutchinson's struggle on the (-A) axis, she reached the (A) axis, and the narrative is completed. Mrs. Hutchinson has completed her journey between the axes as $a^1 \rightarrow -a^1 \rightarrow a^2$. There may be some reasons why she failed in her struggle for survival between these axes, such as people's unquestioningly adherence to the traditions, cruelty, and selfishness of people.

Therefore, Mrs. Hutchinson cannot continue her life due to the negativity experienced due to the lottery, which is a product of the culture made by the community in the village. Consequently, Mrs. Hutchinson succumbs to both the lottery and the result of it in the thematic syntax displayed in Figure 8, the semiotic square.

3. Conclusion

This study explains how meaning construction takes place in different semantic layers in a literary text. A semiotic application can be seen as challenging for students and practitioners as it requires systematic reasoning to move from the concrete to the implicit data. While realizing such a study, analysis tools, terminology, and rules pertaining to semiotics are required as they provide a path for a systematic study to achieve the objectives. Analysis of the semantic layer's relations with each other, articulation of the formative elements within the layers, and construction of the semantic universe of the text require an intense and systematic approach and effort.

A few guiding questions were posed to realize the aims of the study. As a result of the answers given to these questions, first, the positions and features of the actors and the parameters of time and space were tried to be revealed at the descriptive level. Then, at the narrative level, the actant(s) and their transformations were examined by means of the actantial schemas parallel to the guiding questions. The basic actions of the other actant(s) were tried to be explained by considering the roles of the other actant(s) in these transformations and the emergence of positive and negative results. Lastly, at the thematic level, abstract semantic relations were tried to be revealed by utilizing the oppositions in the semiotic square. As a result of the analysis, we revealed how the semantic universe of the study object is constructed at each level by the author.

Many approaches, of course, deal with narratives surrounding people with a methodical analysis, and semiotics is one of them. Therefore, it can be said that semiotics is an effort to reconstruct the production processes of meanings in a text and to make sense of the semantic layers within a text. Transferring the basic approach, principles, and concepts of semiotic analysis on a literary text with an application shows that literary semiotics, a sub-field, can also be a productive alternative in language classrooms. Accordingly, this study presents a road map for analyzing a literary text with semiotics data.

Thanks to the method, semiotics can be integrated into classroom teaching processes conforming to the level of the participants. The important point in integrating the method into classroom teaching processes is the knowledge and experience of the practitioners about semiotics. The method presented here allows practitioners with an average knowledge of semiotics to implement a similar study.

Applicants who aim to use the method in classroom applications should have knowledge of general semiotics and know the methods, techniques, and analysis tools of literary semiotics presented in this paper. The most important effect of such equipment on the practitioners will be to organize the classroom activities as they wish according to their level of knowledge and experience. The procedure followed in this article and the given methodology and knowledge related to it are practical information that will be useful for students and practitioners interested in semiotic application. It is predicted that semiotics makes classroom learning processes more enjoyable and effective and will also have positive effects on students' reasoning power and systematic thinking skills in the face of events.

REFERENCES

Akata, Z. H. (2022). Karşı ötekileştirme: Bizleştirme. In Günay, V. D. & Kalelioğlu, M. (Eds.), *Ötekiler imparatorluğu: Öteki'nin göstergebilimsel serüveni,* 96-115. Günce Yayınları.

Akata, Z. H., Çanakpınar, B. & Günay, V. D. (2021). Yazınsal göstergebilim: Yazın bilim ve göstergebilimin yol kavşağı. In Solak, Ö. & Doykun, S. (Eds.), *Disiplinlerarası edebiyat çalışmaları*, 3-50. Paradigma Akademi.

Barthes, R. (1979). *Göstergebilimin İlkeleri*, (Berke Vardar, Mehmet Rifat Trans.) Kültür Bakanlığı Publishing.

Bertrand, D. (2000). *Precis de semiotique litteraire.* Nathan-Universite.

Bronwen, M., & Ringham, F. (2006). *Key terms in semiotics*. Continuum.

Büyükkarcı, O. (2021). Is it the door through death what scares us? An analysis of the 'Cask of Amontillado' between semiotics and narratology interface. *Journal of Narrative and Language*, 9(16), 34-56.

Büyükkarcı, O. (2023). A literary semiotic approach to Edgar Allan Poe's 'The Black Cat'.

TAMGA-Türkiye Göstergebilim Araştırmaları Dergisi, 1(1), 26–50. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8092307.

Çanakpınar, B. (2021). Sinemada kimlik ve ötekilik: Propaganda filmi, In Günay, V. D. & Kalelioğlu, M. (Eds.), *Ötekiler imparatorluğu: Öteki'nin göstergebilimsel serüveni,* 69-94, Günce Yayınları.

Greimas, A. J. & Courtés, J. (1982). *Semiotics and language: an analytical dictionary* (Daniel Patte, James Lee, Edward McMahon II, Gary Phillips, Michael Rengstorf Larry Crist, Trans.). Indiana University Press.

Günay, V. D. (2013). *Metin bilgisi*. 4. Baskı. Papatya Publishing.

Jackson, S. (1982). *The lottery and other stories* (New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux)

Kalelioğlu, M. (2020). *Yazınsal göstergebilim bir kuram bir uygulama anlam üretim süreçleri.* Seçkin Publishing.

Kalelioğlu, M. (2023). Latmos: a semiotic view on the subject's role in the sustainability of natural and cultural values. *Semiotica*, *2023*(251), 109-133. https://doi.org/10.1515/sem-2021-0161

Kalelioğlu, M. & Büyükkarcı, O. (2021). Semio-think: Theory of semiotics and signifying practices in language and literature classrooms. In Büyükkarcı, K. & Önal, A. (Eds.), *Essentials of applied linguistics and foreign language teaching*: *21st-century skills and classroom applications,* 1-21. ISRES Publishing.

Rifat, M. (2011). *Homosemioticus ve genel göstergebilim sorunları*. YKY Publishing.

Rifat, M. (2019). *Göstergebilimin ABC'si*. Say Publishing.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Murat KALELİOĞLU

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-8037-3792

kalelioglu.murat@gmail.com

Mardin Artuklu University, School of Foreign Languages, Translation and Interpreting Dep.

Murat Kalelioğlu is a professor at Mardin Artuklu University, one of the Turkish Semiotics Circle (https://tgcevresi.com/) and TAMGA-Turkish Journal of Semiotic Studies' (https://e-tamga.com/) founding members. He is also the editor of the journal and among the founding and executing committee members of the Asian Semiotics International Association (https://www.asiansemiotics.com/). His research interests comprise language, literature, culture, textual analysis and interpretation, narratology, linguistics, and semiotics. Along with his doctoral study in language and literature, he has given more space to semiotics with a multi and transdisciplinary perspective. Kalelioğlu is the author of many academic works related to semiotics, including books, book chapters, editorials, and articles (https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8037-3792) . His recent studies include:

(Book) Yazınsal Göstergebilim: Bir Kuram Bir Uygulama [Literary Semiotics: Theory and Practice], 2020, Seçkin Publishing.; A Literary Semiotics Approach to the Semantic Universe of George Orwell's Nineteen Eighty-Four, 2018, Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

(Book Chapter) "Göstergebilim, Kuram, Kavram ve Karmaşa [Semiotics, Theory, Concept, and Complexity]", 2022; Balıkesir Metropolitan Municipality Publications.; "Narrative Semiotics and

Researher Hilal YURTSEVEN

ORCID ID**:** 0009-0004-2661-3590

hilalyurtseven@gmail.com

İstanbul University, Faculty of Letters, American Culture and Literature Department.

Hilal Yurtseven started her university education at Sakarya University, Department of Chemistry, and then received her master's degree in Inorganic Chemistry at Yıldız Technical University. She has about four years of work experience in the private sector and also worked as a science and English teacher in public schools for about five years. Yurtseven graduated from İstanbul Aydın University Anadolu Bil Vocational School of Applied English-Turkish Translation in 2019 and worked as a freelance translator for about five years. She is currently working as an English teacher at a private high school in Istanbul.

Yurtseven is a graduate student at İstanbul University, Faculty of Letters, Department of American Culture and Literature. Her interests comprise literature, linguistics, literary theories, and semiotics. Yurtseven, who is interested in the field of semiotics and aims to improve herself in this field, is an active member of the Turkish Semiotics Circle (https://tgcevresi.com/) and is in charge of the Youth Unit of the society. She continues her interdisciplinary studies within the framework of language-culture-literature and semiotics.

the City: The Place of the Concept of 'City' in Italo Calvino's Invisible Cities", 2021, İstanbul University Press.

(Book Collection) 21. Yüzyılda Disiplinlerarasılık ve Uygulama Biçimleri: Prof. Dr. V. Doğan Günay'a Armağan, 2023, Papatya Bilim Publishing.; Exploration of Mythological Elements in Contemporary Narratives, 2021, Cambridge Scholars Publishing; Ötekiler İmparatorluğu: Öteki'nin Göstergebilimsel Serüveni [Empire of Others: Semiotic Adventure of the Other], 2022, Günce Publishing.

(Article) "Latmos: A Semiotic View on the Subject's Role in the Sustainability of Natural and Cultural Values", 2023, Semiotica.; "Semiotic Analysis of The Affective Domain of Discourse: Projection of Emotional Transformations", 2021, Folklore/Literature.; "From Semantics to Semiotics: Re-interpretation of "Shooting an Elephant" and Loss of Identity of the West in the Narrative", 2019, Chinese Semiotic Studies.

To Cite this Chapter

Kalelioğlu, M. & Yurtseven, H. (2023). Theory and practice: literary semıotics and text analysis. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *Current studies in foreign language education*, (pp. 1-33). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 2: THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE PROGRAMME IN PHILOLOGY AND TRANSLATION: AN IN-DEPTH ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

Svitlana TEZİKOVA iD

Valentyna SLYVKA iD

Maryna NAHACH iD

Tetiana MİSHCHENKO iD

Abstract

This chapter provides an in-depth analysis of the experience and practice of providing educational services for the specialised bachelor's degree programme in Philology with a specialisation in *German Languages and Literatures Study Program (including translation), with English as the major* at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University in Ukraine. The features of the programme's curriculum are described in detail, including its theoretical and practical components, as well as the opportunities for field experience available to students throughout their studies. The article also highlights the content of key subjects within the educational programme that provide students with the necessary level of knowledge. The characteristics of teaching methods used to ensure optimal learning outcomes and examples of learning tasks are discussed in detail. The article highlights the importance of these factors in achieving successful educational outcomes for Philology students. In addition, the article addresses educational institutions' current challenges in providing quality educational services in Philology. It suggests ways in which these challenges can be addressed and overcome.

Keywords: Philology, English language, curriculum, educational program, teaching staff, learning outcomes, modern technology, field experiences.

1.Introduction

Requirements for a modern specialist in any field include high productivity, flexibility, the ability to adapt to rapid changes in the market and to learn constantly, acquiring new skills and knowledge. The training of future translators aims to form the theoretical, practical, and psychological readiness of the future specialist for professional activity. Bachelor's degree programme in Philology with a specialisation in *German Languages and Literature (including*

translation), with English as the major at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University was launched within the pedagogical specialisation due to the availability of highly qualified lecturers, a strong tradition of professional education and our desire of innovation.

In this article, we aim to describe the formation of the translation tradition at the University, present state standards and the University's profile in Germanic Philology, and reveal approaches to teaching subject-area courses.

2. Historical background

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University is one of the oldest educational establishments in Ukraine. It was opened as a Gymnasium of Higher Learning in 1820 and has provided educational services since under various names. It got its current name in 2004, being transformed from a pedagogical university into a classical one, which enabled its academic community to open new specialities to remain up-to-date. The Foreign Languages Faculty, one of the biggest at the university, was established in 1949 to meet the needs of society in preparing high-class specialists in education and has prepared more than 5 thousand teachers since then. Initially, the educational process lasted for four years. In 1983, it was changed into 5 years. Still, after 2020, when Ukraine joined the European educational space, two higher education levels were adopted: a 4-year- period of studies for a Bachelor's degree and 1.5 years for a Master's degree. So, many graduates from the Foreign Languages Faculty eagerly met the competitive local and national labour market, adding to the image of the Faculty and the university, proving that their educational policy ensures high standards in education.

Our graduates can successfully compete not only as school teachers in secondary school education but also in other spheres and occupations such as translation/interpretation or international businesses as their theoretical and practical background makes it possible. The Foreign Languages Faculty provides its students with profound philological knowledge – such subjects as *Lexicology*, *Comparative Typology*, *Theoretical Grammar, Theoretical Phonetics, Stylistics, Basics of Translation, History of English/German, Country Studies*, and some others, apart from *Practical English/German* were taught. Some new subjects are added, such as C*ommunicative Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Business English*, and others.

Though the Foreign Languages Faculty traditionally provided training only for pre-service teachers, there were some staff with scientific degrees in Philology: Shakhrai O. B., Hurevych R. L., Zhomnir O. V., Sknar V.P., Ziatkovska R. H., Kharytonov I.K., Potapenko S. I., and others. Thus, highly qualified teaching staff was engaged in scientific and literary work with

students. One of them, Oleksandr Zhomnir, was a talented translator who initiated the Literary Society *Translator* in 1976. A monthly wall newspaper under the same name was issued under his guidance, where students published the best translations of world literary masterpieces. Both poetry and prose by such authors as William Shakespeare, John Keats, Emily Dickinson, Somerset Maugham, and others were translated into Ukrainian or Russian, as well as the works of Ukrainian and Russian poets and writers, namely Ivan Franko, Volodymyr Korotych, Borys Pasternak, Lina Kostenko, Dmytro Pavlychko, Andrii Voznesenski were translated into the English, German, Russian, Polish, Bulgarian, and Belorussian languages. Not only did the students translate well-known works, but they also wrote critical reviews on these translations. At the beginning of the 90s, there was even a column *Translator* in the university newspaper *Alma-Mater* where everyone could get acquainted with these works.

Oleksandr Zhomnir was also known as a great literary expert on the creative heritage of Taras Shevchenko, the national poet of Ukraine. He was the author of 11 articles in the Shevchenko Encyclopedic Dictionary (1976). He translated *The Moon and the Sixpence* from English into Ukrainian by Somerset Maugham (1919/1989) and *Cymbeline* by William Shakespeare (1709/1986). In 1981, some translations of Emily Dickinson's poetry were published. Hopefully, all the translations will be published soon by the translator's students, making it the first complete edition of Emily Dickinson's poetry translated into Ukrainian. But his most important literary work was the first complete translation from English into Ukrainian of *Paradise Lost* by John Milton (1667/2020), which was published posthumously in 2020.

Other university lecturers continued the translation traditions of the Foreign Languages Faculty. Ivan Kharytonov engaged students and graduates in creativity by translating world-known poetic masterpieces from and into English. He arranged translation contests, collected all possible translation variants made by famous names, and published them alongside students' literary tries (Kharytonov, 2009; 2012a; 2012b; Kharytonov et al., 2019). His greatest work is translating into Ukrainian George Byron's poem *Mazeppa* (Kharytonov, 2018).

Having such experience and traditions in translation and answering the community's growing need for specially trained translators/interpreters, a new Bachelor's degree program in Philology with a specialisation in *Germanic languages and literature (including translation)* was opened in 2016.

3. Standards and Study Profile

The training of the specialists in translation is regulated by the *State Standard* for the speciality 035 *Philology* for the first (bachelor's) level of higher education (Order of the Ministry of Education and Science No.869 of 20.06.2019) (Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2019). The document specifies the goals, content, teaching methods, and key competencies and formulates the learning outcomes (LO). Based on these recommendations, higher education institutions develop Study Programs that train specialists.

Therefore, the purpose of the *German Language and Literature Educational Program (including translation), with English as the major*, which is implemented at the Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, is defined as the formation of generic and subject-specific competencies in philology sufficient for the successful translator performance, as well as the preparation of graduates for further continuous professional development.

Generic competencies are formulated in the context of the Bologna Process and involve the formation of the following abilities:

➢ to realise one's rights and responsibilities as a member of society, to realise the values of civil society and the need for sustainable development, the rule of law, and the rights and freedoms of a person and a citizen in Ukraine;

➢ to preserve and multiply moral, cultural, and scientific values and achievements of society based on an understanding of the history and patterns of the subject area development;

➢ to communicate freely orally and in writing in the state and foreign languages;

➢ to be critical and self-critical;

➢ to learn and master modern knowledge;

➢ to search, process and analyse information from various sources;

➢ to identify, formulate, and solve problems;

➢ to work in a team and autonomously;

➢ to think abstractly, analyse, and synthesise;

➢ to apply knowledge in practical situations;

➢ skills in the use of information and communication technologies;

- ability to conduct research at the appropriate level.

The subject-specific competencies specified in the Standard and the Study Program perform a regulatory function and serve as a guide for those who teach and study in the program. They are considered to be the social requirements for the professional level of translators. Thus, these competences are:

- awareness of the structure of philological science and its theoretical foundations;
- ability to use in professional activities knowledge of the language as a special sign system, its nature, functions, and levels;
- ability to use knowledge of the theory and history of the English language in professional activities;
- ability to analyse dialect and social varieties of English to describe the sociolinguistic situation;
- ability to use in professional activity systematic knowledge of the main periods of development of the literature being studied, from antiquity to the 21st century, the evolution of trends, genres, and styles, prominent representatives, and artistic phenomena, as well as knowledge of trends in the development of the world literary process and Ukrainian literature;
- the ability to use English fluently, flexibly, and effectively in oral and written form, in different genre-style varieties and registers of communication (official, informal, neutral), to solve communicative problems in various spheres of life;
- ability to collect and analyse, systematise and interpret linguistic, literary, and folklore facts; interpret and translate texts (depending on the chosen specialisation);
- the ability to freely operate with special terminology to solve professional problems;
- awareness of the principles and technologies of creating texts of various genres and styles in the state and English languages;
- ability to carry out linguistic, literary, and special philological (depending on the chosen specialisation) analysis of texts of different styles and genres;
- ability to provide consultations on compliance with the norms of literary language and culture of speech;
- ability to organise business communication.

Bachelors are trained for four years (240 credits). The curriculum provides for the study of normative (compulsory) disciplines - 156 credits (65%), practical training - 24 credits (10%), and disciplines of students' free choice - 60 credits (25%). The training ends with a

comprehensive qualification exam, which checks the level of formation of learning outcomes (LOs), which are also written in the Standard and Study Program to regulate the content of training:

- to communicate freely on professional topics with specialists and non-specialists orally and in writing in the state and foreign languages, using them for effective inter-cultural communication (LO-1);
- to work effectively with information: to search for it in various sources, in the professional literature and electronic database, in particular, analyse, classify, systematise and interpret it (LO-2);
- to manage their process of studies and self-education (LO-3);
- to understand the basic principles of the existence of people, nature, and society (LO-4);
- to cooperate with colleagues, representatives of other cultures and religions, political views, etc. (LO-5);
- to use computer programs, information, and communication technologies for solving professional tasks and problems (LO-6);
- to understand the fundamental problems of Philological Science and the approaches to solving them by employing proper methods (LO-7);
- to be aware of the language system and literature as the means of expression, the history of the language (languages) and literature (literatures) studied. To be able to apply this knowledge in professional activities (LO-8);
- to characterise the dialects and social variants of the studied language (-s) and to describe a socio-lingual situation (LO-9);
- to know the norms of the literary language and use them in professional activities (LO-10);
- to know principles, techniques, and methods of text arrangement in various genres and styles in the state and a foreign language (languages) (LO-11);
- to analyse language units, define their coordination, and characterise linguistic phenomena and processes predetermining them (LO-12);
- to analyse and interpret belles-lettres and folklore in the native and a foreign language, to define their peculiarities and place in the literary process (LO-13);

- to use a foreign language in both oral and written forms in various genres and styles of communication (official, non-official, neutral) for solving communicative tasks in an everyday, social, educational, professional, and scientific spheres of life (LO-14);
- to perform linguistic, literary, and specific philological analyses of the texts of various genres and styles (LO-15);
- to know and understand the basic notions, theories, and concepts of the major and be able to apply this knowledge in professional activities (LO-16);
- to collect, analyse, systematise, and interpret the samples of the language and speech and use them for solving the tasks and problems in professional activities and/or studies (LO-17);
- to have the skills to manage complex actions and projects in solving complicated problems professionally. To take responsibility for making decisions under unpredictable circumstances (LO-18);
- to have skills of participation in scientific and/or applied research in Philology (LO-19).

Thus, attention is focused on future translators' development, communication skills, readiness to make independent decisions, think critically, and have appropriate information and social skills.

The curriculum for bachelor's level translator training includes compulsory subjects, which are divided into general training disciplines (*Ukrainian Language (for professional purposes)* - 3 credits, *Information Technologies in Education* - 3 credits, *Ukrainian Studies* - 6 credits, *Environmental Safety and Sustainable Development* - 3 credits, *Philosophical Studies* - 4 credits - 19 credits in total - and professional training (*Introduction to the Speciality* - 3 credits, *Latin* - 3 credits, *Introduction to Linguistics*, *General Linguistics* - 5 credits, *Comparative Linguistics* - 3 credits, *World Literature* - 11 credits, *Practice of Oral and Written Communication (English)* - 50 credits, *Theories of the Main Foreign Language (English)* - 16 credits, *Introduction to Translation Studies* - 3 credits, *Practice of Oral and Written Translation* - 23 credits, *Theory of Translation* - 6 credits, *Modern Ukrainian Literary Language* - 5 credits, *Modern Ukrainian Literature* - 3 credits, *Coursework in Foreign Philology* - 3 credits, *Coursework in Translation Studies* - 3 credits - 137 credits in total.

It should be noted that the learning outcomes are complex and formed by studying not one but several disciplines. For example, the learning outcome of *understanding the main problems of philology and approaches to their solution using appropriate methods and*

innovative approaches (LO-7) is the subject of formation in the classes of *Introduction to Linguistics and General Linguistics*, *Comparative Linguistics*, *Theory of the Main Foreign Language*, I*ntroduction to Translation Studies*, *Translation Theory*, *World Literature, Modern Ukrainian Literary Language*, as well as in writing term papers; the result of learning *to use English in oral and written form, in different genre-style varieties and registers of communication (formal, informal, neutral), to solve communicative tasks in every day, social, educational, professional spheres of life, (LO-14)* is the subject of attention in the classes on the *Practice of Oral and Written Communication (English),* first of all. Still, it cannot be ignored in the classes on theoretical philological, and translation studies the practice of oral and written translation. The learning outcome of *having the skills to manage complex actions or projects in solving complex problems in professional activities in the field of the chosen philological specialisation and to be responsible for decision-making in unpredictable conditions (PLO-18)* is focused on both the study of compulsory disciplines, by setting problem tasks for independent individual work of students, and in the implementation of group educational projects. In addition, all student internships are aimed at this learning outcome.

Practical training of students takes place throughout the entire period of study: *introductory practice* (1.5 credits) is intended to help the applicant adapt to the conditions of study at the university, get acquainted with the educational program, reflect on their style of academic work; *language practice* (training) - 9 credits, aimed at training foreign language speech in situations of communication close to future professional activities; *translation practice* (academic) - 1.5 credits, involves the performance of production tasks under the direct supervision of a teacher (practice supervisor) and *translation practice* (field experience) - 12 credits, involves the work of applicants in performing professional tasks in organisations and institutions that perform translations of various types and genres.

The implementation of the curriculum requires the integration of the efforts of teachers of different academic disciplines, as well as employers and students themselves. The content of interpreter training is discussed at joint meetings of stakeholders (administration, teachers, employers, students, and graduates of the program), where the results of surveys are discussed, achievements are analysed, and promising areas for further development of the program are identified.

Approaches to teaching are subject to analysis by the relevant departments and subject sections. Elective courses in the curriculum (60 credits (25%)) allow for an individual trajectory of student development. The Register of Elective Courses is reviewed annually and

published on the university's website, making the student choice process dynamic, objective, and consistent with their needs and interests (https://cutt.ly/7wluRiRr). It is in this section students can choose to study a second or third foreign language (in our case, German, French or Polish), immerse themselves in psychology (*Psychology for Life*, *Family Psychology*, *Effective Communication Training*, *Soft Skills Development Training*, *Managing Your Own Emotions in Professional Activities*, etc.), focus on humanitarian issues (*Genealogy and Family History*, *Geopolitics and Global Challenges of the Present*, *History of European Cinema*, *Models and Challenges of Modern Education Abroad*, *Linguistics of Advertising Text*, etc.). This block also allows you to master another speciality: computer design, directing music and educational events, social and medical rehabilitation, practical psychology, etc.

A curriculum is a formalised model of the educational process. It is necessary, meaningful, and binding. However, no less important is the professional readiness of teachers responsible for implementing the curriculum, conducting classes based on modern requirements for the organisation of the educational process, and constantly developing and motivating students to independent academic work. As already mentioned, the *German Language and Literature Educational Program (including translation), with English as the major,* was created based on the experience of training foreign language teachers. In the first stage, we even combined both specialities and provided graduates with the qualification of both a translator and an English teacher. At the current stage, we have switched to training in one speciality, which allowed us to revise the content of the disciplines and bring them closer to preparing students to solve professional problems.

4. Language Training

Here are examples of how linguistic disciplines are organised in a training program for future translators. The instructions in *Practical English* (*Practice of Oral and Written Communication (English))* for the speciality Philology – though having much in common with those for the speciality Secondary Education – have some peculiarities. Some activities and tasks are included that develop professional competencies. For instance, when working on Grammar or Vocabulary with first-year Philology students – as the course is integrated for junior students – we always give an additional task to perform a consecutive interpretation of everything that students answer individually or in a pair/group work. As the instructions are conducted in English with a limited use of a native language, the interpreting from English into Ukrainian is primarily performed. Students find such tasks exciting, as they resemble a natural professional environment. However, they are prepared to do them having done the

same grammar or vocabulary exercises at home, and there are always many students volunteering to perform such professionally oriented tasks. Doing such tasks, students develop listening skills, enlarge operating memory, and improve their grammar, phonetics, and vocabulary, which is crucial for pre-service interpreters. In the second year of studies, when students start learning some theoretical courses such as *Introductory into Specialty* and *Theory of Translation*, the students are asked to explain the essential translation devices: partitioning, integration, transposition, replacement, addition, omission, or antonymous translation which they or other students from the group employ when performing translation/interpretation. When working in phraseology units, students are asked to find full or partial equivalents. Senior students are more concentrated on the stylistic peculiarities of the texts they are working on and the means of their translating. Both written and oral translations are practised, prepared, and unprepared. We also find it very useful to work with vocabulary cards for students in all years of study. They prepare situations with topical vocabulary – their number can vary -- in the Ukrainian language and English on the other side of the card. Then, the students exchange them working in pairs or caterpillar mode, greatly intensifying their work and expanding their speaking time. The fourth-year students are also instructed to perform an annotative translation, which is not required for the Secondary Education Bachelor's Programme.

Another example is the organisation of the educational process in the theoretical linguistic discipline of *English Lexicology (*Zhylko, 2004*)*. It has a logical structure and specific terminology and helps students become aware of Philology's structure as a science and its theoretical basis. Students do this course (9 credits) in the third year of studies as a combination of theoretical (lectures) and practical classes. The main aim of the course is to form professional competencies of specialists in Philology to enable future translators to perform their professional duties successfully and to consolidate their knowledge of the system and structure of the English language vocabulary.

Lexicology is a linguistic science that studies the word, its morphemic structure, etymology, and meaning. So, the word as the primary unit of language is the focus of our attention in this course in the aspects of its morphemic structure, etymology (origin), and semasiology (meaning).

During one semester of the third year of studies, students-philologists study such main topics of Lexicology: general characteristics of the vocabulary in the modern English language, word

morphemic structure, and types of morphemes, major (affixation, composition, and conversion) and minor (shortening, blending, back-formation, sound interchange, change of stress, etc.) ways of word formation, etymology of the English stock of vocabulary, semasiology – theory of meaning, polysemy and homonymy of the lexical units.

By the end of the course, students-philologists learn to do a morphological analysis of English words, define their origin and types of word formation, adequately use phraseology, synonymic and antonymic groups, and different dictionaries.

Nowadays, translation technologies are changing under the influence of automation and innovation. It is common knowledge that translation is increasingly performed with the help of special programs and tools. These tools speed up the translation process and make it more efficient. However, we consider it essential to develop our Philology students' skills in using different types of dictionaries (both electronic and paper) for adequate translation of authentic English texts. In the course, students find out that a particular branch of linguistics studies the process of compiling dictionaries - Lexicography. At the beginning of the course, they review the extensive collection of dictionaries available in the faculty resource room and learn about the purpose and application of particular dictionaries - *Collocations Dictionary*, *Dictionary of English Etymology*, *Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs*, *Dictionary of English Idioms*, *Dictionary of Homonyms*, etc.

The linguistic meaning of the word is not heterogeneous, it may include denotative and connotative meanings. Dictionaries give us the specific denotative meanings of words. However, words can also evoke or produce emotions in people. The feeling associated with the word is called the word's connotation (connotative meaning). Connotative meaning is not what the word means literally but rather the emotion or image that the word produces in us. Some words evoke the same feelings in almost everyone who hears them, for example, *weak, warm, prison*, *cosy, gloomy, damp, spacious, cramped,* and *luxurious.*

Future translators should be sensitive to the meaning of a word. If necessary, students in class analyse words, look them up in the dictionary, decide if the words have positive or negative connotations, and explain (e.g., *spacious* – means 'lots of space' – the word has a positive connotation).

In the course, students-philologists are given a lot of practice in word-building analysis. They learn that the lexical meaning of words can be modified or changed completely by their

constituents – morphemes, in particular – affixes. While studying the word's morphological structure, students have the task of grouping prefixes semantically according to their meaning. They have the opportunity to conclude that *temporal prefixes* express different aspects of time: 1) priority: *ex-, fore-, pre-* are the prefixes with the common semantic feature 'before', e.g. *ex-* in the word *ex-president*, *pre-* in *premedical, fore-* in *foresee*; 2) succession – the prefixes with the common semantic feature 'after', e.g. *after-* in *afterparty, aftertaste*, *post-* in *post-war, post-election*. Other groups of prefixes express novelty – the prefixes with the common semantic feature 'new', e.g. *neo-* in *neoclassical, Neo-Latin*; negation: *in-, un-, non-, dis-, a-;* counteraction, opposition: *counter-, contra-, anti-;* locality: *a-, en-, sub-, supra-, sur-, trans-, hypo-, circum-, under-;* reversion: *de-, dis-, un-;* incompleteness: *demi-, hemi-, semi-, half-*, etc.

In the class of practice, students analyse prefixes that alter the meaning of initial words. They translate sentences and conclude the meaning of every prefix, like in the examples that follow:

1) mis- (calculate, spell, understand), e.g. *Accommodation is a word that is frequently misspelled.*

2) out- (grow, live, number), e.g. *The girls outnumbered the boys at the party.*

3) re- (build, use, write), e.g. *I've rewritten the letter, but I'm still dissatisfied.*

4) un- (button, do, tie), e.g. *This knot is so tight that I can't undo it.*

At the next step of this exercise, students use the prefixes to alter the meaning of the verbs, like those listed below, and make sentences with the derived (transformed) verbs to illustrate their new meaning (*consider, count, dress, judge, last, load, lock, name, open, pack, play, print, read, record, report, roll, screw, sell, tell, think, unite, use, wind, zip*).

While studying another way of word formation – composition – students analyse the compounds and determine their meaning from the components. The meaning of the compound is made up of the combined linguistic meaning of the bases and the structural meaning of the pattern. The semantic centre of the compound is the linguistic meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first one (e.g. *airmail – mail delivered by air, latecomer – a person who comes late)*. These non-idiomatic compounds have a clear motivation. The meaning is quite transparent and can be deduced from the meanings of their components.

However, there are idiomatic compounds that lack motivation altogether, i.e. there is no connection between the linguistic meaning of the bases, the structural meaning of the pattern, and the meaning of the compound (e.g., *eyewash – something said or done to deceive a person; fiddlesticks – rubbish; night-cap – a drink taken before going to bed at night; sweet-tooth – a person who likes sweet food and drink).* Such words can cause difficulty during translation.

Future translators should be prepared to consider another characteristic of the English language – its polysemy – a plurality of meaning. It is a semantic universal characteristic of most words in many languages. Still, it is more characteristic of the English vocabulary due to the monosyllabic character of English words and the predominance of root words. The meaning is direct (or primary) when it nominates the referent without the help of the context, i.e. in isolation. The meaning is symbolic (or secondary) when the object is named and simultaneously characterised through its similarity with another object. In *Lexicology*, we dedicate a lecture and several hours of practical classes to this topic as students-philologists should be able to choose meaning while translating an English text correctly.

For example, students get the task to comment on the meaning of some polysemantic adjectives in phrases like 1) *bitter* medicine (fighting, disappointment, dispute over something, cold); 2) *fresh* water (idea, colours, shirt, air, news, complexion, paint, faces, fish); 3) *thin* blanket (fingers, soup, soil, argument, excuse, be on thin ice, as thin as a rail).

One of the most debatable problems in semasiology is the demarcation line between polysemy and homonymy, i.e. between different meanings of one word and meanings of two homonymous words. Philology students may find it difficult to differentiate between cases of polysemy and homonymy. We worked out a system of exercises that allowed them to see the difference between these two phenomena. For example, students should analyse the following phrases and sentences: 1. a) the *sole* survivor of the shipwreck; b) the *sole* of a shoe; c) my favourite fish is Dover *sole*; 2. a) What do you *mean*? b) the *mean* annual rainfall; c) he is so *mean* with money; 3. a) he is such a *bore*; b) he *bore* pain without complaining; c) I *bore* my way through the dense crowd.

Somewhat related to homonyms are paronyms, i.e. words that are alike in form but different in meaning. For example, *capitol* and *capital* seem very similar but are from different Latin roots. Paronyms can cause problems with understanding and translation and need some particular practice. For instance, students are given the task to make distinctions between the

pairs of paronyms, e.g.: *bear-beer, career-carrier, cause-course, collar-colour, cost-coast, crash-crush, dairy-diary, human-humane, law-low, major-mayor, rise-raise, sergeant-surgeon, very-vary*.

English humour is often based on the language, as mentioned earlier phenomena. Reading and analysing the jokes is an excellent way to illustrate polysemy in English. Students are tasked to read the jokes and say whether the pun is based on polysemy, homonymy, or paronymy. For example:

1. – You have to be rich to play golf.

- Then why are there so many poor players?

2. – When we are engaged, dear, you'll give me a ring, won't you?

- Sure. What's your telephone number?

Homophones can also cause difficulty with understanding and translation, especially in oral speech. We practice them with students doing the exercises like the one that follows. Task:

Choose appropriate homophones in the following sentences:

1. My *sole/soul* is hard.

2. Don't *sale/sail* the *bear's/bears* skin before you *court/caught* it.

3. *Knew/New* wine in old bottles.

4. After *rain/reign* comes fine *weather/whether*.

5. *Two/Too* heads are better than *won/one*.

Topic *Semantic Equivalence and Synonymy* is significant for students-philologists and future translators, and we pay special attention to it in this course. For adequate translation, a translator should be able to choose a proper variant of the synonymic group. It can be quite a challenge for an unexperienced specialist as synonyms usually belong to the same part of speech and possess identical or nearly identical denotative meaning, interchangeable at least in some contexts, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, style, valency and idiomatic use. These peculiarities of synonyms and the

importance of the correct choice of their variants necessitate a thorough study of English synonyms (and antonyms) in training programs for future translators.

Substantial practice is organised in the course on this topic, to mention just a few, we can give some examples. Using text examples, we show that some commonly used synonyms have different distributions, e.g., prison – jail, sick – ill, anxious – concerned, accuse – charge, desire – aspiration.

Students make sentences to show how synonym words might be used: *1. Fat, overweight, plump, stout, tubby, obese; 2. Laugh, chortle, chuckle, guffaw, giggle, titter, snigger; 3. Courage, gallantry, heroism, valour, bravery, fortitude, spirit.*

 In another activity, students should arrange the following ideographic synonyms according to the degree of intensity: *1. Ask, beg, implore; 2. Desire, long, wish, want, yearn; 3. Annoy, irritate, vex; 4. Astonishment, consternation, shock, surprise; 5. Excuse, forgive, pardon; 6. Accident, disaster, misfortune, mishap; 7. Capability, skill, genius, talent.*

 In the course, students-philologists get acquainted with the source of synonymy interesting from a sociolinguistic point of view is the so-called *euphemism*, in which by a shift of meaning, a word of more pleasant or at least inoffensive connotation substitutes the one that is considered harsh, obscene, indelicate or otherwise unpleasant. Future translators should be taught to avoid offensive words in their written or oral translations.

For example, instead of telling that a person is *telling a lie* it may be more appropriate to use one of the euphemisms: *be economic with the truth, distort the facts, embroider the truth, exaggerate, equivocate, fib, fudge the issue, invent, misguide, misrepresent, misstate, palter, prevaricate, stretch the truth.*

As further activities, students can find words of rude or unpleasant connotations in a suggested text and substitute them for euphemisms or do a matching exercise pairing the words from Column/List A (*addiction, adulterous, coffin, crippled, fat, garbage collector, lazy, poor student, prisoner, retarded, steal ugly*) with their euphemistic synonyms from Column/List B (*extramarital, physically challenged, chemical dependency, sanitation person, unmotivated, underperformer, overweight, mentally challenged, unattractive, appropriate, detainee, casket*).

At the final stage of the course, students-philologists study one more important topic for future translators: *Stylistical Layers of the English Vocabulary*. With the help of different texts, students learn to differentiate between *stylistically neutral* words, *literary/bookish* words (with further subdivision into technical vocabulary, barbarisms, poetic words, archaisms, literary neologisms), and *colloquial words* (which are subdivided into literary colloquial and non-literary, which include slang, jargonisms, professionalisms, vulgarisms).

In conclusion, the course of *Lexicology* for students-philologists focuses on studying the word as a basic unit of the English language in terms of its morphological characteristics, etymology, and meaning. The course developers keep improving it by selecting new educational materials, topical texts, and illustrative examples to meet the needs and requirements of learners. It is essential for students who will eventually qualify as Bachelor of Philology to be competent in ways of word formation, origin and semasiology of the English vocabulary, which will enable them to perform their professional duties as translators efficiently.

Theoretical foundations laid during *Lexicology* are broadened *Theoretical Grammar of the English Language* that deals with word combinations and sentences, the latter being studied by the students of both specialities. During the lectures, they get the same theoretical and practical tasks aimed at identifying a grammatical phenomenon under study, while their activities during the seminars vary. Future translators study different aspects of English grammar compared to the Ukrainian one. In many cases, the difference in grammatical structure in the English and Ukrainian languages is reflected in the structure of sentences in the former, the word order is rigid, and in the latter, it is relatively free.

In Ukrainian, the subject expressed by a noun or substantive part of speech is usually placed before the predicate. However, in many cases, the postposition of the subject is observed in the sentences with adverbial modifiers at the beginning. Also, the subject stands after the predicate denoting existence, coming into existence, and duration of an action. Adverbial modifiers of place and time can stand before and after the predicate. If the adverbial modifiers of place and time are at the beginning of the sentence, then the predicate is usually placed immediately after them, and then the subject follows. Therefore, when translating, the English sentence has to be transformed following the syntactic norms of the Ukrainian language.

Transformation of the sentence in the recipient language is also necessary due to the mismatch of predicate types in English and Ukrainian. For example, a compound predicate with the link verb to be in the translation is replaced by a simple predicate, with the nominal part being translated. Besides, sentences with the constructions *there are, there are* also require transformation. When translating the sentences that begin with this pairing, the adverbial modifier of place or time is put first, and the compound predicate is omitted or replaced by a simple one.

Regarding restructuring a complex sentence, in English, the subordinate clause comes after the main one, unlike in Ukrainian, where the subordinate clause comes before the main one, as this order is more logical. In addition, in English, the subject in the subordinate clause preceding the main one is often expressed by a pronoun and in the main clause by a noun.

So, there are the following types of restructuring of English sentences when translated into Ukrainian: 1. Replacing the passive voice with an active one; 2. Replacing of the subject by an adverbial modifier; 3. Replacing a simple sentence with a composite one; 4. Combining two simple sentences into a composite one; 5. Replacing a composite sentence with a simple one; 6. Replacing the main clause with a subordinate clause and vice versa; 7. Replacing subordination with coordination; 8. Substitution of a syndetical (with a conjunction) connection by an asyndetical one (without a conjunction).

The above-mentioned transformations are usually combined within one sentence, making complex transformations.

Taking into account the theoretical background, the practical tasks for future translators are based on the following algorithm: point out the predicate/subject/adverbial modifier/the structure of a sentence → individually/in pairs/small groups translate into Ukrainian and choose the variant natural for your native language → explain the transformations used to make your translation adequate. The same procedure is carried out, translating from Ukrainian into English.

To sum it up, future translators learn the theoretical grammar of English compared to Ukrainian, which is crucial for an adequate translation as the grammatical structures of the two languages are far from identical, thus requiring transformations of the translated sentences and suprasentetial constructs.

5. Current Tasks

The development of any profession is dynamic, driven by social requirements, the level of development of the industry, and theoretical and practical achievements. The development of our *German Language and Literature Educational Program (including translation), with English as the major*, is no exception. Thus, the current tasks for us at this stage are:

➢ continuous work on combining training in English and the specifics of the translation field, which requires the unification of efforts of many teachers of different disciplines to determine the content of training, discuss requirements for assessing learning outcomes, and introduce innovations;

➢ constant work to avoid a gap between theoretical and practical courses, which requires coordination of the actions of teachers of these disciplines;

➢ involvement of all stakeholders (administration, teachers, employers, applicants, graduates) to determine the actual state of program development and its prospects;

➢ establishing partnerships with employers (representatives of institutions and organisations that use the services of translators) for practical training of students, attracting professionals to conduct classes in specialised disciplines, and creating conditions for further employment;

➢ search for ways to combine general translation training with specialised training, namely: internships in specialised translation agencies (medical, legal, agricultural, technical areas), performing translation tasks of texts, documents, and events on a volunteer basis, working as translators' assistants;

➢ development of the material and technical base of the faculty, namely: the creation of specialised classrooms for training translation skills, purchase of licensed software for translation activities, the conclusion of agreements with institutions that use specialised platforms for translators, and obtaining opportunities for students to train on these platforms;

➢ participation of teachers and students in the work of professional associations of translators;

➢ development of extracurricular activities at the university: translation competitions, a translation studio, meetings with professionals, etc.

➢ As a result of our work on training translators, we have formulated tips and guidelines for students for their further professional development:

- Obtain a strong foundation in the source language (the language you are translating from) and the target language (the language you are translating into). This can be achieved through language courses, immersion programs, or self-study.
- Develop excellent reading, writing, and listening skills in both languages. Practise regularly by reading various texts, listening to audio recordings, and writing in both languages.
- Gain knowledge and expertise in specific subject areas. Translators often specialise in particular fields, such as legal, medical, technical, or literary translations. Acquiring knowledge in these areas helps to ensure accurate and effective translations.
- Familiarise yourself with translation tools and resources. Learn how to use computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools, which can help improve productivity and consistency in your translations.
- Gain practical experience through internships, volunteer work, or entry-level translation jobs. This will allow you to apply your skills, receive feedback, and continue learning on the job.
- Seek professional certifications or join translation associations. Earning certifications or becoming a member of recognised translation organisations can enhance your credibility and professional network.
- Continuously improve and update your language skills and knowledge. Languages are dynamic, so it's essential to stay updated on changes in vocabulary, idioms, and cultural context.
- Remember that becoming an excellent translator takes time and practice. It is also beneficial to collaborate with other translators, seek feedback and mentorship, and stay updated with industry trends and technologies.

6. Conclusions

The main content of the student training in the speciality *German Languages and Literatures Study Program (including translation), with English as the major* at Nizhyn Gogol State University, is linguistic training in its theoretical and practical aspects, which takes up 67% of the total study time. According to the competency-based approach, based on which the educational process of future translators is organised, the emphasis is placed on students'

performance of practical translation tasks aimed at developing the professional competence of future translators. The key to the practical training of students is their involvement in the work of the translation studio, professional associations of translators, and the fulfilment of translation orders. In addition, expanding cooperation between all stakeholders: students, graduates, employers, teachers, and administration may be a promising area of our activity.

REFERENCES

Kharytonov, I. (2009). *Porivnialno-paralelni pereklady poezii: Mizhfakultetskyi navchalnyi posibnyk do kursiv perekladu ta stylistyky* [Comparative translations of poetry: a reference-book to the courses in Translation and Stylistics]. Nizhyn: Vydavnytstvo NDU im. M. Gogolia. 415s., [in Ukrainian].

Kharytonov, I. (2012a). *Pereklady poezii yevropeiskyh ta amerykanskyh avtoriv* [The translation of the poetry by European and American authors]. Nizhyn: Vydavnytstvo NDU im. M. Gogolia, 216 s. [in Ukrainian]

Kharytonov, I. (2012b). *Zistavni pereklady poezii: Navchalnyi posibnyk do kursiv stylistyky ta perekladu* [Contrastive translation of poetry: a reference-book to the courses in Translation and Stylistics.] Ternopil: Navchalna knyha – Bohdan, 416 s., [in Ukrainian].

Kharytonov, I. (2018). *Pereklady i perespivy poezii. Mazepa (pereklad poemy Byron, G. G.)* [Translation and rehash of the poem Mazeppa by Byron, G. G.]. Nizhyn: NDU im. M. Gogolia, 247 s., [in Ukrainian].

Kharytonov, I. K., Zhomnir, O. V. & Tezikova, S. V. (Eds.) (2019). *Novi Nizhynski perekladatski peredzvony: zbirka vybranykh khudozhnikh perekladiv studentiv, vypusknykiv ta vykladachiv fakultetu inozemnykh mov Nizhynskoho derzhavnoho universytetu imeni Mykoly Gogolia* [New Nizhyn translator's bell ringing: the book of selected works by students, graduates, and lecturers of the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Gogol State University]. Nizhyn. [in Ukrainian].

Maugham, V. (1989). *Misiats i midiaky. Na zhali brytvy* [The Moon and the Sixpence. The Razor's Edge]. (A. Muliar, O. Zhomnir, O. Mokrovolskyi, Trans.). Dnipro. (Original work published 1919) [in Ukrainian].

Milton, J. (2020). *Vtrachenyi rai*. [Paradise Lost]. (A. Shulhovska, Trans.). Andronum. (Original work published 1667) [in Ukrainian].

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (2019). *Standart vyshchoi osvity za spetsialnistiu 035 «Filolohia» haluzi znan 03 «Humanitarni nauky» dlia pershoho (bakalavrskoho) rivnia vyshchoi osvity* [The standard for higher education in specialty 035 «Philology», brunch of science «Humanitarian sciences» for the first (Bachelor's) level of education. [in Ukrainian].

Shakespeare, W. (1986). *Tvory v 6 tomakh. Tom 6.* [Works in 6 volumes. Volume 6]. (V. Mysyk, V. Koptilov, D. Pavlychko, Trans.) Dnipro. 163-267. (Original work published 1709 [in Ukrainian].

Zhylko, N. M. (2004). *Kurs leksykolohii anhliiskoi movy* [The course in English lexicology]. Nizhyn. [in Ukrainian].

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Prof. Svitlana TEZİKOVA

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-7094-7505

tezikova@ndu.edu.ua

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages

Senior Lect. Valentyna SLYVKA

ORCID ID**:** 0009-0007-7013-0993

slival@ukr.net

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages

PhD in Education, Full Professor at the Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Head of University Professional Competence Development Centre. Research interests – continuing professional development, comparative education. Participant and/or (co)manager of international and national projects "Professional development of rural teachers of English in Chernihiv region" ("Vidrodzhennya" Fund, 1998), "Reform and Renewal in Teacher Education" (US Department of Education, 2000-2003), "University and Leadership" (Warsaw University, 2014-2015), "English Language Retreat / GoGlobal Initiative" (US Embassy in Ukraine, 2016), "Decentralization in Education" project Delegation of European Union in Ukraine as sub granting through the "Ukrainian Regional Platform of Public Initiatives" project, 2017), "English for Universities" (British Council Ukraine, 2015-2018), Erasmus+ Project "Teachers Certification Centres: Innovative Approach to Promotion Teaching Excellence" (2020-2023). Supervisor of Ph.D. students' researches, author of the research, and methodological papers.

Senior Lecturer at the Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Long-time experience in teaching Practical English to junior and senior students, Phonology, and Theory of Translation to students majoring in Philology (including translation) at the first (Bachelor's) level of higher education. The scientific interests lie in the sphere of students assessment and professional training of pre-service translators. A co-author of coursebooks and a reference-book for the students of the 1-st and 2-nd years of studying majoring in English Philology and Secondary Education.

Assoc. Prof. Maryna NAHACH

ORCID ID: 0009-0008-5736-3351

marnag@ukr.net

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

Senior Lect. Tetiana MİSHCHENKO

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-1424-1724

tetyana.mishchenko@ndu.edu.ua

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

PhD in Education, Associate Professor at the Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Long-time experience in teaching Practical English, Business English and Lexicology to senior students majoring in Philology at the first (Bachelor's) and second (Master's) levels of higher education. The scientific interests lie in the sphere of Lexicology (word-building processes) and professional training of pre-service teachers. Author of coursebooks for the students of the 3-rd and 4-th years of studying majoring in English Philology and Secondary Education

PhD in Philology, Senior Lecturer at the Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Participant of all-Ukrainian and international conferences: Cognitive Linguistics in Wroclaw Conference (2017), Text and discourse: cognitive and communicative perspectives (2023), Current state and prospects of linguistic research and translation issues, "Odesa dialogues of cultures: creativity, personality, language"; "Rhetoric of media discourse"; (2021), etc. The author of more than 25 publications devoted to cognitive rhetorical investigation of functioning of idioms in English magazine discourse, translation strategies drawing on media news stories, various types of constructions in media texts. A supervisor of students' course papers and master's theses in philology. Teacher of General English, Theoretical Grammar, Communicative Linguistics, Text Linguistics and Discourse, Translation.

To Cite this Chapter

Tezikova, S., Slyvka, V., Nahach, M. & Mishchenko, T. (2023). The bachelor's degree programme in philology and translation: an ın-depth analysis of educational services. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *Current studies in foreign language education,* (pp. 34-58). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 3: ENHANCING TEACHING AND LEARNING IN ELT METHODOLOGY: A FOCUS ON EFFECTIVE SESSION DESIGN

Viktoriia SMELİANSKA 🆔
Olga PONOMARENKO 🆔
Yevhen PLOTNİKOV 🆔

Abstract

In 2016, the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council Ukraine launched the New Generation School Teacher project, which aimed to change traditional approaches to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher training at universities in Ukraine. The collaboration resulted in a Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching (ELT) Methodology at Bachelor's level (2020). The new methodology programme has become central to EFL teacher education at Nizhyn Gogol State University and has adopted a practice-based approach to the design of ELT methodology courses, focusing on what teachers should be able to do rather than what they should know in order to ensure effective student learning. Through the course, pre-service EFL teachers are expected to acquire essential methodological knowledge and familiarise themselves with the principles of effective learning and teaching, develop a range of practical skills for teaching English to school learners and demonstrate their ability to apply their skills in a real teaching context.

The competency-based approach to teaching methodology required a significant change in the training model in general and in the design of the sessions in particular. This chapter discusses the principles and approaches to designing and delivering ELT methodology sessions providing some practical samples.

Keywords: EFL teacher training, curriculum, practice-based approach, competency-based approach, session design.

1. Introduction

In 2016 the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council Ukraine launched the New Generation School Teacher project aimed at changing traditional approaches to English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher training at universities in Ukraine. The collaboration resulted in Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching (ELT) Methodology

at Bachelor's Level (2020). The new methodology program has become central to EFL teacher education at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University (NMGSU) and has adopted practice-based approach to ELT methodology course design with a focus on what teachers should be able to *do* rather than *know* in order to ensure effective student learning. Doing the course, pre-service EFL teachers are expected to acquire essential methodological knowledge and familiarize with the principles of effective learning and teaching, develop a range of practical skills for teaching English to school learners and demonstrate their ability to apply their skills in a real teaching context.

Before the launch of the New Generation School Teacher project (https://www.britishcouncil.org.ua/teach/projects/presett) and adoption of the Core Curriculum for ELT Methodology, lecture-style teaching of methodology course prevailed at NMGSU which put theory over practice by default and often treated these two components of the course as discrete elements. According to Bolitho (2015), this kind of teaching can negatively tell on the quality of teacher preparation as the latter 'needs to be practically oriented and to include assessable outcomes which are clearly relevant to students' future career as teachers'. The new Core Curriculum is based on the premise that EFL teacher training must be competency and practice-based and that the quality of teaching students receive contributes sufficiently to their self-efficacy and preparedness to teach.

The study does not provide any empirical evidence, relying on the positive evaluation of the New Core Curriculum and its implementation by Alan Mackenzie (2019).

2. English as a Medium of Instruction

It is worth mentioning that English Medium Instruction (EMI) is applied, i.e. the English language is used to teach Methodology, thus developing pre-service teachers' ELT methodology and EFL competence. The findings of the study "English as a medium of instruction – a growing global phenomenon" by Julie Dearden (2014) might describe our results of the adoption of the Core Curriculum for ELT Methodology too. University trainers support the idea that "EMI was beneficial to students and more specifically, that students made progress in English when they studied through EMI" (Dearden, 2014, p. 28). The students improve their English by being exposed to it through speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The improvement in EFL proficiency happens as a by-product of the carefully designed ELT Methodology sessions. For example, Alan Mackenzie (2019) points out that the students' language proficiency level was C1 in comparison to B2 in traditional methodology teaching. However, University trainers are responsible for their students' understanding the content of

sessions. So, they help with their students' knowledge of English by adapting the materials, paraphrasing, teaching subject-specific vocabulary, in particular some methodology terms.

Besides, according to the findings of the TAEC Project (2020), there are three different conceptualizations or explanations of what English as medium of instruction means for the classroom: 1) change of language, 2) change of language + change of teaching style, 3) change of language + change of teaching style + change of student population. In NMGSU the trainers change the language and the teaching style. In this case, "switching to EMI means that although the context or setting of the event you are in remains the same, you change not only the language, but also the way you teach" (TAEC Project, 2020, p. 8). For example, our teaching includes a lot of pair and groupwork, discussion, etc. purposefully planned in methodology sessions.

3. Principles of ELT Methodology Session Design

One of the ways to ensure teaching quality is through session design. We approach methodology session design from active involvement in learning perspective and session development itself is informed by the key principles behind teacher training activities suggested by Bolitho and Wright (2007), Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives and backward design approach. Backward design prioritizes learning objectives as a starting point of class session elaboration followed by determining acceptable evidence of learning and finally planning instruction and learning experiences (Wiggins & McTighe, 2011).

Session learning objectives are formulated in the student-centered manner, namely 'By the end of the session students will be able to…'. And this is where Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives is made use of prioritizing learning and its stages rather than content. When choosing a verb to describe the knowledge or skill students are expected to obtain, it is important to make your learning objectives SMART i.e., specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound. Once class session objectives are set, it is necessary to think of assessments that can gauge students' attainment of learning objectives and in case of a single class session formative assessment is the best choice. The next step of the backward design process is to elaborate class session activities that are aligned with the learning objectives and help students meet them.

One of the trainers for the New Generation School Teachers project was Rod Bolitho who shared some main principles to stick to while developing and sequencing activities for PRESETT. The first important principle is starting where your learners are i.e., engaging with their previous knowledge and experiences (Starting from). What previous experiences might

pre-service EFL teachers have? They are language learners themselves and can share their experience from this perspective. Pre-service teachers' vicarious experience can also be informed by the models supplied by their school or university language teachers.

Another key principle to consider is that we work from practice towards principles (theory). This can be achieved by setting a shared task which can help learners acquire shared experience along with guiding their reflection on the experience through answering teacher's questions. This is where we "move away from a transmission approach to training towards a more participatory one" (Wright & Bolitho, 2007, p. 122). This way learners are able to contribute to the construction of new knowledge. Theory on the topic in focus can be presented later in the session in the form of a mini-lecture, reading or any other kind of input. Bolitho and Wright (1995) recognize the central "role of talk in processing of new ideas" (p. 8), that is why it is important to comment on and analyze them in plenary discussions. Assigning follow-up reading is advisable for students to explore the topic for themselves and make sense of what is taught. This practice enables to realize another principle of training activity consisting in giving your students time for ideas to settle.

Finally, it is time for the plan-for-action phase of the session when pre-service teachers' experience has to become concrete and individual. For example, students can be asked to prepare an activity or a lesson putting into practice new principles. This new individual experience is a basis for reflection which has a vital part to play in pre-service teacher development and helps them to become reflective practitioners.

A formative assessment task is an excellent ending of a session. In online Cambridge Dictionary (https://dictionary.cambridge.org/), assessment is defined as a methodical way of acquiring, reviewing and using information about someone or something, so as to make improvements where necessary. Assessment is concerned with individual student (assessee) learning and conducted by a teacher (assessor) who observes or collects evidence about an assessee's performance or outcome. The criteria for assessment are set by both parties jointly. The variety of course assessments, namely formative and summative assessments (quizzes, exams, final papers, final projects [text-based or multimedia], peer assessments, self-assessments, and reflection) is a key feature of this ELT Methodology course.

It is useful to think about different types of assessment in terms of its purpose. For example, formative assessment refers to assessments conducted while students are learning and is used by teachers to adjust their classroom teaching practices and by students to improve their performance as needed. The purpose of formative assessment is to improve students' learning

and not for grading or judging students' achievement of learning objectives (Popham, 2021). In self-assessment learners are encouraged to assess their own progress, in peer assessment – each other using specific criteria.

It is important to maintain students' engagement through the session by making objectives explicit, using a variety of activities and interaction patterns, altering the pace when needed and giving time and space to think and reflect while slowly increasing the level of challenge as the session proceeds.

4. ELT Methodology Session Sample

Following the incorporation of the suggested principles and approaches, a carefully designed methodology session was implemented during the third year of study, specifically within Module 3: Preparing to Teach 2. More specifically, this session focused on Unit 3.1, which explored the essential theme of language skills, with a particular emphasis on teaching listening skills. This session was carefully designed to meet the specific needs and developmental stage of the pre-service teachers, ensuring their comprehensive understanding and effective application of listening teaching techniques.

By strategically aligning the session with the overarching curriculum framework, the integration of the proposed principles and approaches seamlessly enhanced the learning experience for the pre-service teachers. The session aimed to equip them with the necessary knowledge, skills and pedagogical strategies to effectively teach listening skills in the English language classroom.

Throughout the session, a structured and interactive approach was used to actively engage the pre-service teachers. Various pedagogical techniques such as modelling effective listening strategies, engaging in collaborative discussions and analysing authentic audio materials were used to foster a deep understanding of the intricacies of teaching listening skills. The session also encouraged critical thinking and reflective practice, enabling pre-service teachers to evaluate their own teaching methods and explore innovative approaches to promoting active listening in their future students.

In addition, the session design included opportunities for pre-service teachers to apply their learning through practical activities and micro-teaching exercises. By providing a supportive and constructive learning environment, the pre-service teachers were able to actively practice their teaching techniques and receive valuable feedback from their peers and trainers. This experiential learning approach facilitated the development of their pedagogical competence and confidence in teaching listening skills effectively.

Tables 1-4 below show the session templates and associated handouts, providing a visual representation of the carefully designed teaching materials and resources. These templates acted as a comprehensive guide for both trainers and pre-service teachers, ensuring a structured and coherent delivery of the session content.

Taken together, these session templates and handouts exemplify the careful planning and delivery of the methodology session. They serve as valuable resources that not only guide the trainers, but also enhance the learning experience of the pre-service teachers. By using these materials, pre-service teachers will be equipped with the necessary tools and resources to effectively teach listening skills and promote language development in their future classrooms.

Table 1. ELT Methodology course session framework

Module	3 Preparing to teach 2			
Unit	3.1 Language Skills – Teaching Listening			
Session	4			
Topic	Purposes for Listening			
Objectives	By the end of the session students will be able to identify the purposes for listening; to use and develop activities according to the purpose of listening.			
Time	80 minutes			
Materials and equipment	Handouts, PowerPoint presentation			
Activity	**Aim**	**Procedure**	**Interaction**	**Time**
Lead-in	to explore students' background knowledge on purposes for listening	Ask students to comment on the quotation: *People never listen without a purpose, except perhaps in a language class.* (Gary Buck)	SS-SS groups of 4	2 mins
Comment	The quotation is demonstrated on the slide. It is a warmer activity which can help students to predict the topic of the session and activate their background knowledge and critical thinking. Trainer might ask some guiding questions to boost the discussion, for example: *1. What did Gary Buck mean? Do you agree with him?*			
Reflection on previous experience	to explore students' previous experience of listening to L1 outside the classroom and L2 in the classroom	Ask students to reflect on their listening experience in the classroom and in the real world. Ask them to write down the things they listened to in the past 24 hours in and out of the classroom and reasons why they listened to them. Invite students to discuss the differences between listening to	T-S (individually) Pair-Share-Compare SSS (plenary)	5 mins

		L1 outside the classroom and listening to English inside the classroom.		
Comment	Give students an example, *In the morning I listened to the weather forecast on the radio to find out if it will rain today.* (Listening in the real world) If students have problems comparing the two types of listening experience, guide them by asking questions, for example: *Do you choose what to listen to in the classroom? And in real life?* It is important to conclude that listening to L2 in the classroom has to become as purposeful as listening to L1 in the real world.			
Setting learning objectives	to find out what students expect to lean during the session and to set the objectives	Announce the topic and ask students to share their expectations of the session. Set the objectives for the session.	T-S	3 mins
Comment	Sharing their expectations students contribute to the agenda for learning and engage in practices of autonomous learners. Learning objectives make student involvement in the session conscious and allow them to use metacognitive strategies to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning.			
Shared experiences	to allow students to focus on their English classroom listening experience and identify purposes for listening	Ask students what they listened to last in their English class and what was the purpose for it.	T-S	2 mins
Comment	Ask students to remember all cases of listening in the classroom. Draw students' attention to the idea that we listen not only to specially prepared recordings but also to peers' answers or teacher's instructions and explanations. Ask students to 'put on teachers' hats' and comment on purposes for listening from teacher's perspective as well as learners.			
Pre-teaching key words and grouping students	to pre-teach the key words for a reading activity to group students	Ask students to draw a strip of paper either with a word missing some letters or letters to complete one of the words. Get students to mingle and find their partner for the reading activity.	SSS (mingling)	3 mins
Comment	Doing this activity, we pre-teach some words whose meaning or form we find difficult for students, for example, *inferential.* Once students did the matching and found their partners, we ask them to read the words aloud and explain their meaning. Sometimes we have to convey the meaning of some words through example sentences, context, etc.			
Input	to raise students' awareness of	Get students to read the text about purposes for listening inserting missing phrases and	S-S (pairs)	10 mins

	purposes for listening	sentences into appropriate place in the table.		
Comment	Doing this task, students get theoretical input which helps to clarify and consolidate their understanding of the topic in question. This stage of the session can use loop input approach too if you choose to get students to listen to a mini-lecture each group with a different purpose for listening. For example, group 1 can listen and make notes which makes it listening for details. After the activity students reflect on their experience. Another tweak is to present this input in a jigsaw reading activity.			
Metaphors	to assess students understanding of purposes for listening	Students are shown pictures metaphorically representing different purposes for listening. Get them to say and explain what purpose is illustrated.	SSS (plenary)	5 mins
Comment	This activity serves as formative assessment. Pictures are shown on slides, e.g. a detective searching for clues with a magnifying glass (listening in detail), a bird flying over a city (listening for gist), a dog sniffing a suitcase at the customs (listening for specific information), a boy with a 'thinking' cap on (inferential listening).We can ask students not only to explain metaphors but also suggest their own which will demonstrate their deeper insight into the topic.			
Listening tasks	to get students to match purposes for listening with listening tasks	Give students a list of instructions for listening tasks. Get them choose the right purpose for these listening tasks.	S-S	5 mins
Comment	This activity helps students to draw connections between purposes for listening and instructions for listening tasks. It also prepares them for the next activity.			
Applying to action (planning)	to get students to devise a listening activity	Ask students to create an activity for the stated listening purpose using the script. Get students to try the activity on their groupmates who will define the purpose for listening.	SS-SS (4 groups)	30 mins
Comment	First students study the script of the listening text and class profile. Next, they are divided into 4 groups. Each group is assigned a purpose for listening to devise their activity on. Other groups do not know each other's purposes. Groups microteach their activities and get feedback from their peers. They might argue that the task matches the purpose and can suggest their improvements. Summing up the activity trainer asks what order students might use their listening activities in the classroom and why and if they would make their students listen to one and the same text twice. It is also advisable to discuss the challenges students had while working on the task.			
Reflection on the session	to summarize the session	Ask students if their expectations of the sessions have been met. Ask students if the objectives of the session have been met.	SSS	10 mins

Comment	It is one of the most important stages of the session as it informs us of students understanding and degree of engagement with the topic. Reflection encourages pre-service teachers to be more considerate of their learning. To guide reflection some additional questions can be asked, for example, *What did you want to know before we got started? What issue was addressed? What new skills did you learn? What surprised you? What worked or didn't work? What did you like or dislike about the experience? What things will you do differently or the same next time? How can you apply this in the future?*		
Homework	to set homework, to reflect on the session	Ask students to consider their experience of today's session and dwell on the suggested points on Flip. Something that I have learned today. Something that surprised me. Something that I will use in my own teaching. Something I'd like to work on/ find out. Something that I would have done differently in the session. Any other comments. Ask them to watch their peers' videos and like the best one from their point of view.	T-S	5 mins
Comment	It is formative assessment combining self-assessment and peer assessment. Getting students to reflect on and get involved with their own and their peers' learning process is a part of developing reflective practitioners. Learning journals are an excellent way of doing this, students use their webcam or mobile phone to record a short video after the session and post it on Flip. Flip (https://info.flip.com/) is a video discussion app that can be used for rehearsed speaking.		

Table 1 illustrates the overall session framework, outlining the key components, objectives and learning outcomes. It serves as a roadmap for trainers, providing a clear overview of the session flow and progression of activities. The framework emphasises the integration of the proposed principles and approaches, stressing the importance of starting where the learners are, working from practice to theory and planning for action.

Table 2. Handout 1 to accompany the ELT Methodology course session framework

Unit 3.1. Language Skills – Teaching Listening   **Session 4: Purposes for Listening**   **Handout 1 Key Vocabulary**
Draw a strip of paper. Complete the words and find your partner.

DE__AIL	T
IN__ER	F
G__ST	I
SP__CIFIC	E
INFORM__TION	A

Handout 1 (Table 2.) is used as a pre-teaching activity to introduce and familiarise students with key vocabulary words that may be challenging or unfamiliar. Students are given a strip of paper with incomplete words and their task is to complete the words by filling in the missing letters. Once completed, students find a partner who has a strip of paper with a matching word. They then take turns reading out the words and explaining their meaning. This activity promotes vocabulary acquisition and comprehension by encouraging students to discuss and clarify the meaning of words through examples, context and other strategies.

Table 3. Handout 2 to accompany the ELT Methodology course session framework

Unit 3.1. Language Skills – Teaching Listening Session 4: Purposes for Listening Handout 2 Purposes for Listening	
Insert missing phrases and sentences into appropriate place in the table. Dwell on the characteristics of each purpose for listening.	
1. _____	This refers to the occasions when we want to know the general idea of what is being said, as well as who is speaking to whom and why, and how successful they are in communicating their point. Students only focus on the main ideas. This type of listening is like standing in a waterfall. It washes over you and you get the general feeling / understanding.
Listening for specific information	This refers to the occasions when we don't need to understand everything, but only a very specific part. 2._____ We ignore everything else.
3. _____	This refers to the type of listening we do when, for example, we need to find errors or determine differences between one passage and another. 4._____
5._____	This refers to the type of listening we do when we wish to know how the speaker feels. 6. _____

A. Listening in detail	D. We cannot afford to ignore anything because, unlike listening to a list of delayed trains, we don't know exactly what information will help us to achieve our task.
B. Inferential listening	E. We make deductions by going beyond what is actually stated. It is all about making analogies to situations that we recognize. Such listening requires a 'model' in our heads of how the situation might unfold.
C. Listening for gist	F. For example, while listening to a list of delayed trains, we are only interested in hearing news about one particular train – the one we want to catch – and so we listen selectively for this very information.
(*Adapted from Wilson, J.J. (2008) *How to Teach Listening*. Pearson Longman, p.10)	

The purpose of Handout 2 (Table 3.) is to deepen students' understanding of different listening purposes. Students are given a table with missing phrases and sentences related to different listening purposes. Their task is to fill in the missing phrases and sentences in the appropriate places in the table. This task provides the students with theoretical input and allows them to consolidate their understanding of the topic. Alternatively, teachers can use a loop input approach where each group listens to a mini-lecture with a different listening purpose. After completing the task, students reflect on their experience and engage in discussions to further analyse the characteristics of each purpose for listening. This activity promotes critical thinking and helps students to develop a comprehensive understanding of the different purposes of listening.

Table 4. Handout 3 to accompany the ELT Methodology course session framework

Unit 3.1. Language Skills – Teaching Listening **Session 4: Purposes for Listening** **Handout 3 Listening Instructions**	
Choose the right purpose for these listening tasks.	
Purpose for Listening	**Listening Task**
	Listen to the conversation and take notes to complete the table.
	Listen and match conversations 1-5 to photos a-e.
	Listen to Mike and Emma discussing city life. How do they feel about living in the city?
	Listen to eight short extracts. After each one, discuss with a partner how you think each person is feeling.
	Listen and decide if the sentences below are true (T), false (F), or we don't know (?).
	Listen and follow the instructions to make an origami model.

The purpose of Handout 3 (Table 4.) is to help students make a clear link between the purposes of listening and the corresponding instructions for listening tasks. Students are given a list of listening tasks and a set of purpose statements. Their aim is to carefully analyse the purpose statements and determine the appropriate purpose for each listening task. By engaging in this activity, students will develop their ability to decipher the underlying goals of listening tasks and to understand how different instructions align with specific listening purposes.

As students work through Handout 3, they actively make connections between the intended outcomes of the listening tasks and the purposes they serve. This activity encourages students to think critically and evaluate the relationship between effective listening strategies and the overall aims of listening activities. By identifying the appropriate purpose for each task,

students improve their overall understanding of how listening instructions are tailored to achieve specific learning objectives.

Table 5. Handout 4 to accompany the ELT Methodology course session framework

<table>
<tr><td>

Unit 3.1. Language Skills – Teaching Listening
Session 4: Purposes for Listening
Handout 4

</td></tr>
<tr><td>

Design an activity for the stated listening purpose using the script.
Class Profile
- 16-year-olds
- Pre-intermediate level
- Class has English two times a week for 45 minutes

Offline Day
Yesterday, I had a whole day without the Internet. It was quite different from my usual routine. Instead of spending hours surfing the web and checking social media, I found myself engaging in various activities. In the morning, I picked up a book that had been sitting on my shelf for months. It was refreshing to immerse myself in a captivating story without any distractions. Later, I went for a long walk in the park, enjoying the beauty of nature and breathing in the fresh air. I also spent quality time with my family, playing board games and having meaningful conversations. Without the Internet, I realized how much I had been missing out on these simple yet fulfilling experiences. Although it was challenging at times, not being connected to the online world for 24 hours allowed me to appreciate the offline world and find joy in the little things.

</td></tr>
</table>

Handout 4 (Table 5.) enables students to actively design listening activities based on a provided script and class profile. After studying the script and considering the learners' needs, students are divided into groups, each with a specific purpose for listening. They work together to create activities that engage learners in active listening, comprehension and response.

Once the activities have been developed, each group presents and micro-teaches their activity to the class. This allows for peer feedback and discussion to assess the effectiveness of the activity in achieving its intended purpose. Pupils reflect on the order of implementation of the activity and explore the advantages and disadvantages of multiple listening.

This hands-on activity encourages creativity, critical thinking and an understanding of the relationship between instructional design and the purpose of listening. Through active participation and reflection, students gain insight into creating purposeful and effective listening activities.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, the findings of this study provide valuable insights into the design of ELT methodology sessions for pre-service teachers, thereby addressing a significant gap in the existing literature on this topic. The findings highlight key aspects that contribute to the successful design of these sessions, including the implementation of EMI, the use of Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Objectives, the adoption of a backward design approach, and the incorporation of key principles for sequencing session activities, namely starting where learners are, working from practice to theory, and planning for action.

The study shows that pre-service teachers improve their ELT methodology and professional competence through their participation in ELT methodology courses using EMI. However, it is crucial for trainers to take responsibility for ensuring that their students understand the session content and to adapt their teaching style in line with the session design principles outlined above in order to provide engaging and purposeful structured learning experiences in methodology courses.

Despite the advantages discussed, it is important to acknowledge some limitations. One notable limitation is the time and energy required to develop a coherent sequence of sessions in an ELT methodology course, mainly due to the lack of comprehensive methodology textbooks. It is therefore advisable to work with a team of designers to alleviate this challenge.

Thus, the present study contributes significantly to the understanding of designing ELT methodology sessions for pre-service teachers. By adopting these recommendations, teacher educators can create engaging and purposeful structured learning in methodology courses, thereby promoting the development of ELT methodology and professionalism among pre-service teachers. This holistic approach not only equips future educators with the necessary skills, but also encourages a shift in teaching styles to align with the principles of lesson design. Ultimately, these efforts will contribute to the continuous improvement of language teaching and the professional growth of pre-service teachers.

REFERENCES

Bevz, O., Gembaruk, A., Honcharova, O., Zabolotna, O., Zmiievska, O., Kalinina, L., Kamynin, I., Konovalenko, T., Romanyshyn, I., Samoilukevych, I., Taran, O., Tuchyna, N. & Khudyk, K. (2020). *Typova prohrama "Metodyka navchannia anhliiskoii movy" Osvitnii stupin bakalavra.* [Core Curriculum: English Language Teaching Methodology. Bachelor's Level]. NAIR. 126 p. (in Ukrainian)

Bolitho, R. (2015). The ingredients of quality in teacher education**.** In G. Pickering and P. Gunashekar (Eds.), *Ensuring quality in English language teacher education* (pp 26-34). British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.in/sites/default/files/tec15_papers_final_for_web_new.pdf

Bolitho, R., & Wright, T. (1995). "Starting from where they're at." Towards an appropriate methodology for teacher training', *The Journal of TESOL France, 2*(1), 53–64.

Dearden, J. (2014) English as a medium of instruction – a growing global phenomenon. British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.es/sites/default/files/british_council_english_as_a_medium_of_instruction.pdf

Mackenzie, A. (2019). *"Shkilnyi uchytel novoho pokolinnia". Zvit pro rezultaty otsiniuvannia proiektu Brytanskoi Rady v Ukraini* [*"New Generation School Teacher" Evaluation report of the British Council in Ukraine project*]. British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.org.ua/sites/default/files/evaluation_of_presett.pdf (in Ukrainian)

Popham, W. James (2021). *Classroom Assessment: What Teachers Need to Know* [9th Edition]. Pearson.

TAEC Project. (2020). *EMI Handbook*. https://cip.ku.dk/english/projects-and-collaborations/taec/TAEC_Handbook_FEB_2020_NoEdit.pdf

Wiggins, G., & McTighe, J. (2011). *The Understanding by Design guide to creating high-quality units*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Wright, T., & Bolitho, R. (2007). *Trainer Development* (Self-Published/Lulu, 2007).

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Assoc. Prof. Victoriia SMELİANSKA

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-3421-7473

smelianska.victoria@ndu.edu.ua

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

Associate Professor and BA TESOL Programme Leader in the Germanic Philology and Foreign Languages Methodology Department at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Her research interests include ELT Methodology for pre-service EFL teachers, SEL, curriculum design, distance/ blended learning via LMS. She published a number of research articles on online learning activities and tools, teaching grammar and EFL skills to pre-service EFL teachers.

Assoc. Prof. Olga PONOMARENKO

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0003-3874-7460

ponomarenko.ov@ndu.edu.ua

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

The author holds a PhD in Education. Currently she is an associate professor at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Ukraine. Her areas of interest are EFL teacher training, teacher leadership and CPD. Participant of a number of projects. For example, in 2016-2019 she participated in the New Generation School Teacher project launched by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and British Council and developed demo materials for the new methodology course.

Assoc. Prof. Yevhen PLOTNİKOV

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-6010-247X

plotnikov@ndu.edu.ua

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

PhD in Education ('13.00.02. Methodology of Teaching Germanic Languages'), Associate Professor. Head of the

Department of Germanic Philology and Methodology of Teaching Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University (Ukraine). Lecturer in a number of theoretical and practical courses in the field of foreign language teaching (" English Language Teaching Methodology", "Teaching Foreign Languages with Technology", "Foreign Language Learning Planning and Curriculum Design", "Scientific Writing and Research Methods in Language and Educational Studies", etc.). Head of the Project Office at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Coordinator, (co-)manager and participant of many national and international research/educational projects. Expert of the National Agency of Quality Assurance in Higher Education of Ukraine.

CHAPTER 4: EMPLOYING STORYTELLING AS A PEDAGOGICAL STRATEGY IN EFL CLASSROOM

Hayriye AVARA (iD)

Abstract

One of the oldest forms of education and oral tradition still in use today to transmit the cultures, traditions, and customs of a past society is storytelling. It creates a link between the old and the modern. In EFL lessons, storytelling typically offers a relevant context, an engaging environment, and is utilised as a method to greatly encourage pupils. Although it is generally believed that storytelling is based on imitation and repetition, many creative activities can be used in the classroom because this method encourages students to use their imaginations. Therefore, storytelling is a vital communication technique that can be applied in the language classroom to foster imagination and creativity in both teaching and learning. This study explores the value of storytelling as a teaching method in EFL lessons. It outlines the benefits of employing storytelling as a teaching and learning strategy to improve students' language and literacy abilities as well as to promote student engagement and interaction in language classes. It also looks at how engaging in storytelling activities can increase and promote fascinating language use and improve comprehension across all four skill areas.

Keywords: Storytelling, Teaching English, EFL, Strategy

1. Introduction

Storytelling, as a long-standing, worldwide custom is a powerful communication tool that people can use to share ideas, feelings, and experiences. Stories have been employed for amusement, motivation, instruction as well as to pass on knowledge, preserve culture, and to teach ethical principles. This means that people of all ages use stories for a variety of reasons and relate them to other people of all ages in a variety of ways. For instance, it is possible to observe how children portray relationships between individuals, what they imagine their future needs and wants to be, and how they conduct themselves in the stories they act out while playing. Adult storytellers frequently relate, discuss, ponder, and offer advice about the most important values in the world. After all, the delivery of stories has long served as a means of transmitting cultural traditions and legacy.

Storytelling is the use of narratives as a social tool for valuing, disseminating, and maximising individual understanding. A story is a narrative that includes events, characters, and emotional elements. Reading aloud and storytelling are typically contrasted as being distinct art forms. In contrast to reading aloud, where the reader reads aloud the exact words in a given story or presents a memorised text to the audience, Mello (2001) claims that in storytelling, the storyteller focuses on the main message(s) and is free to use language improvisation, vocalisation, mimetic action, and his or her creativity to convey a story message to the audience. Stories also assist in the more effective transmission of knowledge by making the subject matter more captivating and memorable. According to Ohler (2013), stories offer a useful framework, metaphor, and collection of useful methods for resolving problems, educating ourselves, and achieving our objectives. Additionally, storytelling is an effective tool for communication. Storytelling can be used in many different contexts, but it is especially effective in language education. According to Andrews and Hull (2009), learning occurs most creatively in social and communal settings that provide real-world contexts for how to apply information. That is, it is mainly about how stories can be used as a tool to spread knowledge in a communal sense. Storytelling, to McDrury and Alterio (2003), is a distinctively human form of communication that allows people to express a variety of aspects of who they are, how they relate to others, and the real or imagined environments people live in. Because tales make up a significant portion of who people are, they aid us in understanding these worlds and how we fit within them. Storytelling, according to Dyson and Genishi (1994), is an interaction between a teller and an audience that involves the use of a narrative structure, vocalisation, dramatic imagery, and/or both verbal and nonverbal clues. The audience responds to the teller's actions verbally and nonverbally as well.

2. Storytelling in Education

Education is a crucial step in helping people advance their knowledge and abilities, sharpen their thinking skills, and give back to the community. In this context, storytelling has been a vital and effective teaching tool despite the evolution and change in educational techniques over time, for they have a significant impact on education, and people. The use of storytelling techniques improves the ambiance and setting of the classroom. Because stories are engaging and even hilarious, they can help learners unwind and lessen their concerns. In contrast to the majority of traditional teaching methods, a well-told tale, according to Richter and Koppett (2000), can promote a sense of community and belonging in learning groups. Hence, use of storytelling in education has several advantages.

To start with, storytelling helps improve students' communication skills. When they tell a story, they can also improve their logical cognitive functions, emotive expressions, and effective audience communication abilities. Young learners, for instance, can enhance their communication abilities through stories by acting out while playing how they imagine how people interact to one another, what they think their needs and desires are for the future, and how they should act. Adult storytellers, on the other hand, frequently debate, describe, pause about, and advocate the most important world ideas. After all, passing down traditions and cultural heritage has always been done frequently through storytelling. These skills help students communicate more effectively inside and outside of the classroom.

Additionally, students can get an understanding of how language functions and how to use it effectively through the characters, dialogue, and events in stories. Additionally, reading a variety of stories- including fairy tales, novels, short stories, etc.- gives children the chance to experiment with new grammatical constructions and idioms, which improves their language proficiency. Moreover, storytelling affects linguistic diversity and cultural diversity in language learning as well as cultivating cultural and historical awareness. That is, the use of stories to comprehend history and cultural context is quite effective. A society's history, morals, and beliefs are reflected in its legends, fairy tales, and traditional traditions. Introducing these tales to students helps them become more historically and culturally aware.

One of the most important benefits of storytelling is that it can help students enhance their grammar and vocabulary. They can see how language is used in real-world situations through stories. For instance, Brown (2017) asserts that the use of stories helps improve students' understanding of the main ideas and topics in text. When students can relate to the experiences of a story's characters, they are better able to comprehend complex ideas. Hence, they are better able to comprehend information and retain it for longer. Furthermore, stories can help students build analytical and critical thinking skills because it is crucial to understand and analyse texts. This also enables storytelling to enhance pupils' capacity for original ideas. In other words, storytelling encourages children to grow as creative thinkers. By telling or making up stories, students can develop their ability to come up with original ideas, imagine different outcomes, and find creative solutions. According to Savvidou (2010), storytelling is a style of thinking about experience that values the perspective of the individual. This enhances one's capacity for problem-solving and promotes unique thought.

One other advantage of storytelling for students is the growth of their emotional intelligence and capacity for empathy. Students who create stories might improve their emotional

intelligence, empathy, and capacity to perceive things from various angles by seeking to understand the sentiments of a fictional character. This might result in closer relationships with others and increased awareness of societal issues. Similarly, narrative improves students' capacity for original thought. Students can use their imaginations to investigate potential links between various characters and events when they are creating stories. A greater aptitude for critical thought and problem-solving benefits children. Since it calls for kids to understand the motivations and emotions of characters, storytelling can aid children in growing their emotional intelligence and empathy.

Another benefit of storytelling is the ability to learn and understand information. That is, using examples from real-world experiences or intriguing stories, one can successfully convey complex or difficult concepts. Stories can help students build their analytical and critical thinking skills because it is crucial to analyse and interpret texts. No matter the learners' age or background, Cameron (2001) claims that storytelling is a successful teaching strategy for fostering the acquisition of language skills in both the first language (L1) and the second language (L2).

2.1. Storytelling in Language Education

Storytelling is a crucial tool for educational objectives, particularly when learning the English language (Wright, 2000). Stories provide students a chance to have their voices heard, and they do this by placing them at the centre of the learning process and demonstrating the value they place on their experiences. Storytelling, according to Coconi (2013), is the act of conveying events via the use of language and sound. This is a form of improvisational expression that centres on a story and/or point of view. Students can use words and pictures to play with their imaginations when they are told stories. Additionally, it encourages participation from the students in class as they begin to develop assumptions about the plot. Along these lines, storytelling is a successful method for teaching English since it helps students' listening abilities. As follows, students' daily lives may benefit from their increased language comprehension.

According to Barrett (2006), stories incorporate various characteristics of learning methodology, such as project-based learning, technology integration, student participation, and reflection for deep learning. Also, Atta-Alla (2012) explains that storytelling is a powerful pedagogical strategy for teaching and improving L2 abilities since it works on language skills in an enjoyable, motivating, and contextualised way. This makes it more interesting for students to listen to stories as well as to speak, write, and read about them. Likewise, Cooper et al. (1992)

claim that storytelling aids students in learning and remembering pronunciation, grammatical structures, and vocabulary.

However, learning a language entails more than merely picking up new vocabulary or grammar rules. That is, understanding a culture and being able to communicate with people require linguistic proficiency. In other words, due to the richness and versatility of the language, learning English can occasionally be a difficult task. Understanding grammar rules is only one aspect of learning English. It is equally crucial to comprehend and use the language itself. When students learn English through stories, they not only learn the language but also how to apply it. In this respect, using stories to teach English is a highly successful teaching strategy, for understanding a language's cultural background and narratives is essential for proper comprehension. Thus, the use of stories when teaching English to non-native speakers helps pupils communicate more effectively and develop their language skills, for they can polish their grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation skills by telling stories.

In addition, language learners also have the chance to enhance their communication abilities as storytelling encourages student participation, improves cultural understanding, and promotes the growth of critical thinking abilities. It is possible to use language practically by comprehending and sharing a story. While telling stories to others, students can enhance their speaking and writing abilities. Understanding stories can help them develop their listening and comprehension abilities as well. Thus, storytelling is a crucial language learning practise that can aid in the development of efficient communication in L2 classroom.

Storytelling is typically defined in terms of how it functions or what it does to encourage communication between storytellers and tale listeners in the field of language teaching. In this setting, storytelling can be used as a powerful method of expression for ideas, feelings, and experiences. According to Atta-Alla (2012), storytelling is a way to share and explain events. Stories are crucial because they bridge linguistic, cultural, and other differences. All ages can benefit from the storytelling style, dispelling the idea of age discrimination. It is possible to educate morals, cultural standards, and societal values through the use of stories. In addition, Hsu (2010) defines storytelling as the process of relating a story to an audience through the use of voice, facial expressions, hand gestures, eye contact, and involvement. A story is produced as a result of the interaction between the storyteller and the audience. Because of this, while the storyteller uses words and gesture to transmit a narrative, the audience physically reacts to it by squinting, gazing, or grinning, providing feedback on how the narrative is being received to the storyteller.

Furthermore, storytelling plays a significant role in all communities and is a highly effective teaching tool for young learners (Phillips, 2000). Young learners enjoy reading, writing, and listening to stories, and they learn more about society and life in general from the stories. Telling and dramatizing stories has become a fairly common element to the pre-school curriculum (Wright et al., 2008). There are various studies that demonstrate the positive effects of storytelling on young children's language development. To give an example, Willis (1996) demonstrates excellent story-telling techniques for instructors in his book *Teaching Language by Telling Stories* and emphasises the importance of stories in language learning. Additionally, in his article 'Language Acquisition and Language Learning,' Stephen Krashen (1982) demonstrates how stories might impact pupils' language acquisition and the significance of emotional context for language development is discussed. Krashen (1982) makes the case that students can benefit greatly from using stories to replicate the process of acquiring a new language.

Using stories to engage students and make language learning more enjoyable is a great strategy as focused on by Kim (2010). By enabling students to comprehend and communicate in real-world settings, stories can help language learners feel connected. By following the characters' experiences, they can gain a deeper understanding of the language. Narratives can also help students recall information better and keep it for longer. Because they help people build an emotional connection, tales help people recall information better. As a result, language learners can better recall the vocabulary and grammatical rules they study.

Through stories, language learners can learn about many cultures and cultivate cultural sensitivity. According to Ray and Seely (2004), by hearing stories in the target language, learners are exposed to it in a way that feels normal, improving their speaking and comprehension skills. Students learn how to use language in the actual world through listening to and telling stories. They can have a deeper understanding of a civilization's values, beliefs, and history by learning the stories of the society where that society is spoken. This is crucial for a deeper comprehension of the language because of how closely it is related to culture.

There are several fun pre-storytelling exercises that draw children in and encourage participation, such as describing pictures, making predictions, and building connections with others. According to Tedjaatmadja and Renandya (2012), there are a variety of activities that must be completed once the narrative has been told, such as role-playing, responding to inquiries, developing alternate endings, and so on.

2.2. Significance of Storytelling in Language Development

Many nations' historical and cultural backgrounds are reflected in storytelling, which is often regarded as a potent method for enhancing linguistic abilities. Sundmark (2014) explains that by including narrative into language instruction, students' linguistic abilities can be improved because storytelling has the power to raise children's linguistic abilities. The relevance of students strengthening their language skills through stories is also emphasised by Uzun (2006). Because it gives students the chance to use language in authentic communication situations and because it helps students develop their grammar, vocabulary, and expressive skills, storytelling is regarded as an effective language learning technique. Reading, writing, listening, and speaking are all part of developing language abilities. For people to communicate effectively, to grow intellectually, and to absorb knowledge, language skills are fundamentally important. Storytelling is a powerful teaching tool for vocabulary and grammatical structure as also emphasized by Lucarevschi (2016). Stories can use a variety of sentence forms, tenses, and grammar rules. This aids language learners in applying their theoretical knowledge. Stories also give students the chance to learn new terms in context and show them how to use those words in everyday situations. Thus, storytelling enhances language learning and can help students' vocabulary grow. Lam et al. (2012) assert that stories can have a good effect on language acquisition because they help pupils create emotional connections and boost motivation.

Storytelling can enhance language abilities in various ways. For instance, it gives students level-appropriate literature to read. They study language and vocabulary via stories in a realistic setting. It also gives students the chance to write their own stories. They can practise applying vocabulary and grammar rules thanks to this. It requests that students recount an experience or a particular subject. This helps pupils' expressive abilities and communication skills both grow. It encourages pupils to perform story plays in small groups. They gain better speaking and listening abilities as a result. Schegloff (1997) asserts that narrative has the ability to spark conversation and give pupils a platform to express their thoughts or create new meanings. Personal experience narratives are not often offered as monologues in casual social interactions; instead, they are a part of a larger conversation in which the characters' perspectives are inserted.

In addition, students can be assigned activities involving story analysis. By talking about subjects like character development, theme, conflicts and storyline, they can expand their grasp of grammar and vocabulary. Also, language games can be incorporated into language instruction to make storytelling enjoyable. Story guessing games, for instance, can be played,

which encourages students to make up a story based on a particular opening line. Through their socialisation into a literacy event, such as reading a book aloud and repeating the narrative to a partner, Hellerman (2006) discovered confirmation that post-reading story re-telling can build learners' interactional skills and increase engagement in a classroom context. To Hellerman, socialisation during literacy-related activities in the classroom increases engagement in literacy activities outside of the classroom. This idea has been reinforced by Morrow (2001), who asserts that the activities that come after storytelling are just as essential as the storytelling itself. These activities include story recollection, which enables students to re-read the story and deepen their understanding, recycling new vocabulary, and allowing teachers to gauge their current language proficiency.

Furthermore, use of storybooks created specifically for language learners can help students interact with the stories according to their reading abilities. Stories provide opportunity for students to discover various accents and language variants. They benefit from understanding how the language is used in practical contexts. Students, to Ray and Seely (2004), can better comprehend that language is a living thing and how it is used in the actual world by employing narrative when learning a language. This approach can improve the effectiveness and fun of language acquisition.

2.3. Building Communication Skills Through Storytelling

Given that speaking and listening are the foundational skills of language acquisition, storytelling is an excellent way for teaching any language. Storytelling in the classroom involves more than just speaking and listening to the basic narrative. Through the use of narrative in language training, students have the opportunity to learn how language is used in real-world situations and improve their communication abilities. Hibbin (2014) asserts that oral storytelling in primary schools fosters speaking and listening abilities and, thus, promotes the use of oral storytelling as a teaching tool for innovative and interactive teaching techniques.

As previously stated, learning a language entails both increasing one's vocabulary and strengthening their communication skills. Students have the opportunity to refine their emotional expression, narrative skills, idea articulation, and listening abilities through the use of stories. This makes it easier for language learners to interact with people in real life. Further, Boje (2001) asserts that storytelling is a common social activity that enables the transmission of implicit and explicit information as well as the development of identities. Hence, stories offer the chance to comprehend various cultures, emotional situations, and social dynamics.

Students also have the chance to communicate more effectively on an emotional and mental level through storytelling. Listeners can emotionally engage with and inhabit the storyteller's world through a good story. During a storytelling exercise, two main characters must directly engage. They are storytellers as well as listeners. The listener must concentrate on the speaker's demeanour and how their body and face convey information. The teller must be prepared and employ suitable vocalisation and vocabulary in order to effectively and efficiently convey a story (Barzaq, 2009). Depending on factors such as the level and age of the students, the lesson objectives, the needs of the students, and so forth, a variety of stories, including fables, short stories with animals that speak or behave like humans as characters, that express a moral, fairytales, or folktales, might be utilised throughout the course of storytelling activities.

Students who enjoy a story, either as readers or listeners, are likely to identify with its primary characters. The struggles these characters face may be relatable to the viewers' own experiences, which can make them interested in the story's conclusion. According to Benjamin (1973), storytelling is a form of human communication that develops from the worlds of living speech and experiences that other people have shared. The accomplishments and coping mechanisms of characters can motivate viewers. Students get the capacity to communicate and tell in an emotional setting through storytelling. Students' capacity to empathise is enhanced when they comprehend the thoughts, feelings, and experiences of characters in a tale. Additionally, it improves students' communication skills, which gives them more self-assurance when practising their English.

In order to master the nuances of language, foster creative thinking, and improve communication skills, storytelling in language instruction offers pupils a potent instrument. Students learn via stories how language is applied and given meaning in daily life. Thus, incorporating storytelling into language-learning curricula can aid in students' development as more proficient, effective, and self-assured communicators.

2.3.1. Listening and speaking practice through storytelling

Significantly, students can improve their language skills in various ways. As mentioned by Kang et al. (2018), by combining listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities, storytelling can offer a holistic language learning experience. Furthermore, the use of stories can enhance communication abilities, language proficiency, and cultural background. Students can gain knowledge of the cultural context in which a language is utilised by using cultural stories. This helps while teaching languages since it increases cultural awareness.

Storytelling is a notion of symbolic activities, such as words and/or deeds, that have a pattern and content for those that live, produce, or interpret them. Barzaq (2009) defined storytelling as a knowledge management strategy that disseminates knowledge and provides content to specific audiences. 'Telling' comprises face-to-face interaction between the storyteller and the audience. The listeners can understand the storyteller's experiences through the messages that the storyteller can convey. However, storytelling will lose its appeal, according to Mart (2012), if the storytellers do not make the tales engaging and interesting. Storytelling should be combined with full physical responses in order to motivate young language learners to learn new languages. A good way to acquire vocabulary and sentence patterns is through storytelling. Storytelling is one speaking technique that is regularly used to teach speaking abilities. Language learners can write their own stories to share with their classmates or they can sum up a story they heard from someone else in the past. Telling stories encourages original thought. Additionally, it aids pupils in expressing concepts regarding the beginning, middle, and end of a story, as well as the necessary characters and setting (Kayi, 2012). Thus, a story comes to life through the interaction between the storyteller and the listener, who share the duty of storytelling. By definition, a story consists of a storyteller, a story listener, a theme, and issues that are grounded in reality.

According to Eela (2016), studying a foreign language might give the student a whole different perspective on the world. Thus, storytelling is a very effective teaching method for languages. As they write or tell stories, students can improve their expressive skills, increase their vocabulary, and strengthen their grammar. Storytelling is a technique that can be utilised in language training to enhance speaking abilities, according to Brown and Yule (1983). Students' speaking and listening abilities are enhanced through the use of stories in language instruction. Students learn how language should be spoken correctly and presented effectively by listening to or telling a tale. Additionally, it helps pupils learn to communicate through stories and improves their listening comprehension. The study of language instruction and storytelling is regarded as a crucial strategy for enhancing language learning and speaking abilities. Students gain a variety of advantages through storytelling, including increased vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, and enhanced speaking and listening abilities. Similarly, presentation skills can also be enhanced by telling or presenting a tale to others.

2.3.2. Reading practice through storytelling

Understanding and analysing texts can be improved through storytelling. Reading comprehension can be improved by considering the themes of the stories and the characters' motivations. In the classroom, this can help kids' reading comprehension abilities. Students have the chance to hone their writing and creative thinking skills via the process of writing stories. Students can practise telling their own stories

and structuring their thoughts through storytelling. This method can improve writing talents and boost expressiveness.

One effective strategy for enhancing students' linguistic skills is the use of stories in language training. Stories give students context for learning and show them how language is used in real-world situations. Contextualised storytelling is a multisensory technique that uses nonverbal as well as verbal resources in the communication process, such as props, visual aids, and body language, for example. Giving - imparting an understanding, a concept, or a takeaway to the audience is the goal of contextualised storytelling. It results from having a clear purpose and set of guiding values, from having the corresponding desire to give back, and from being aware of the background behind your story. Wajnryb (2003) asserted that storytelling has the capacity to deliver comprehensible input, or language that can be understood within the learner's range of access. That is, the usage of various forms of storytelling may have a beneficial effect on the formation of these skills, and that contextualised storytelling may help learners enhance their understanding of oral tales and speaking abilities.

2.3.3. Writing practice through storytelling

The art of storytelling can be used to encourage students to use expressions and improve their fundamental language acquisition skills in addition to improving grammar and vocabulary. In light of this, storytelling plays a significant part in both writing and reading classes. Stories are a type of creative writing; thus, students deserve to be given the opportunity to use it extensively and pedagogically. For instance, reading and writing can be made interesting and interactive by utilising children's oral cultures. Storytelling, according to Aida (2007), is particularly beneficial at helping students develop their listening and writing skills and adds that the writing genre of a story, or narrative is one that might be employed. A key element of the narrative writing style is the use of specific elements that complement one another to grab the readers' and writer's attention. Narrative inspires students to write creatively and enhances the standard of their works, as Birkenkraha (2014) also claims. It gives the students as writers or readers the impression that they are a part of the story as they can relate to the story. Moreover, as Alkaaf (2017) writes, narrative writing demonstrates the student's knowledge of literary works including poems, essays, and stories as well as their capacity to create a meaningful output that represents their emotions and how those feelings could affect others. The use of linguistic and literary forms appropriate for the desired themes and harmonious with the target audience could also be aided by narrative writing. By asking students questions regarding the story's events, its timeline, their expectations, and its moral, teachers can assist students in understanding this sort of writing.

2.3.4. Building vocabulary through storytelling

Storytelling facilitates the acquisition of new vocabulary and expressions. By incorporating vocabulary from stories, language learners can expand their knowledge of words and idioms. Language learners have the chance to acquire new vocabulary, comprehend sentence structures, and develop their narrative abilities through stories. They benefit from storytelling by expanding their vocabulary and developing their knowledge of and proficiency with the language's grammatical structure. Stories give students the chance to connect textual threads and comprehend tenses and grammatical structures. Various stories can also be used to enhance their speaking, reading, listening, and writing abilities. Students can develop their vocabulary and listening abilities, for instance, by listening to a narrative. James Asher (1969), the creator of the Total Physical Response (TPR) hypothesis- often known as the total language response (TLR) theory- centred TPR on using stories to teach language structure and vocabulary, particularly to pupils learning a new language. According to Asher's methodology, pupils can learn languages more efficiently by using narrative. To explain stories and characters, storytellers need a wide vocabulary. The vocabulary of those who read or write stories is enriched by their exposure to various words and idioms. According to research, those who routinely tell stories have a wider vocabulary.

2.4. Significance of Storytelling in Boosting Motivation

Language learning process can be made more entertaining through stories, for stories can make studying enjoyable and inspiring. The learning experience can be enhanced by including stories into the resources, for stories can boost students' enthusiasm and interest in language acquisition. This may increase pupils' success in their language-learning endeavours. Moreover, students' emotional, psychological, and motivational states can be affected by stories, which are a potent communication tool. The desire and drive students have to accomplish their goals can be characterised as motivation as focused on by Nunan (2003), who examines the value of stories in raising student motivation and enhancing communication abilities in language instruction. Storytelling can boost classroom interaction and motivate more active participation from students. When given the chance to create original texts by telling stories, students may be more motivated (Gordo, 2011). Students' motivation to learn can be raised through storytelling. Stories that are pertinent and interesting to them can improve their attitude towards learning. Resources should include texts that look into the possibility of storytelling inspiring language learners.

Storytelling, also, offers the chance to solve issues and achieve success, for they can inspire readers by describing the challenges that the main characters face and how they handle them. People could feel more energised and confident about tackling their own problems if they witness how others are overcoming comparable difficulties. Stories offer the chance to demonstrate how characters evolve and grow over time. Thus, the listeners or readers might start to assess their own potential when this

development and change are consistent with the narrative's central concept. They might become more inspired as a result. Related to this, storytelling also encourages emotional connection. That is, students can develop emotional relationships through stories. A story can inspire individuals more when they feel an emotional connection to the main theme or characters. An emotional connection can encourage viewers to consider the story's conclusion more and work towards it.

Moreover, stories can be believable and evocative. Therefore, they can be used in a more engaging and evocative way to communicate facts and messages. By connecting an abstract idea to a specific, real-world experience, a tale can more effectively convey that idea. People may be more motivated to accomplish their goals as a result of this. Storytelling can therefore be an effective method for boosting motivation. People can become more emotionally invested in a tale, develop confidence in their capacity to solve difficulties, and increase their level of goal focus. Therefore, stories can be a powerful tool for those looking to motivate themselves. As a result, students' drive to learn can be increased through storytelling. Stories give students an interesting context to learn in contrast to dull and repetitive language learning techniques. Students' interest in studying is maintained by their curiosity about a story's conclusion. Additionally, storytelling gives children the chance to be creative and original because they can either make up new stories or retell old ones.

2.5. Significance of Storytelling in Building Cultural and Social Awareness

Through stories, language learners can investigate the philosophies, practises, and experiences of various societies. They have greater cultural sensitivity and understanding as a result. Learning about the customs, principles, and experiences of many cultures and communities is made simpler by the use of stories. Through stories, language learners can get insight into various worldviews and points of view. Stories can broaden students' worldviews and assist in understanding various cultures. Through storytelling, language learners can learn about the customs and values of various cultures as also mentioned by Yang et al. (2020). Stories provide cultural understanding that transcends language. Leaners can utilise the language more effectively if they are aware of the historical developments and cultural variances among English-speaking nations. Through reading about characters from many locations and eras, students learn about various cultures and ways of life, which help them gain widened perspectives.

2.6. The Significance of Technology in Language Learning and Storytelling

Language learning and storytelling both benefit from technology. That is, technology provides a variety of tools that make it easier to learn a language, including voice recognition software, online language learning platforms, language learning apps, and virtual learning environments. More resources, practise opportunities, and individualised learning experiences are offered by these tools to language learners. Storytelling can become more interactive by utilising technologies like virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR), which can engross an audience in the narrative. Additionally, the story can be made more stunning and impressive by

using digital animations, special effects, and other visual elements. Technology has a role in the globalisation of languages and the facilitation of communication. People can now converse in several languages more easily thanks to the internet and digital tools. People can understand and share stories in several languages with the use of online translation tools and language learning applications.

2.6.1. Digital storytelling

One example of the positive impact of technology to language learning related to storytelling is the digital storytelling, which is the act of conveying a story using technology. Digital storytelling can be an engaging exercise for language classrooms. According to Reinders (2011), digital storytelling can be a useful tool for encouraging students to utilise the language within as well as outside of the classroom because it is simple to use for speaking and writing practise. This implies that students may incorporate more than one of the items, whether they are created by them or by others: text, audio, music, and pictures, screenshots, such as those from websites and video games, other pictures and additional digital media. They can create a web page, an audio interview, a movie with voice-over, or just a written text with a twist like sliding text or shifting colours to convey different moods. Students may employ any genre their teacher specify and create an autobiography or a story. In order to get students interested in language learning, digital storytelling is used as an approach. According to Wright's (2000) theory, stories can aid language learners in meaningfully learning the language by assisting them in language comprehension. The use of digital storytelling makes it possible to perform vocabulary instruction implicitly in a fun and engaging manner.

2.6.2. Personalised learning environment

The use of technology can assist make language learning more individualised. The speed of learning is flexible for students. The content of language learning applications can be tailored to the interests and proficiency levels of the students. In doing so, learning is much more efficient. Online storytelling and podcasts have become more and more popular as a result of technology. Storytellers and language instructors can now reach a global audience thanks to the Internet. With the help of podcasts, language learners can reach a larger audience with words and stories. In brief, technology has a significant impact on storytelling and language learning. It expands the options and resources available to language learners, can enhance the storytelling experience, and promotes the language's global adoption. Additionally, it offers individualized educational opportunities and promotes online discourse and storytelling.

3. Integrating Storytelling into Language Class

Language learning can be more enjoyable and successful when told through stories. Finding unique narrative techniques is crucial because everyone picks up languages differently. When learning a language, teachers can use storytelling to hone distinct language skills at various language levels. Simple stories are a good option to start, and as students gain experience, they may be offered more sophisticated ones. Watching and listening to stories in a foreign language might help students learn how to use and pronounce the language correctly. Teachers can use podcasts, audiobooks, or foreign television shows and films for this. Furthermore, gestures and body language are crucial when integrating storytelling. Using gestures and body language when delivering stories can help students communicate more effectively. Also, after reading or listening to a story, students can highlight the important words and phrases. They can also try to mimic the native speakers they hear and can improve their accent and pronunciation. Teachers can make stories using story cards or visual aids. Teachers can also encourage group work by setting up language study groups or planning group storytelling activities through which students can exchange stories from various points of view. Finally, feedback is crucial while honing students' narrative skills.

4. Conclusion

Storytelling is an integral part of education, and it is of great importance in teaching English. Storytelling can aid in language learning strategies. It provides a number of benefits such as improving language skills, increasing communication abilities, deepening cultural understanding, and increasing motivation. Through stories, students better understand both the structure and content of language. For instance, it is possible to increase students' vocabulary while reading or listening to a story. By examining stories, students can improve their understanding of grammar. It provides students with opportunities to build emotional connections and strengthen communication skills, as well as gaining cultural knowledge beyond language. It also helps students improve their communication skills, increase their empathy skills, understand and retain information, encourage creative thinking abilities, and increase historical and cultural awareness. Therefore, using storytelling in language education can contribute to students' language learning in a more effective and enjoyable way.

Efforts by educators and students to learn and use storytelling can help them create a deeper and more meaningful learning experience. Thus, language educators and learners should consider stories as an indispensable part of the language learning process. As a result, it is critical that educators and educational institutions take into account including storytelling into

the process of learning a new language. Teachers can enrich students' language learning experience by using storytelling effectively, for it is a valuable tool that help students improve their language skills, strengthen communication abilities, increase cultural awareness and increase motivation.

REFERENCES

Aida, Y. (2007). *Quantities and qualitative analyses of students' views on the storytelling project*. Paper presented at the CJKP Proceedings Conference.

Alkaaf, F. & Al-Bulushi, A. (2017). Tell and write, the effect of storytelling strategy for developing story writing skills among grade seven learners. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, *7*, 119-141. doi: 10.4236/ojml.2017.72010.

Amelia L. (2019). The benefits and drawbacks of using tablet-based digital storytelling in vocabulary learning among Malaysian young English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. *Asia Pacific Journal of Educators and Education, 34*, 17–47.

Andrews, D., & Hull, D. (2009). Storytelling as an instructional method: Descriptions and research question. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 2*(3), 6-23.

Asher, J. J. (1969). The Total Physical Response approach to second language learning. *Modern Language Journal, 53,* 3-17.

Atta-Alla, M. N. (2012). Integrating language skills through storytelling. *English Language Teaching Journal, 5*(12), 1-13.

Baker, A. (2014). Exploring teachers' knowledge of second language pronunciation techniques: Teacher cognitions, observed classroom practices, and student perceptions. *TESOL Quarterly, 48*(1), 136-163.

Barrett, H. (2006). Researching and evaluating digital storytelling as a deep learning tool. *Technology and Teacher Education Annual, 1*, 647.

Barzaq, M. (2009). *Integrating Sequential Thinking Thought Teaching Stories in the Curriculum*. ActionResearch.Al.Qattan Center for Educational Research and Development QCERD. Gaza.

Benjamin, W. (1973). *The storyteller*. Collins.

Birkenkraha, M. (2014). *Using Storytelling Methods to Improve Emotion, Motivation and Attitude of Students Writing Scientific Papers and Theses*. IEEE Explore Digital Library.

Boje, D. (2001) *Narrative methods for organizational and communication research*. Sage University Press.

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Speech and speaking skills*. Oxford University Press.

Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. Cambridge University Press.

Cary, S. (1998). *The effectiveness of a contextualized storytelling approach for second language acquisition*. (UMI Microform 9828452)

Coconi, A. (2013). Available http://www.ehow.com/info_ 8771474_types- storytelling.html https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/

Cooper, P. J., (1992). *The power of story*. MacMillan.

Dyson, A. H., & Genishi, C. (Eds.) (1994). *The need for story: Cultural diversity in classroom and community*. National Council of Teachers of English.

Eela, L. (2016). *Teacher attitudes and use of stories and storytelling in Finnish foreign language education*. University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä.

Gordo, P.L., (2011). *Making foreign language learning meaningful, memorable and motivating through storytelling*. GRIN Verlag.

Hellermann, J. (2006). Classroom interactive practices for developing L2 literacy: A micro ethnographic study of two beginning adult learners of English. *Applied Linguistics, 27*(3), 377–404

Heo, H. (2004). *Inquiry on storytelling from the web-based environmental learning environment*. Association for Educational Communications and Technology. Retrieved October 7, 2005 from Ebsco Host database.

Hibbin. R, (2014). *Paying lip-service to speaking and listening skills: Oral storytelling and the hegemony of literacy practices in primary school online available* http://www.lancaster.ac.uk

Hsu, Y. (2010). *The influence of English Storytelling on the Oral language complexity of EFL primary students*. (Unpublished master's thesis). National Yunlin University of Science & Technology, Yunlin.

Hui-L, H., (2006). The effects of storytelling on EFL young learners' reading comprehension and word recall. *English Teaching & Learning, 30*(3), 51-74.

Kang, O. (2018). Empirical approaches to measuring intelligibility of different varieties of English in predicting listener comprehension of tests. *Language Learning, 68*, 115–146.

Kayi, H. (2012). Teaching speaking: Activities to promote speaking in a second language. *The Internet TESL Journal, 12*(11), 1-6.

Kim, M. (2010). The effects of storytelling on adult English language learners. *Linguistic Research, 27*(3), 447-473.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Language acquisition and language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Lam, S. (2012). Understanding student engagement with a contextual model. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 403–419). Springer Science + Business Media.

Lucarevschi, C.R. (2016). The role of storytelling on language learning: A literature review. *University of Victoria, WPLC*, *26*(1), 24-44.

Mart, C. T. (2012). Encouraging young learners to learn English through stories. *English Language Teaching, 5*(5), 101-106.

McDrury, J., & Alterio, M. (2003). *Learning through storytelling in higher education: Using reflection and experience to improve learning*. LK; Sterling, VA: Kogan Page Limited.

Mello, R. (2001). The Power of Storytelling: How Oral Narrative Influences Children's Relationships in Classrooms. *International Journal of Education & the Arts, 2*.

Morrow, L. M. (1985). Recall stories: A strategy for improving young children's comprehension, concept of story structure, and oral language complexity. *Elementary School Journal, 85*, 647–661.

Nunan, D. (2003). The Use of Stories in Language Teaching. *Journal of language learning, 51*(3), 296-306.

Ohler, J. B. (2013). *Digital storytelling in the classroom: New media pathways to literacy, learning, and creativity*. Corwin Press.

Phillips, L. (2000). Storytelling: The seeds of children's creativity. *Australasian Journal of Early Childhood, 25*(3), 1–5.

Ray, B. & Seely, C. (2002). *Fluency Through TPR Storytelling: Achieving Real Language Acquisition in School.* Command Performance Language Institute.

Reinders, H. (2011). Digital storytelling in the foreign language classroom. *ELTWO Journal*, 3.

Richter, M., & Koppett, K. (2000). *How to increase retention through storytelling*. StoryNet., http://www.thestorynet.com/articles_essays/retention_article.com

Robin, B. R., (2016). The power of digital storytelling to support teaching and learning. *Digital Education Review – Number, 30*, 17-29, http://greav.ub.edu/der/

Saripudin, D., Komalasari, K., & Anggraini, D. N. (2021). Value-Based Digital Storytelling Learning Media to Foster Student Character. *International Journal of Instruction, 14*(2), 369-384. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2021.14221a

Savvidou, C, (2010). Storytelling as dialogue: how teachers construct Professional knowledge. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 16*(6), 649-664.

Schegloff, E. (1997). Narrative analysis: Thirty years later. *Journal of Narrative and Life History*, 7(1–4), 97–106.

Sundmark, B. (2014). *Berättandeiförskolan. Bilderbokensberättelser. 1. utg*. Natur&Kultur.

Tedjaatmadja, H. M., & Renandya, W. A. (2012). Hook, Book, Look, Took: Keep it simple. *Modern English Teacher, 21*(4), 58-61.

Uzun, A. S. (2006). The Role of Storytelling in Language Teaching. *Journal of Language and Linguistics Research, 23*(1), 79-88.

Wajnryb, R. (2003). *Stories: Narratives activities in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Willis, J. (1996). *Teaching language by telling stories*. Pearson Publications.

Wright, A. (2000). Stories and their importance in language teaching. *Humanising Language Teaching, 2*(5), 1–6.

Wright, C., Bacigalupa, C., Black, T., & Burton, M. (2008). Windows into children's thinking: A guide to storytelling and dramatization. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 35*(4), 363–369.

Yang, Y.T. (2020). Digital storytelling as an interdisciplinary project to improve students' English speaking and creative thinking. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 35*, 1-23. 10.1080/09588221.2020.1750431.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Dr. Hayriye AVARA

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-5575-3497

hayriye.avara@amasya.edu.tr / hayriyeavara@gmail.com

Amasya University

Hayriye Avara has been teaching at Amasya University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education since February 2020. Before Amasya University, she taught in Ankara, at Hacettepe University, School of Foreign Languages, from 1998 to 2020. She worked as a Turkish language advisor in Melbourne, Australia at the Victorian School of Languages from 2010 to 2015. She taught Turkish Language and Culture at graduate and undergraduate levels at Ca' Foscari, University of Venice, Department of Culture and Society of Asia and Mediterranean Africa, from 2017 to 2018. She obtained her BA degree from Middle East Technical University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education in 1994. She had her MA degree from Hacettepe University, Faculty of Letters, Department of English Language and Literature in 1998 and her PhD at Ankara University, Faculty of Languages and History-Geography, Department of Western Languages and Literatures-Department English Language and Literature- in 2008. Her research interests include language teaching, literature, culture, ethnic identity, multiculturalism and language teaching policies.

CHAPTER 5: TEACHER RESEARCH ENGAGEMENT IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Derya COŞKUN 🆔

Abstract

Teacher research engagement in English language teacher training has gained importance in recent years because of its advantages in terms of reflective and professional practices. Firstly, teacher research offers several benefits, such as enabling teachers to investigate their practice, critically reflect on their teaching, and promote their professional growth. Further, it promotes teacher autonomy, encourages a sense of ownership, and creates a collaborative culture within the school community. It also enhances the relevance of research outcomes to the classroom context, and it can inform policies and practices. Despite its benefits, teacher research engagement has some challenges, such as time constraints, lack of support, and limited access to resources. However, there is a significant gap in the literature on teacher research engagement in English language teacher training. It is essential to fill this gap by providing insights into factors that affect teacher research engagement, including teacher beliefs, attitudes, and motivation, the impact of the program structure and design, and the role of mentoring and support. Therefore, this literature review argues that teacher research engagement is an essential aspect of English language teacher training and aims to contribute to the ongoing professional development of English language teachers by exploring the benefits and challenges of teacher research engagement. Finally, future research is suggested to investigate factors that affect teacher research engagement and develop strategies to promote and support teacher research engagement in the field of English language teaching.

Keywords: teacher research engagement, English language teacher training, literature review

1. Teacher Research Engagement

Teacher learning is a continuous process that requires teachers to engage in different teaching practices and experiences in various social contexts and circumstances. This view is also stated by Johnson (2015), "Teacher learning neither begins nor ends within a teacher education program. In fact, the duration of the typical teacher education program, whether pre-service or in-service, pales in comparison to teachers' schooling histories, life experiences, and the accumulation of teaching experience" (p. 525). That is why teachers are expected to share their experiences about pedagogical and theoretical practices, resulting in productive and

positive learning outcomes. At this point, teacher research has become a significant construct shaping teachers' learning and teaching. In this regard, Burns (2021) notes that experiential knowledge of teaching and professional learning could be achieved and expanded through teacher research. Leat et al. (2014) claim that teacher research should mainly focus on changing the classrooms and schools with the help of systematic inquiry. However, there are a limited number of studies dealing with how and to what extent teachers engage with the research. Concerning this limited number of studies, Alhassan and Ali (2020) note that educational debate focuses on the professional development and training of novice and experienced language teachers.

Teacher research is defined by different scholars by referring to the features of the practice. To begin with, Borg (2009) states, "Teacher research—systematic, rigorous enquiry by teachers into their own professional contexts, and which is made public—is a minority activity in ELT" (p. 377). In line with this definition, Borg and Sanchez (2015) add that "Teacher research is a methodologically-flexible activity – a wide range of strategies can be used in collecting and analysing data as well as in reporting findings" (p. 2). So, they refer to the systematic nature of research, which includes self-study and aims for real-world impact. Therefore, Borg and Sanchez (2015) claim that "teacher research needs to be made public, as opposed to being a wholly private activity" (p. 2). Brooks (2021) says that research should be regarded as a means of "challenging assumptions about teaching, as a way of investigating and inquiring into practice, but also as a way of challenging issues of equity and justice that exist within education, and providing a range of ideas possible for transformation" (p. 14). At this point, Alhassan and Ali (2020) remark that teachers cannot transform research knowledge into pedagogical one straightforwardly. Likewise, Borg (2010) asserts that "While teacher research is necessarily reflective, reflecting on one's practice does not automatically constitute teacher research" (p. 394). Hence, teacher research should be regarded as an ongoing process helping teachers to improve their teaching and professional development. However, "research engagement as a transformative CPD model seems to have received less attention in the literature" (Alhassan & Ali, 2020, p. 1).

As to the difference between engagement in and engagement with research, Borg (2010) depicts engagement with research as the process of reading and making use of research, while engagement in research means conducting research. Borg (2009) asserts that institutional and organizational factors are influential on teachers' research engagement along with individual attitudes and beliefs. Engaging in and with research contributes to teachers' criticality, learning,

and professional development by enabling them to gain new experiences and teaching perspectives (Leat et al., 2014).

Concerning the origins of teacher research, the studies show that it originated from action research and dates back to Kurt Lewin's studies in the 1940s (Borg, 2010). The literature indicates that the emergence of teacher research in applied linguistics and language teaching dates back to the late 1980s (Borg, 2010; Burns, 2021; Sönmez Boran, 2018). Further, Medgyes (2017) states that teacher research emerged since the 1990s. Teacher research is also called by different names in the literature. To exemplify, Borg and Sanchez (2015) note that different terms refer to teacher research, such as practitioner research, action research, and classroom research. Similarly, Burns (2021) states that it has different forms, such as reflective practice, (collaborative) action research, exploratory practice, and exploratory action research. Even though these inquiry forms adopt different research approaches, they all intend to help teachers explore concerns and problems related to their profession by collaborating with their students and colleagues. So, the ultimate goal of these approaches is to enhance student learning and develop teaching practices.

When it comes to the characteristics and elements of teacher research, Sanchez and Borg (2015) list the characteristics based on the experiences of ELT practitioners, and these features are; "*messy and non-linear, collaborative, reflective, pedagogically-driven, exploratory, self-initiated, self-directed, ongoing, practical,* and *flexible*" (p. 186). As for the elements of teacher research, Burns (2021) specifies that information gathering, reflection, observation, and experimentation are crucial ingredients of teacher research. In addition, some factors influence teachers' research engagement levels and processes. According to Trent (2012), pre-service teachers' professional identities affect their research engagement, and the research shapes their identity positions. Therefore, it can be concluded that participants' opinions and practices about research would construct their understanding of themselves and their identity positions.

As per the role of research in teacher training, Menter et al. (2010) note that research engagement has gained world-wide importance in teacher education. In this vein, they mention four different forms of teacher professionalism, which are the *effective*, *reflective*, *enquiring*, and *transformative* teacher, adopting different teacher education approaches toward research in teacher professionalism. In line with these approaches, it is concluded that there is no common understanding about the role and place of research in initial teacher education (Brooks, 2021). It is also implied that research-informed teaching is not promoted in teacher education programs, and not all teacher educators are engaged with and in high-quality practice-based and

applied research. In this regard, Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) remark that reflection, mentoring, teacher and action research are the common methods used in initial teacher education. They draw attention to the difference between the research studies conducted by university researchers and teachers. While the first one focuses on doing research and revealing findings, the latter is based on changing practices and enhancing institutions. That is why "the goal is understanding, articulating, and ultimately altering practice and social relationships to bring about fundamental change in classrooms, schools, districts, programs, and professional organizations" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, p. 279). Since teacher education involves different paradigms, the roles of teachers, teacher educators, and teaching training programs for teacher research engagement will be discussed respectively.

To begin with the teachers as the practitioners in the research engagement process, it is seen that they have important roles such as gaining awareness and being critical about educational research. In this regard, Brooks (2021) specifies that teachers should be knowledgeable about research and not be regarded as *'passive consumers of research'*. Likewise, Borg (2010) notes, "teachers should be critical consumers of educational research, using it to inform their instructional decisions" (p. 410). Hence, teachers should be encouraged to conduct research by building a collaborative and supportive research culture, improving their skills and knowledge, and boosting teacher reflection and research literacy (Sanchez & Borg, 2015).

Furthermore, teacher educators should know their responsibilities and roles in teachers' research engagement. In this vein, Brooks (2021) notes that teacher educators play a significant role in integrating research into teacher education programs. In this regard, research is recommended to be an integral part of teacher education programs as it can be used "as a form of pedagogy, as a form of challenge and as a useful guide to their practice" (Brooks, 2021, p. 22). Vu (2021) refers to the role of teacher educators in guiding teachers to engage in research by encouraging them and changing their beliefs about being the consumers of the research.

Along with teachers and teacher educators, teacher training programs are highly crucial to encourage teacher research engagement. In this sense, Dao et al. (2022) highlight the importance of teacher education courses and programs in promoting teacher research engagement. In parallel with this, Munthe and Rogne (2015) note that research is emphasized in teacher education programs. Likewise, Burns (2021) asserts that learning and teaching-related issues occurring in language classrooms are explored by means of organized and intentional inquiry processes. However, it is observed that there needs to be more systematic planning and coordination about the goals of research-based teacher education. In addition, they

claim that most of the initial teacher education programs put more emphasis on teacher-led research engagement rather than students' engagement with research (Munthe & Rogne, 2015). In this sense, Trent (2012) specifies that participants distinguish between real and individual research. Accordingly, pre-service teachers believe that real research would be beneficial for student learning, while individual research would be helpful for personal careers.

Despite all this, there are some criticisms about the role of teaching and teacher research within the scope of teacher education. To illustrate, Brooks (2021) remarks, "teaching itself is often viewed as a practice-orientated profession rather than a research-orientated one" (p. 13), as can be seen in teacher education policies. In this sense, the literature shows a gap between research and practice. For instance, Biesta (2007) indicates that there is a gap between research and practice, which causes a lack of connection between researchers and practitioners. Mehranirad and Behzadpoor (2022) suggest that the distance between teachers and academics increases because of opposing opportunities and conflicting assumptions. This view aligns with Borg (2010), who observes that teacher research is mainly conducted by university language teachers, and it is regarded as a requirement of their profession.

Borg (2010), in contrast, states that "research engagement has the potential to be a powerful transformative force in the work and professional development of language teachers" (p. 391); however, language teacher research engagement is not a common activity in the field of language teaching. Further, most of the present studies focus on the short-term effects of teacher research; however, the long-term effect of teacher research engagement is a neglected field of study (Sakarkaya & Bümen, 2022). Nevertheless, Sakarkaya and Bümen (2022) indicate that there has been a dramatic increase in teacher research studies, especially in Argentina, Australia, Chili, China, Finland, and the USA.

Further, the conceptions regarding teachers as technicians who practice the findings of academic research studies are highly criticized. Borg (2010) also specifies that classroom-based research ignoring teachers and their cooperation cannot meet teachers' needs and solve their problems. Based on the literature, Ball (2012) specifies that this research-practice gap is also named as 'knowledge-doing gap', and four different models were proposed to address this gap in the literature. These models are "*1. The Research Development Diffusion Model, 2. The Evidence-Based Practice Model, 3. The Boundary-Crossing Practices Model, and 4. The Knowledge Communities Model*" (Ball, 2012, p. 285). These models adopt different ways of addressing this research-practice gap, and the perspective of each model toward research is

illustrated in Figure 1 below. Despite the disparities among these four models, the ultimate goal of these models is to enhance the role of research in educational practices.
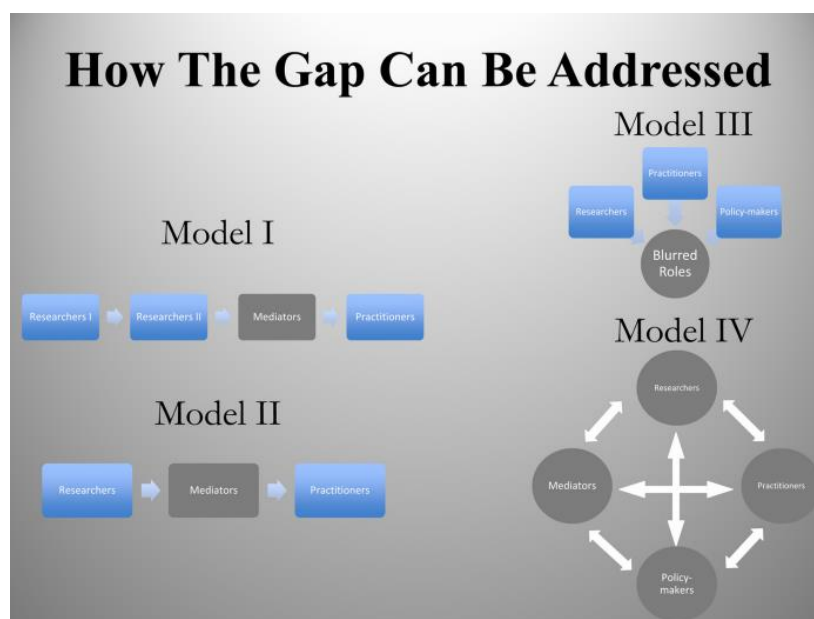
Figure 1. Four models that represent how the knowing–doing gap can be addressed (Ball, 2012, p. 286)

2. Benefits of teacher research engagement

When teachers' research engagement reasons are investigated, it is observed that there are various factors influencing their research engagement motivation and interests. For instance, Borg (2010) specifies that teachers' engagement in research depends on their attitudes, abilities, experiences, working conditions, collaboration skills, awareness, willingness, and confidence levels. It is also observed that "Teachers are more likely to be willing to engage with research and use it to explore and inform their practice when it is accessible – physically, conceptually, linguistically and practically – credible, useable, and interesting" (Borg, 2010, p. 419). In line with these, Borg and Alshumaimeri's (2012) study has revealed that teacher educators do research because of intrinsic and instrumental reasons.

In light of these studies, doing research is connected to teachers' motivation and interests such as being beneficial for professional development, getting promoted, and improving work and knowledge. Sönmez Boran (2018) reveals that there are some motivating factors influencing teachers' engagement in research. To illustrate, being curious about the issues in ELT, developing oneself professionally, sharing research findings with colleagues, and solving teaching-related problems were the main reasons behind teachers' engagement in research. In a similar sense, Borg (2007) notes that teachers are engaged in research to enhance

their teaching and learning. Likewise, Sakarkaya and Bümen (2022) remark that instructors engage in research to find solutions to the problems in their teaching contexts and improve their teaching methods. Dao et al. (2022) have also found that English teachers have positive attitudes toward research, and they value research for finding new ways of teaching and applying those methods in their classes. Further, mentoring opportunities provided to the teachers in their institutions also motivate them to conduct research as well. More interestingly, the data collected through a two-year-long university-school collaborative action research project reveals that teachers show various levels of research commitment, which does not necessarily indicate the quality of teaching (Liu & Wang, 2018).

Regarding the findings of these studies, engagement with research is beneficial for teachers in many regards, as Borg (2010) suggested. For example, many studies have revealed the contribution of research engagement on teachers' professional development (Alhassan & Ali, 2020; Cain, 2015; Liu & Wang, 2018; Savasci & Rets, 2021; Sönmez Boran, 2018; Wyatt & Dikilitaş, 2016). To start with, Alhassan and Ali (2020) found that teachers stated that research engagement contributed to their pedagogical and professional development, and helped them to teach collaboratively. Accordingly, teachers regarded research as *'key to high-quality research-informed pedagogy'* and *'a teacher refresher tool'* which enabled teachers to "critically challenge their assumptions and revisit and update their traditional approaches to language teaching and learning" (Alhassan & Ali, 2020, p. 8). Liu and Wang (2018) indicated that research engagement was also beneficial for teacher growth, professional development, and student learning. Savasci and Rets (2021) showed that research would benefit participants' future professional development and research engagement. According to Sönmez Boran (2018), engaging in research could promote teachers' professional development. Likewise, Wyatt and Dikilitaş (2016) remarked that engaging in research developed teachers' continuing professional development. Al-Maamari et al.'s (2017) study revealed that the research support program contributed positively to teachers' research engagement and professional development. Yen et al. (2017) also stated that research engagement enhanced teachers' teaching practices and professional development. Cain (2015) asserted that research was influential on teachers' thinking, attitudes, and actions, affecting their pedagogical knowledge. He also found that research engagement contributed to teacher empowerment, questioning skills, and professional development. So, research enabled teachers to enhance their conceptual understanding, practical and context-specific knowledge.

Another benefit of teacher research engagement is related to teachers' personal growth, such as self-efficacy and self-confidence. To illustrate, the participants in Akyel's (2015) study noted that engaging in research during practicum contributed to their self-confidence, analytical skills, and classroom teaching. Sönmez Boran (2018) also found that teacher research contributed positively to teachers' perceptions regarding their self-efficacy, collaboration, and interactions with their students. Similarly, Savasci and Rets (2021) investigated pre-service teachers' attitudes toward research, and they found that the research methodology course contributed to student-teachers' self-efficacy and confidence. Wyatt and Dikilitaş (2016) also specified that engaging in action research practices would improve teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Additionally, reflective research practices enabled teachers to develop positive beliefs about their self-efficacy and gain awareness about pedagogical practices.

Additionally, engaging in and with research enables teachers to come up with new ways of thinking, talking, knowing, doing, and seeing. In this regard, Gilliland (2018) asserts that teachers can gain awareness about student needs, teacher roles, and institutional policies with the help of teacher research by observing and reflecting on their teaching practices. Therefore, they can understand their practices in a better way and explore different concepts in the field.

Further, teacher research is also helpful for teachers' identity construction and pedagogical development. Woore et al.'s (2020) study indicated that the teachers regarded research engagement as a part of their professional identity. Engaging in research enabled teachers to improve their teaching skills and to grasp pedagogical issues in a better way. Research engagement also contributed to teachers' identity development and career progressions. Finally, Gilliland (2018) noted that teacher research is a way of connecting theory and practice through systematic and professional self-study.

In conclusion, it was observed that engaging in and with teacher research was quite profitable for the teachers. They were inclined to do research to solve problems in their teaching, develop themselves professionally, and come up with different teaching methods. So, it was concluded that pedagogical, personal, and professional reasons affected teachers' engagement in research, and the benefits of teacher research were illustrated by Sanchez and Borg (2015, p. 189) in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Benefits of Teacher Research

Promotes collaboration among teachers
Gives teachers insight into their own practices
Promotes innovative solutions to teaching problems
Extends teacher identities (to include teacher-as-researcher)
Creates a sense of achievement
Boosts teachers' self-esteem
Creates a problem-solving mindset
Promotes more student-centred perspectives
Encourages flexibility in teaching
Raises teachers' awareness of ingrained habits
Narrows the gap between theory and practice
Promotes reflective skills
Creates a sense of community
Makes teachers more open to feedback
Increases teachers' knowledge
Develops 'adaptive expertise'
Enhances teachers' repertoires
Enhances professional autonomy
Improves research skills
Increases teacher motivation
Leads to positive changes in what teachers do
Creates positive attitudes to professional development

3. Barriers to teacher research engagement

As per the rationale behind teachers' not engaging in and with research, the previous studies showed that many hindering and demotivating factors functioned as barriers and challenges for practitioners. To exemplify, Borg (2009) revealed the effects of conceptual, procedural, and attitudinal barriers on teachers' engagement with research. In his another study, Borg (2010) presented a summary of various barriers hindering teachers from engaging in research, and these factors include limited sources, non-collaborative school environment, demotivating factors, lack of teachers' beliefs, skills, and knowledge, political and economic issues. Likewise, Yen et al. (2017) stated that there are five barriers hindering teachers' engagement with and in research and these are limited sources, economic factors, demotivators, non-collaborative school culture, and lack of teachers' knowledge, awareness, skills, and beliefs.

Most studies revealed that lack of time is the most obvious reason for not engaging in research along with many other factors (Allison & Carey, 2007; Borg, 2009; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012; Sato & Loewen, 2018; Savasci & Rets, 2021; Sönmez Boran, 2018; Williams & Coles, 2007; Woore et al., 2020). Accordingly, in Borg's (2010) study teachers

reported that lack of time was the main factor for not conducting research. Another barrier to conducting research was the lack of research knowledge. (Borg, 2009; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012; Sakarkaya & Bümen, 2022; Woore et al., 2020). Additionally, conditions in the workplace and institutional support were the challenges for teachers not to engage in research (Allison & Carey, 2007; Mehranirad & Behzadpoor, 2022; Sakarkaya & Bümen, 2022; Sato & Loewen, 2018; Savasci & Rets, 2021; Sönmez Boran, 2018). For example, Allison and Carey (2007) demonstrated that university language teachers refrain from engaging in research for reasons such as lack of time, incentives, expertise, and support. Lack of time, knowledge, and practical relevance were some of the reasons for not reading research mentioned by the English teachers (Borg, 2009). Similarly, lack of time and knowledge were reasons for not engaging in research (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012). Sato and Loewen (2018) remarked that lack of time, resources, institutional support, and teacher/researcher initiatives were the obstacles hindering teachers to engage with the research. Lack of time, resources, and research awareness along with heavy workloads and schedules were mentioned as the factors inhibiting teachers from engaging in research (Savasci & Rets, 2021). EFL teachers stated they were not engaged in research because of school culture, administrative problems, lack of time, loaded schedules, and inflexible curricula (Sönmez Boran, 2018). Even though teachers had positive attitudes towards research, they mentioned that lack of time and limited access to sources hindered them from engaging in research (Williams & Coles, 2007). Shortage of time, lack of research methods knowledge, colleagues' resistance, and the pressure to cover the required materials were the obstacles to engaging in research (Woore et al., 2020).

In addition, teachers reported a lack of familiarity with research, research directory, financial and intellectual incentives as the barriers to conducting research in Mehranirad and Behzadpoor's (2022) study. Sakarkaya and Bümen (2022) stated that the conditions in the workplace, economic factors, and teachers' lack of research knowledge, awareness, and skills were the reasons for not engaging in research. So, it can be concluded that conducting research would not be easy for teachers along with their daily routines, responsibilities, and workload (Leat et al., 2014).

Moreover, teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions about their profession may affect their engagement in and with research. In this regard, Medgyes (2017) claims that "a very low proportion of practising teachers are in the habit of reading ELT-related research papers" (p. 491) since research and teaching may seem two distinct constructs with no connections. For example, EFL teachers regarded research as time-consuming and challenging because of the

procedures followed during research, such as literature review, data collection, and analysis (Sönmez Boran, 2018). Borg's (2007) study showed that teachers were not engaged in research because research and teaching were regarded as two distinct activities by the teachers. Teachers were also not aware of the professional and pedagogical benefits of research engagement. Additionally, some teachers considered research a university requirement and regarded it as a *'work pressure'* even though most English language instructors thought research was crucial (Vu, 2021). Savasci and Rets (2021) observed that some participants regarded research as an academic activity, so they believed they would not conduct research in their future professions. Similarly, the study conducted by Brooks (2021) indicated that student teachers perceived research as 'irrelevant' or 'inauthentic' in terms of displaying their teaching abilities. Further, it was observed that new teachers regarded research as a 'programme requirement' rather than perceiving it as a way of professional development. Tavakoli (2015) found that some teachers believed there is not much focus on research in pre-service teacher education, while experienced teachers asserted that integrating research into initial teacher education would not make sense since they thought that research could be useful for teachers who have some progress in their careers. Akyel's (2015) study also revealed that pre-service teachers observed that research was not regarded as one of the roles of teachers in Turkish schools. In another study by Allison and Carey (2007), the teachers believed that the professors, not the teachers, conduct the real and formal research, and they regard themselves as only teachers, not teacher-researchers. Besides, the findings showed that language teachers thought research was both an ambivalent and a complex process for themselves. So, personal beliefs, lack of time, and external pressure were the main reasons behind teachers not engaging in research (Borg, 2007). The barriers to research engagement mentioned in Marsden and Kasprowicz's (2017) study were negative beliefs about research practical, physical, and conceptual constraints**.**

When teachers' research engagement levels were investigated, it was reported that their levels were either moderate or low. More interestingly, Sato and Loewen's (2018) study revealed teachers did not report any interest in solving problems in their classrooms with the help of research. For instance, school-based practitioners did not read research as much as university-based teacher educators and professional development providers, according to the findings of Marsden and Kasprowicz's (2017) study. Additionally, Borg (2007, 2009) found that English teachers had moderate and low levels of research engagement because of procedural, attitudinal, institutional, and conceptual reasons. Likewise, teacher educators reported moderate levels of research engagement because their institution did not support them

(Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012). Hence, institutional support has become essential for practitioners' research engagement. Mehrani and Behzadnia (2013) found that teachers had low levels of engagement with and in research. Accordingly, there were four main reasons hindering teachers from engaging with research; which are, barriers related to the use of research, production of ELT research, educational system, and collaboration. To exemplify, teachers specified that they did not have enough time to read research because of their workload and duties. They also noted that accessing and understanding research is not an easy task. In addition, the teachers criticized some issues regarding the production of ELT research, such as the complexity and quality of the research papers, along with the generalizability and practicality of the findings. Similarly, Mehranirad and Behzadpoor (2022) showed that the research papers tend to use complicated and technical language, making it harder for teachers to understand the research.

The previous studies also showed that institutional culture has an influence on teachers' engagement in research (Borg, 2007). In this regard, different studies revealed the effect of institutional support. For example, Dao et al. (2022) stated that lack of time, resources, rewards, and institutional support were the barriers hindering teachers from engaging in research. Akyel (2015) also concluded that the administrations do not support teachers' research engagement. Likewise, Ahmed and Pervin (2015) drew attention to the importance of institutional support for practitioners' research-based knowledge development. According to Mehrani and Behzadnia (2013), lack of support, negative perceptions about research, and disparities between educational materials and research were the reasons related to the educational system hindering teachers from engaging with research. Lastly, lack of collaboration between practitioners and researchers was one of the primary barriers to teachers' research engagement.

Marsden and Kasprowicz (2017) remarked that barriers to conducting research were referred to in the studies; however, there was no specific information about to what extent those barriers affect research engagement. Accordingly, Marsden and Kasprowicz (2017) claimed, "We do not have data about (a) the extent to which FL teachers and teacher educators are exposed to material that directly reports or mentions research, (b) the nature of publications they read, or (c) what those publications, in turn, cite" (p. 616).

As a consequence, Sanchez and Borg (2015) provided a list of challenges in teacher research, as shown in Table 2 below (p. 191).

Table 2. Challenges in Teacher Research

A lack of research knowledge and skills (in teachers and facilitators)
Rigid conceptions of what 'research' is
Limited understandings of what teacher research is
Tensions between being a teacher and being a researcher
Sustaining motivation
Knowing how to disseminate findings
Knowing how to analyse data
Finding time
Managing the threat to self-image
Lack of institutional support
Lack of co-operation from colleagues and students
Lack of a collaborative culture
No prior experience of reflection
Limited access to skilled facilitation
Limited resources
Low teacher confidence in their ability to do research
Negative attitudes to professional development

4. Suggestions to promote teacher research engagement

Teacher educators perceived research as an individual activity rather than a collaborative act, and they did not think of research as a way of improving teaching and solving problems (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012). However, Medgyes (2017) claims the opposite by saying, "it is not the practitioner who is in need of the theorist, but the other way round: for most researchers lassoing the teacher is a matter of life or death" (p. 496). Accordingly, the importance of collaboration is one of the leading suggestions for all stakeholders engaging in research. In this regard, Hargreaves (1999) specified that research does not provide enough information about practitioners' and policy-makers' decisions and actions because of the limited interaction among practitioners, teachers, and policy-makers. Therefore, the dialogue and communication among researchers, funders, policy-makers, and practitioners should be enhanced to make the most of research studies. So, the collaboration among teachers, academicians, and institutions should be enhanced to enable teachers to engage in research (Borg, 2010; Dao et al., 2022). Likewise, Sato and Loewen (2018) state that the researchers could sometimes report conflicting results and inconsistent implications. That is why, the dialogue and collaboration between teachers and researchers should be enhanced. In this regard, Sönmez Boran (2018) recommended providing collaborative and cooperative working conditions for teachers and researchers to find applicable and practical solutions for teaching-related and contextual problems.

Further, Yen et al. (2017) noted that the internal and external inhibitor factors of teachers' research engagement can be solved with collaboration among teachers, educational institutions, and the government. Tavakoli (2015) also suggested that joint projects should be conducted by collaborating with teachers, researchers, and mediatory communities. In this sense, Wyatt and Dikilitaş (2016) revealed collaborative and practical classroom research's contribution to teachers' self-confidence development. Similarly, Menter et al. (2010) suggested that collaborative activities between researchers and teachers would contribute to the development of teachers and curriculum. Consoli and Dikilitaş (2021) acknowledged that the main goal of collaboration among practitioners, researchers, and policymakers through research-practice partnerships is to address teaching-related problems experienced by the practitioners. They also underlined that research-practice partnerships should not be restricted to single projects or studies but should be long-term practices.

In addition, researchers should not be perceived as the only knowledgeable person in this research-practice partnership, and teachers and researchers should work together to find solutions to the problems. Further, collaborative activities and mutual interactions between teachers and researchers should be encouraged through communities of practice, online platforms, and web-based sources (Mehranirad & Behzadpoor, 2022). Consequently, Akyel (2015) suggested integrating teacher research into teacher training programs and enhancing collaboration and communication between partner schools and education faculties employing university-school partnerships.

Many studies also referred to the crucial role of providing opportunities and incentives for teachers to engage in research. To begin with, Sato and Loewen (2018) recommended that enabling teachers to participate in face-to-face conferences, meetings, and workshops would help them to engage with the research. In this sense, creating communities of practice is accepted as an influential way of promoting teacher research engagement in foreign language teaching. It was also suggested to provide resources such as time, incentives, funding, and access to research for teacher research engagement. In this regard, teacher educators and policy makers should encourage teachers to engage in research by addressing the barriers and providing necessary sources (Woore et al., 2020).

Furthermore, teachers' research awareness and literacy should be enhanced as well. Therefore, Alhassan and Ali (2020) suggest that teachers' awareness about research should be increased through training, hands-on activities, research forums, and groups. So, teachers should be trained on the process and product of research via experts and accredited institutions.

Sönmez Boran's (2018) study indicated that teachers were knowledgeable about the research as a general construct but did not know the details of conducting research. Teachers also preferred reading discussion forums to understand published research and share their opinions on study results through online platforms. Hence, it can be suggested to provide opportunities for teachers to engage with and in research by means of collaborative projects, formal instructions, and discussion activities. In line with these, Sakarkaya and Bümen (2022) recommend enhancing teachers' skills, knowledge, and awareness about research. Extra payments, reduced workload, seminars, collaborative research projects, and financial support were added as supporting mechanisms to encourage teachers to conduct research. It is also noted that increasing teachers' self-confidence, applying new activities, improving students, administrational pressure, extra payments, promotions, and holidays would motivate them to do research (Sönmez Boran, 2018).

Building a research culture or community is another significant piece of advice the studies provided. In this vein, Williams and Coles (2007) suggested building a research culture and developing an information culture by encouraging teachers and boosting their confidence in information seeking and using. In addition, Woore et al. (2020) recommend that schools create a research culture and enhance teachers' research literacy. Alhassan and Ali (2020) also commented that institutions should create and support a research culture with funding, rewards, and incentives. Consequently, Marsden and Kasprowicz (2017) stated that research engagement should be supported by dealing with research more, serving more international audiences, and incentivising researchers. Administrations should also support teachers in doing research by improving their work conditions and enhancing their professional development with awareness-raising and extracurricular activities (Sönmez Boran, 2018).

All in all, institutions were suggested to provide training, financial and physical resources for teacher educators to enable them to engage in research. Accordingly, self-study, practitioner research, and collaborative activities could encouraged teacher educators to do research. Similarly, Sato and Loewen (2018) underscored the importance of institutional and financial support for teachers to access research and attend conferences. Finally, establishing national and international associations and distributing research findings via open-access summaries were suggested by Marsden and Kasprowicz (2017) to lessen the effects of hindering factors to research engagement.

Moreover, Borg (2009) remarked that large-scale and localized studies should be conducted to understand teachers' perceptions about research engagement and enhance their

engagement with the research. In this regard, teachers are recommended to engage in flexible research cycles to make sense of contextual problems and find practical solutions to those problems instead of following the challenging steps of an academic research cycle. At this point, Gilliland (2018) puts forward that teacher research could result in better context-specific knowledge and practical solutions than outside research. Lastly, Borg (2010) recommended thoroughly combining research-related and practical knowledge. He also suggested that teachers would be more inclined to engage with research if research studies are related to their beliefs, classroom applications, teaching contexts, and existing knowledge.

When it comes to the role of teacher training programs, Ahmed and Pervin (2015) stated that initial teacher education does not always result in effective teaching, so teachers' professional development should be supported through constant and dynamic strategies such as enhancing teachers' research literacy and acknowledging the practical value of educational research. That is why it is recommended to provide comprehensive summaries and simplified versions of research for practitioners. Sönmez Boran (2018) suggested that teacher education programs should provide training for undergraduate students on conducting research. Additionally, graduate students should engage in research using hands-on activities and syllabi integrating research skills. Consequently, the theory-practice gap could be narrowed down with the help of research activities and practices. Sakarkaya and Bümen (2022) also suggested guiding novice teacher researchers by encouraging them to pursue post-graduate studies and sharing research findings and experiences. Savasci and Rets (2021) assert that most studies emphasized in-service teacher research engagement; however, pre-service teachers' engagement with research is a neglected field of study. That is why policy-makers, researchers, and teacher educators are suggested to integrate research skills courses into pre-service teacher training programs to reshape student-teachers' perceptions about research and indicate that research is necessary for their future teaching careers.

Additionally, Al-Maamari et al. (2017) concluded that a research support program is beneficial for community and institution engagement. They also suggested that teachers should be encouraged to conduct research and share their studies' results with other practitioners via platforms and forums, which will also contribute to teacher agency, professional development, and institutional enhancement. Research engagement models should be based on bottom-up and practitioner-based approaches rather than adopting top-down and expert models.

Finally, there are some supportive organizations for teacher research like the British Council, Cambridge Assessment English, and Cambridge University Press, and professional

bodies such as IATEFL, ECML, ACTFL, CILT, and TESOL International, as mentioned by different scholars (Borg, 2010; Burns, 2021) which could enhance teachers' research engagement.

5. Conclusion

The literature on language teachers' research engagement revealed many advantages of engaging in and with research. However, it is also seen that various barriers and challenges hinder teachers from conducting research. In this regard, different solutions and suggestions are provided for practitioners, teacher educators, and institutions. For instance, individual or collaborative teacher research should be encouraged to help teachers solve their teaching problems and apply new and innovative ways in their own classrooms. As Medgyes (2017) states, teachers should narrate their classroom stories and share their experiences with their colleagues. Likewise, Marsden and Kasprowicz (2017) remark that "A crucial question, rarely empirically investigated yet tightly related to understanding and improving research–practice relations, is the extent to which academic research finds (or has the potential to find) its way into the hands and minds of practitioners" (p. 614). However, teachers conducting research and sharing their findings with their colleagues may not be sufficient for reaching effective teaching results. In this sense, Borg (2010) states that "What is then also required is a commitment by academics to make their work more accessible to teachers" (p. 412). Therefore, researchers and educators should be responsible for helping teachers engage in research by sharing their results, simplifying their language, or working in cooperation. Likewise, Biesta (2007) specifies, "It seems to be a huge waste of time and resources if the outcomes of educational research never reach educational practice" (p. 4).

Consequently, teacher research helps enhance teacher autonomy, reduce teacher isolation, and gain more reflective, analytical, and critical teaching approaches. As stated by Sönmez Boran (2018), "teacher-research has been accepted as the end-point of professional development" (p. 194). Therefore, Biesta (2007) remarks, "Educational research is, after all, never simply research on education but always in some sense also research for education" (p. 4). However, professional practices require teachers to critically analyse research findings and then integrate them into their teaching (Williams & Coles, 2007).

REFERENCES

Ahmed, A., & Pervin, N. (2015). English-language teachers' engagement with research: Findings from Bangladesh. *Professional Development in Education*, *41*(1), 21-39. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2013.861860

Akyel, A. (2015). Research engagement in the EFL pre-service practicum. *Language in Focus*, *1*(1), 1-14.

Alhassan, A., & Ali, H. I. H. (2020). EFL teacher research engagement: Towards a research-pedagogy nexus. *Cogent Arts & Humanities*, *7*(1), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311983.2020.1840732

Allison, D., & Carey, J. (2007). What do university language teachers say about language teaching research?. *TESL Canada Journal*, *24*(2), 61-81. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v24i2.139

Al-Maamari, F., Al-Aamri, K., Khammash, S., & Al-Wahaibi, M. (2017). Promoting EFL teacher research engagement through a research support programme. *RELC Journal*, *48*(3), 389-404. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688216684282

Ball, A. F. (2012). To know is not enough: Knowledge, power, and the zone of generativity. *Educational Researcher*, *41*(8), 283–293. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X12465334

Biesta, G. (2007). Bridging the gap between educational research and educational practice: The need for critical distance. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, *13*(3), 295-301. https://doi.org/10.1080/13803610701640227

Borg, S. (2007). Research engagement in English language teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23*(5), 731-747. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.03.012

Borg, S. (2009). English language teachers' conceptions of research. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(3), 358-388. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp007

Borg, S. (2010). Language teacher research engagement. *Language Teaching*, *43*(4), 391-429. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444810000170

Borg, S., & Alshumaimeri, Y. (2012). University teacher educators' research engagement: Perspectives from Saudi Arabia. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*(3), 347-356. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.10.011

Borg, S., & Sanchez, H. S. (2015). Key issues in doing and supporting language teacher research. In S. Borg & H. S. Sanchez (Eds.), *International perspectives on teacher research* (pp. 1-13). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137376220

Brooks, C. (2021). Research capacity in initial teacher education: Trends in joining the 'village'. *Teaching Education*, *32*(1), 7-26. https://doi.org/10.1080/10476210.2020.1862077

Burns, A. (2021). Teacher research. In H. Mohebbi & C. Coombe (Eds.), *Research questions in language education and applied linguistics: A reference guide* (pp. 601-605). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-79143-8

Cain, T. (2015). Teachers' engagement with published research: Addressing the knowledge problem. *The Curriculum Journal*, *26*(3), 488-509. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585176.2015.1020820

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. L. (1999). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities. *Review of Research in Education*, *24*, 249-305. https://doi.org/10.2307/1167272

Consoli, S., & Dikilitaş, K. (2021). Research engagement in language education. *Educational Action Research*, *29*(3), 347-357. https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2021.1933860

Dao, P., Nguyen, M., Iwashita, N., & Spinelli, F. (2022). A dialogic approach to fostering TESOL teacher-learners' research engagement: Insights from a 'learning-to-

research' procedure. *TESOL Quarterly*, *56*(2), 775-787. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3127

Gilliland, B. (2018). Teacher research during an international practicum. *ELT Journal*, *72*(3), 260-273. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccx054

Hargreaves, D. H. (1999). Revitalising educational research: lessons from the past and proposals for the future. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *29*(2), 239-249. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764990290207

Johnson, K. E. (2015). Reclaiming the relevance of L2 teacher education. *The Modern Language Journal*, *99*(3), 515-528. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12242

Leat, D., Lofthouse, R., & Reid, A. (2014). Teachers' views: Perspectives on research engagement. *British Educational Research Association*, *13*. https://www.bera.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2013/12/BERA-Paper-7-Teachers-ViewsPerspectives-on-research-engagement.pdf?noredirect=1

Liu, W., & Wang, Q. (2018). The processes of teachers' engagement in action research: An ethnographic study in Beijing. *Educational Action Research*, *26*(2), 258-272. https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2017.1307128

Marsden, E., & Kasprowicz, R. (2017). Foreign language educators' exposure to research: Reported experiences, exposure via citations, and a proposal for action. *The Modern Language Journal*, *101*(4), 613-642. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12426

Medgyes, P. (2017). The (ir)relevance of academic research for the language teacher. *ELT Journal*, *71*(4), 491-498. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccx034

Mehrani, M., & Behzadnia, A. (2013). English teachers' research engagement: Current barriers and future strategies. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, *1*(4), 19-33.

Mehranirad, M., & Behzadpoor, F. (2022). A survey of EFL teachers' research engagement. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Applied Literature: Dynamics and Advances*, *10*(1), 79-98. https://doi.org/10.22049/JALDA.2022.27469.1365

Menter, I., Hulme, M., Elliot, D., Lewin, J., Baumfield, V., Britton, A., ... & Townsend, A. (2010). *Literature review on teacher education in the 21st century*. Edinburgh: Education Analytical Services, Scottish Government Social Research.

Munthe, E., & Rogne, M. (2015). Research based teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *46*, 17-24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.10.006

Sakarkaya, V., & Bümen, N. (2022). What Triggers Teacher Research Engagement and Sustainability in a Higher Education Context in Turkey?. *Participatory Educational Research*, *9*(2), 325-342. https://doi.org/10.17275/per.22.43.9.2

Sanchez, H. S. & Borg, S. (2015). Teacher research: Looking back and moving forward. In S. Borg & H. S. Sanchez (Eds.), *International perspectives on teacher research* (pp. 185-193). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137376220

Sato, M., & Loewen, S. (2018). Do teachers care about research? The research–pedagogy dialogue. *ELT Journal*, *73*(1), 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccy048

Savasci, M., & Rets, I. (2021). "As the twig is bent, so is the tree inclined": Research engagement among pre-service EFL teachers. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, *11*(2), 114-137.

Sönmez Boran, G. (2018). Effect of research engagement on EFL teachers' motivation for and efficacy in teacher-research. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, *43*(195), 193-221. http://dx.doi.org/10.15390/EB.2018.7499

Tavakoli, P. (2015). Connecting research and practice in TESOL: A community of practice perspective. *RELC Journal*, *46*(1), 37-52. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688215572005

Trent, J. (2012). Research engagement as identity construction: Hong Kong preservice teachers' experiences of a compulsory research project. *Teacher Development*, *16*(2), 145-160. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2012.688677

Vu, M. T. (2021). Between two worlds? Research engagement dilemmas of university English language teachers in Vietnam. *RELC Journal*, *52*(3), 574-587. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688219884782

Williams, D., & Coles, L. (2007). Teachers' approaches to finding and using research evidence: An information literacy perspective. *Educational Research*, *49*(2), 185-206. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131880701369719

Woore, R., Mutton, T., & Molway, L. (2020). 'It's definitely part of who I am in the role'. Developing teachers' research engagement through a subject-specific Master's programme. *Teacher Development*, *24*(1), 88-107. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2019.1693421

Wyatt, M., & Dikilitaş, K. (2016). English language teachers becoming more efficacious through research engagement at their Turkish university. *Educational Action Research*, *24*(4), 550-570. https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2015.1076731

Yen, P.H., Quyen, V.P., Phuong, L.T.B., Ngoc, L.B. (2017). Factors inhibiting teachers from research engagement: A review. *Can Tho University Journal of Science*, *6*, 17- 22. https://doi.org/10.22144/ctu.jen.2017.022

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Research Assist. Derya COŞKUN

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-6044-6109

deryacoskun@sdu.edu.tr

Süleyman Demirel University, English Language Teaching Department

Derya COŞKUN graduated from Foreign Language Education Department at METU in 2015 and completed her master degree at Süleyman Demirel University, Institute of Educational Sciences, at English Language Teaching Department. She currently pursues her PhD degree and works as a research assistant. Her main research interests include teacher training, intercultural communication, critical reading and pedagogy practices.

CHAPTER 6: TOWARDS LEARNER AUTONOMY: WAYS TO DESIGN LANGUAGE COURSES

Eda ERCAN-DEMİREL iD

1. Introduction

At its simplest, autonomy rotates around the key terms of self, i.e., self-regulation, self-direction, self-reliance, self-control, etc. Many fields, notably the teaching and acquiring foreign languages, have recently been more interested in autonomy. Currently, with quite an upside-down perspective as against prior views, the foreign language teaching field has shown a tendency to adopt the philosophy towards taking the learners as the focus and letting them be autonomous, thus making autonomy both an aim and output. Speaking of, taking the individual responsible for the actions, autonomy has its own power to take the person both as the actor and the participant in the learning process.

From the language teacher's perspective, training the learners in a way that they finally become autonomous learners might seem challenging. The challenges revolve around the techniques, materials, assessment, and assignment. However, with the inclination of the methodology and the advancement of technology, teachers have gained the strength to design their courses accordingly.

The main concern of this chapter is to provide some ways of designing English language learning courses contributing to the potential of autonomy. With this objective in mind, the chapter presents a quick theoretical framework of learner autonomy. Under the "Designing courses to foster autonomy" heading, one concern is employing methodologies that have learners as the core, get them to take responsibility for their own learning, and regulate their own learning process. The second focus is the use of materials that are studied by the students individually and personally at their own pace. The other subtitles cover the assessment and assignment.

2. Theoretical framework

Figure 1. The term autonomy and association of ideas

2.1 Learner Autonomy

The coining of the concept and the term *autonomy* in the literature of the language teaching field dates back to the 1970s. It was basically through the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project, which created the CRAPEL, and the founder of CRAPEL-Yves Chalon-who is considered the father of autonomy (Benson, 2001). It was right after that Holec wrote "Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning" (1979) and defined learner autonomy as taking responsibility for one's own learning (1981). The responsibility covers a few items such as objectives, contents, methods and techniques, monitoring the process, and evaluation.

As Little (2003) suggested, there is consensus on the definition of the term learner autonomy, requiring insight, a positive attitude, a capacity for reflection, and a readiness to be proactive in self-management and interaction with others. These qualifications relate to the awareness and involvement of the learner within the learning process. The learner purposefully interacts with the content, handles the challenges with care, reflects on their own learning experiences, manages the steps to be taken, and manages relationships with others.

In a nutshell, the autonomous learner should be in charge of taking on many responsibilities altogether and in a cycle (see Figure 2). Therefore, at the beginning of the autonomy experience, before anything else, the individual should be aware of the procedures. Throughout the learning process, the learner needs to evaluate the sources and methodology and plan what to do at each step. Checking and monitoring are also of utmost importance for the fact that they are directly related to the individual's active involvement and investigation of what is going around all the time.
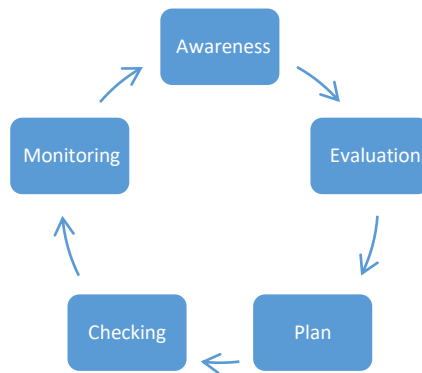
Figure 2. Cycle-form representation of autonomy

2.2 Importance of Learner Autonomy

It was not long ago that the need for autonomy was realized, so the idea of individualisation is a relatively new concept within the language teaching field. With some changes in perspectives around the world and in the teaching and learning fields, autonomy has emerged. The shift in focus from the teacher to the learner, from improving teaching to individual learners going through their learning (Gremmo &Riley, 1995), and the advent of technology and its reflections on education have suggested the idea of learner autonomy and its implications in the field of education. Finally, autonomy has found its place as a fundamental component of language policy in education systems worldwide with the trends of independent learning and new technologies (Benson, 2013).

It is quite open to question how far the schools can get the needs of the students. Of course, the schools have their own objectives and finalised goals and tasks to fulfill. However, it is not always the case when the needs are of concern. Learner autonomy may matter more in developing countries with the mismatch between what is taught at school and what is really needed in real life (Smith et al., 2018). This challenge might be regulated with the help of a classroom profile fostering autonomy. Generally speaking, classes would not be enough alone; thus, an out-of-class follow-up to activate autonomy should be enhanced.

Little (2003) associates learner autonomy with three key aspects crucial for the learning process: efficiency and effectiveness, motivation, and effective communication. First, the more engaged the learners are in the learning process, the more effectively they learn. With proactive commitment, learners become motivated, and readiness to learn arises. Autonomy can also lead to a social enhancement to fully master the exchanges related to language learning practice, especially speaking. Developing such a capacity is beneficial to learning as an end in itself.

Thus, the significance of the need to try to make learners autonomous is underlined and highlighted.

2.3 Designing courses to foster autonomy

As Holec (1981) asserted, autonomy is not by birth and should be acquired and shaped, which makes training crucial. However, learner autonomy cannot be limited to classes only; rather, it might start with the sparkle within the class and keep it going as part of a lifelong learning process. Therefore, creating the right atmosphere for language learning and fostering autonomy, thus maximizing the potential of the classroom (Nunan, 1988), is necessary. The classroom instruction should equip the learners in terms of the following:

- ➢ Efficient learning strategies

- ➢ Identification of their preferred ways of learning

- ➢ Skills needed to negotiate the curriculum

- ➢ Encouragement to set their own learning objectives

- ➢ Support for learners to set realistic goals and time frames

- ➢ Skills in self-evaluation (Nunan, 1989 as cited in Diaz-Rico, 2004).

Autonomy involves the involvement of the individual within the learning experience. The teacher's role here is to get the students in the process and lead them to make autonomous learners. The main concern of the class should rely upon promoting learners' freedom by providing chances to implement, finally taking them to be autonomous as suggested by Holec (1979), teachers should be setting new objectives to help learners define their objectives on their autonomy journey. It is better to call the process as training rather than 'teaching' or 'learning' because of the involvement of development and fostering.

Designing courses to make learners autonomous involves a number of elements to cover. A method that would fit into the classroom setting and the needs of the students, which also should let the learners take responsibility for their own learning, needs to be chosen for the class. Next, materials to back up the course methodology will necessarily be required to fit into the course design. These materials should also support the learners in terms of practising the language on their own. Then, the content should be checked and evaluated to understand whether the learners fully comprehended it. The process of checking should be better regulated and carried

out by the learner to foster autonomy. Thus, the teachers had better assign learners accordingly. The final step would be assessment. Again, the responsibility for the learning process should be carried out by the learner. Therefore, alternative assessment techniques would be better options to bring about a change and take the students towards being autonomous learners. Some ideas for the choice of items to create an autonomous atmosphere for the learners are shared as follows:

2.3.1 Setting the scene:

To create a classroom setting where autonomy is aimed to be fostered, it is of crucial significance that at the beginning of the term, a warm atmosphere should be provided where everyone is heard, each idea is welcomed, and the students' insights are supported. Setting objectives, establishing classroom rules (see Figure 3), and making decisions on content collaboratively with the involvement of learners would inject the idea of active participation and having a say in the learning process into their minds. With the feeling of commitment, learners would be more motivated to contribute to the learning process, which eventually ends up in having them to be autonomous learners.

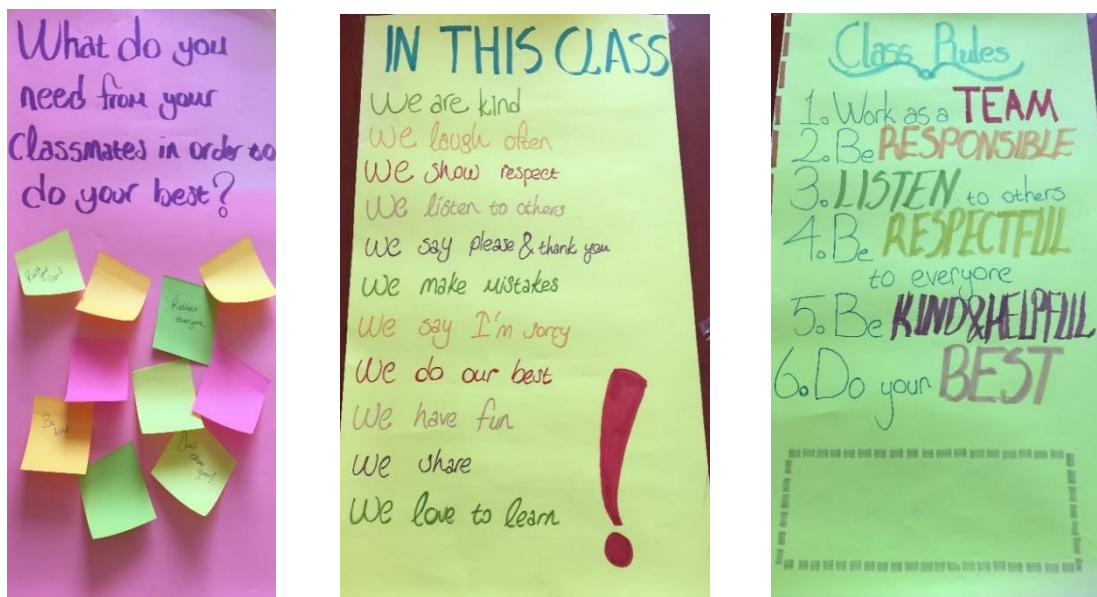**Figure 3**. Examples of setting classroom rules in collaboration with learners by asking for their opinions

2.3.2 Methods and techniques:

Together with the other advancements in the teaching and learning field, approaches, methods, and techniques have given a shift from teacher-based ones to new trends of individualised learning, which has brought forward the wind of *autonomy*. The language acquisition process

has a transformation over the years, starting with behavioural psychology, followed by cognitive one, and finalised with cognitivism in a century (Brown, 2007). The behaviourist view regards the learner as passive in the learning process and counts on the effects of conditioning. Cognitive psychology focuses on mental processes. Figuring the cognitive and social elements together, constructivist pedagogy relies upon the learner's constructing meaning along with the social interactions. Thus, constructivism leans on two layers of cognitive and social facets.

Along with the wind of change, the learner has gained a place within the learning and teaching process, which is how learner-centred approaches emerged. Thus, it is not surprising that current approaches tend to take the learners as the core and try to let them have a say in their learning process. They provide control to the learner, enhancing self-confidence and self-worth (Brown, 2001). Therefore, the teachers aiming at developing their students' self-regulation skills, need to, first of all, decide on the method to nourish settings for autonomy. Finally, the self-directed learner might be able to choose methods of instruction appropriate for them through trial-and-error (Holec, 1979). When it comes to fostering autonomy in and out of the classes, a few methods can be suggested. Below given are some effective methods for fostering autonomy.

Learner autonomy stands at the heart of an interchange among social interaction and collaborative work, focusing on figuring out the key to learning effectively and thinking critically about the learning process (See Figure 4). Some methodologies stick to the concept of critical thinking, some stay focused on collaboration, and others on learning to learn. Actually, autonomy is the essence when there is an interplay among them all.
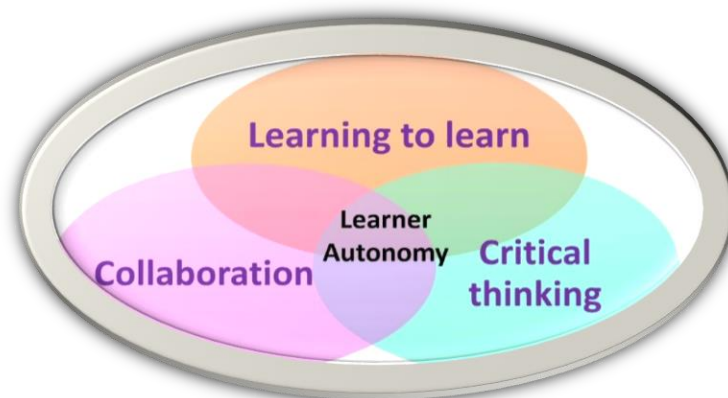

Figure 4. Learner autonomy context/ www.CambridgeUniversityPress.com
(https://www.youtube.com/watch?app=desktop&v=uN-90zM4KmM)

Not full-blown methods, *Learning Strategy Training, Cooperative Learning* and *Multiple Intelligences* take the language learner as the main concern (Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p. 229). These methodologies prioritize "how to learn" over "what to learn" by focusing on the language learner rather than "teaching language" being complementary to teaching methods enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of learning. Relating *Content-based Learning, Task-bask Learning,* and *Project-based Learning,* as well, where the center of attention stands rather than "learning the language", but upon "fulfilling the task", "getting the content", and "completion of the project". Some other methods emerge with technological advancements and reflections on language teaching, such as *Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Mobile-assisted Language Learning (MALL)* or *Flipped/Blended Learning*. What all these abovementioned methods have in common is that they have some practices and implications fostering autonomy. The nature of fostering autonomy is not spoon-feeding the learners but through presenting and applying some methodologies, materials, assignments and assessment tools, guiding and encouraging them to keep themselves aware of their own learning journey while trying to find their ways tailored to them.

2.3.2.1 Learning strategy training:

Many researchers have dealt with language learning strategies and made categorisations on them. Language learning strategies are classified as *Learning Strategies (Cognitive and Metacognitive strategies), Communication Strategies,* and *Social Strategies* by Rubin (1987), grouped into two as *Direct Strategies (Memory, Cognitive, Compensation)* and *Indirect Strategies (Metacognitive, Affective, Social)* by Oxford (1990), proposed under three basic categories as *Metacognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies,* and *Social/Affective Strategies* by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and listed in five as *Management and Planning Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Communicative- Experiential Strategies, Interpersonal Strategies, and Affective Strategies* by Stern *(1992).* These taxonomies have very much in common and basically emphasize how to deal with the learning process.

Taking the taxonomy of O'Malley and Chamot (1990), *metacognitive, cognitive,* and *socio-affective strategies* are meant to guide the learners to interact with the target content to be learnt with awareness, giving them a chance to learn by themselves and take responsibility for their own learning process interacting with others. Especially with *Metacognitive means*, the learners get the 'beyond cognition' and 'thinking about thinking' levels. Here, they acquire a view for planning, monitoring, and evaluating their learning. *Cognitive means* provide chances for how

to practice the language to be learnt. *Socio-affective means* support learning to interact with others and cope with the feelings.

Learning strategy training aims to boost the capacities of the learners to be 'better learners' and provide chances for their contribution to the learning process. In a nutshell, the heart of *Learning Strategy Training* lies in teaching how to learn rather than what to learn. Learner autonomy is defined by Little (2003, p.1) as a "holistic view of the learner that requires us to engage with the cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social dimensions of language learning and to worry about how they interact with one another", which has given the teachers the responsibility to consider the learner within the strategies aspect and teach them how to use these strategies to learn better, more effectively and more efficiently.

The primary concern of *Learning Strategy Training* is to implant effective learning strategies in individuals rather than just instructing them on what to learn. The essence of this training revolves around developing the ability to learn in a more efficient manner. In *Learning Strategy Training,* the teacher teaches the strategies to the learner rather than the language content, and then the learners use these strategies to learn the language. In this way, they transfer the strategies into new experiences, learn how to become independent learners and self-regulate their learning journey. These aforementioned principles of *Learning Strategy Training* serve for the active participation of the learner, take the learner as the core, and thus finally provide chances for further practices of self-regulation, and autonomy. Therefore, this might be a choice for the teachers trying to create an autonomous atmosphere for learners.

2.3.2.2 Cooperative learning:

In a nutshell, *Cooperative Learning* can be defined as creating opportunities for learners to work together in groups that stimulate their social interaction with others to learn from each other in addition to getting the responsibility for both their own learning and the group members' learning. The spirit of *Cooperative Learning* lies in peer learning made possible within heterogeneous groups, which are basically called cooperative groups, as also suggested in the name itself. The learners work together in teams to successfully fulfill objectives (Brown, 2001), promoting peer support. Cooperation -not competition- is emphasised. Heterogeneous grouping matters considering the gap among the learners in terms of academic success, social relations, and some other dispositions. Using the gap as fuel for peer learning, the concept of *Cooperative Learning* emphasizes the importance of both social and academic interdependence

on one another. The teacher's focus in *Cooperative Learning* class is to create cooperative groups to ensure that the students get together to learn more effectively and acquire the skill of learning from each other, taking responsibility for learning both for themselves and the other group members. In fact, based on interdependence, the learners take control of their own learning for the sake of the cooperative groups they belong to. With a sense of responsibility and accountability (Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011), commitment and interdependence, the learners learn to develop self-skills. This nature of the method serves autonomy.

2.3.2.3 Multiple intelligence theory:

There once was a misbelief that intelligence was only a one-type skill and could only be measured through an only-one type of intelligence test. For a person to be called "intelligent", s/he needed to have a set of qualifications such as quick adaptation to changes, being a quick learner, etc. "Being intelligent" used to be associated with mental/cognitive skills mostly. In direct contrast to what has been thought, it was soon asserted that some other strengths might be counted as indicators of intelligence. Gardner (1983) questioned the traditional notion of intelligence and gave a chance to different potentials of individuals (Scott-Monkhouse, 2012). Gardner (1983) theorised eight major intelligence types as follows:
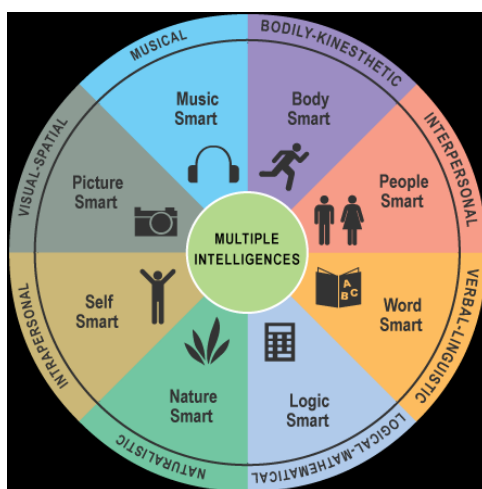
- Linguistic-verbal intelligence
- Mathematical intelligence
- Visual-spatial intelligence
- Kinesthetic intelligence
- Interpersonal intelligence
- Intrapersonal intelligence
- Musical intelligence
- Naturalistic intelligence

Figure 5. Multiple intelligences

Multiple Intelligence Theory suggests that each individual owns these intelligence types with different dominances, and they might be improved. Inserting the theory into the classes, the language teacher designs activities, materials, and tasks appropriate for the learners' dominance of the skills, and as many different as possible to offer many chances for the neglected ones to be improved as well. In this way, aiming at leading the students to know about themselves, the teacher guides learners for autonomy. *Multiple Intelligence Theory* gives a chance to the

learners to get to know themselves and learn better this way. It is of great significance for the learners to understand their personalities, strengths and weaknesses and act accordingly. Through developing self-knowledge, the learners finally become autonomous learners. Thus, implementing *Multiple Intelligence Theory* into language classes would be a good idea for the learners' autonomy.

2.3.2.4 Content-based learning / task-based learning/ project-based learning:

Integrating content with language, *Content-based learning (CBL)* or *Content-based Instruction (CBI)* yields so much space for realistic use of language. It stands in direct contrast to skill-content isolated practices (Brown, 2001), which lack authenticity. In *Content-based Learning*, the focus is on specific content such as maths, science, geography or else. Thus, the language is used as a means to learn the content. *CBL* has a stance where communication plays a fundamental role in learning. Within the process, getting the content is the core, and language is used as a means. Actually, language is used as a tool to learn it. Communication is the key here.

In the same way, in *Task-based Learning*, the students work together on specific tasks which require their using the language independently from the "learning the language" purpose primarily. The first objective is to focus on the task and to use the language to complete or fulfil the task. The learners not only practice language but also complete problem-solving and critical-thinking activities, and tasks. For both *CBL* and *TBL*, the idea of "teaching through communication rather than for it" is prioritised (Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p.137). Having the strong version of the Communicative approach, both methods aid learner autonomy providing chances for choice of content and task, authenticity, and student-centredness.

Similarly, in *Project-based learning (PBL)*, assigning the learners long-term projects of their own choice allows them to explore content and search for information themselves, taking the initiative. They do research, plan, organise, and present in English. They participate in short-term or long-term projects based on realistic tasks providing real-world contexts. The learners practise the language in a realistic context while working on real-life related, meaningful tasks. Considering the advantages, these methods yield opportunities for self-regulation and autonomy.

2.3.2.5 Computer-assisted language learning (CALL)

Although autonomy seems to be mostly integrated and only related to technology, rooms full of computers, or students isolated to learn by themselves, it is not always the case. Still, that

might well be accepted as the starting point. In the field of Language Teaching and Learning, *Computer Assisted Language Learning* or *CALL* includes applications supplementing learning a language through the use of computers, digital programs, digital resources, and information technology. The digital resources supply the presentation, practice, production, evaluation, assignment, and feedback on the content to be learnt.

CALL offers several advantages of implementing technology into the language learning and teaching process. Technology allows teaching experiences to be customized for individuals, which is one of its greatest benefits. According to Larsen Freeman and Anderson (2011), *CALL* programs can easily adapt to the needs of different learners by analysing their input and offering personalized feedback and exercises matching their proficiency level. In addition to personalised choices for learning, the feedback is as immediate as seconds. What's more, there are unlimited chances for trial and error. Those might be counted as spending so much time in a regular class considering the individual differences among the students' academic levels. In *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, these differences are taken for granted and used in favour of the individuals spending only the needed time per person.

Computer Assisted Language Learning enhances learner autonomy by equipping students with the need to have a say in their learning, construct meaning, and track their own progress (Diaz-Rico, 2004). When appropriately implemented by the teachers, *CALL* offers the learners control over their own learning. The learners evaluate and monitor the process to make decisions on the learning content, time, and place. Thus, through self-decision-making and self-regulation, the students eventually develop autonomy.

2.3.2.6 Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL)

With the advancements in technology and mobile phones being commonly in use, and "Digital immigrants" (Prensky, 2001) who are born to the digitalised world tending to use mobile phones in nearly all aspects of life, including education, the idea of using mobile phones for learning has been widely in use. This is how the idea turned out to be the materialisation of *MALL*. *Mobile-assisted Language Learning* or *MALL* could be regarded as mobile applications or upgraded versions of *Computer-assisted Language Learning*. Despite what is included in *CALL (Computer-assisted Language Learning)*, there is no need for a set-up computer or computer programme in *MALL*. The need for an established system, computer hardware and software was challenging the learners regarding mobility and accessibility in *CALL*. On the contrary, independently from curricula, institutions, and timetables (Taylor, 2006), *MALL* presents easy access with mobility, and practicality regardless of time and place.

MALL includes the implementation of mobile applications and programmes in education. Some *MALL* applications can be listed as *Duolingo, Memrise, Preply, Mondly, Busuu*, and alike. Keeping a record of the learner's achievements, improvements, needs, and incompetencies, *MALL* applications realise an individualised learning assistant providing self-structured activities and progress serving for independent learning out of the class. *MALL* motivates the learners towards the self-quest for knowledge. The learners have the chance to learn however, whenever and wherever they like at their own pace. Materialising *MALL* into language classes gives opportunities for autonomous learners. As in *CALL*, the learners have control over their learning. Keeping in mind that almost all learners have mobile phones, not computers, to carry around everywhere, it would be wise to credit for the advantages of using *MALL*. Thus, the teachers may choose to encourage and lead the students to be autonomous learners using *MALL*.

2.3.2.7 Flipped learning/blended learning

Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams get many credits and are regarded as the pioneers of *Flipped Learning* (Arnold-Garza, 2014). The idea of flipping classes has been popularised in the early mid-2000s. *Flipped learning* is a method of instruction that utilises technology to render classroom learning simpler and more comfortable. This offers the opportunity for the teacher to dedicate their entire class time to engaging students in student-student or teacher-student interaction instead of lecturing. The procedures of a flipped class can simply be explained within three sections: before, during and after class.

Before the class, the students are given access to language learning materials, videos, recordings, online references, and resources outside the class, so they get prepared for the class. The students watch the recording as many times as they like, regardless of time and place constraints at their own pace, taking responsibility for their learning. During class time, the focus is all allocated to the practice and review of the content, interactive activities, and discussions engaging the students with the active use of the language. Therefore, the burden of lecture and homework are just reversed. After class, the learners can easily complete what is assigned now that they have had enough practice earlier.

In all parts of *Flipped Learning*, the learners are taken as the core of learning. Before the class, they have the chance to learn independently at their own pace with the help of the videos or materials in the comfort of their houses. With flipped classes' flexibility, different modes such as group work, individual study, performance, and assessment can be chosen (Hamdan et al., 2013). By keeping class-time for peer interaction and student-teacher practice, and providing chances for monitoring their progress, the students feel free to get help from their peers or

consult the teacher whenever they want. After class, they have the comfort of having practised enough. With all its qualifications aiding self-regulated means, implementing *Flipped Learning* would end up in good results for autonomy.

2.3.3. Materials:

To begin with, *authentic materials* provide real context for learning. Being exposed to authentic materials such as newspapers, magazines, articles, podcasts, videos, songs, poems, series, and films, learners get in touch with real-world language. In addition, the learners can have the freedom to choose learning materials of their own choice, which in turn contributes to autonomy. With the improvements of the new era, it has been as easy as a click to reach these materials online. Integrating technology provides more and more materials, learning apps, virtual sources, websites, tools and AI into use.

Digital materials and web tools are especially perfect as they are practical, easily accessible, and abundant. However, it is not all those that make it a perfect match for autonomy. First of all, learning apps, online resources, and interactive platforms allow learners to practice independently and at their own pace. They come in handy when the learners are to take charge of their own learning. What's more, learners are provided with an independent exploration of materials, get to take initiative, have freedom of choice, and make decisions about their learning experiences. In addition to being empowered to learn independently, the learners also have the chance to collaborate with peers, professionals, and even natives around the world. When the chances for self-directed learning are given to learners, they develop self-skills so, in turn, they become autonomous learners.

For example, a significant number of *websites* such as *British Council, National Geographic Learning, and BBC Languages* and alike offer a variety of ready-to-use materials such as audio and video, blogs, wikis, podcasts, games, activities, tests, and practices for different levels and age groups provided. Students themselves can have a choice on their preferences from all provided tons of materials, which are only a click ahead. Some online language learning courses like Udemy offer a variety of online courses. Also, there are options of interactive lessons with personalised feedback and progress tracking.

In addition to ready-to-use materials, another and a better-to-fit context idea would be student-created digital materials with distinct possibilities (Kiddle, 2003). This point of view without a doubt, would boost students' motivation and contribution to learning. These materials, such as blogs, wikis, podcasts, and social media, which are also essential tools for individual learning

and social interaction in education, might be used as tools for assignment or assessment, as well.

It is for sure that learning can in no way be restricted to classes only. The idea is not new, but some relatively newer ones have emerged. Some modes of learning outside the classes are *'self-directed learning'*, *'self-instruction'* and *'self-paced learning'* (McDonough et al., 2013). For example, through self-access centers, learners can have direct and easy access to resources of their interests and learning styles. They use these resources independently at their own pace. The resources vary from books, online materials, software, applications and alike. *Mobile tools*, as well, can easily be regarded as an example providing language practice keeping a record of strengths and weaknesses, therefore regularly checking and setting new objectives, adjusting the difficulty, offering new options and maximising learning exclusively. Mobile applications such as Duo-lingo, Memrise and alike might be counted as examples.

One step ahead, is welcomed *Artificial Intelligence (AI tools).* Along with the advantages of digital tools and apps, AI tools utilise advanced algorithms and machine learning to provide the comfort of more personalised and exclusively adapted environments for learners. Analysing learner's performance, AI creates and presents a more tailored interactive approach as if being tutored by a teach-bot. AI regularly checks, monitors, tracks learner performance, and re-arranges training accordingly. Even some AI-based mobile apps, like *Annie,* stimulate real-life conversations and serve as a virtual friend, or add up some other choices like a popstar, a 1920s English lady, a legendary king, or even an astronaut hamster to chat with. Keeping training with the comfort of their preferences, learners would make choices, take charge of their own learning and be more likely to lead their learning experiences themselves.

In conclusion, incorporating technology into the classrooms gets the new generation's attention and helps them be more motivated. Moreover, by integrating these kinds of abovementioned materials into the learning and teaching process, the teachers would be more likely to lead and encourage learners to get to know themselves and critically think about their experiences so that they can make choices based on what works best for them. The thing that is common among the modes, as mentioned earlier, is that they aid the learners in taking responsibility for their own learning by setting objectives, choosing materials, assessing their learning, and monitoring their progress. Thus, self-reliance, taking responsibility, independence, self-motivation, and self-regulation are boosted.

2.3.4. Assignments:

The key to fostering autonomy through assignments is to provide learners with choices and opportunities for exploring their preferences while working on realistic, purposeful, authentic and meaningful content. When the learners are given choices on realistic tasks, it adds up to their autonomy. Having the learner as the core and the decision-maker of the process, these assignments, such as portfolios, tasks, projects, and reflective work, also function as assessment tools.

Assigning learners with a piece of work that requires research, organisation of the content, use of language with realistic purposes, cooperation, working and completion of a realistic task - any activity in which a person engages, given an appropriate setting, in order to achieve a specifiable class of objectives (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) - would without a doubt, serve for the autonomy of the learners. Thus, choice-based project assignments would perfectly work for the objectives of autonomy. In this respect, digital work offers a variety of choices in addition to practicality and easy access to resources. WebQuests, for example, make a combination of "web" use and "quest" for information. The history of WebQuests dates back to 1995 (Dodge, 1995). The learners are scaffolded in a digital environment, searching for information through inquiry-based activities. The learners are guided with pre-arranged lists of internet resources to complete a task in the short-term or long-term. They are given clear routes and outcomes having options and choices of resources. Dodge (1997) explains three distinct features of WebQuests: creating tangible and *hi-tech tasks*, *an audience* to create for and get *feedback* from. Encouraging critical thinking, creativity, communication, and collaboration, thus supporting 4C skills as well, WebQuests regulate both self-skills and social skills, besides aiding autonomy in terms of the student-judgement-based characteristics. They also serve as a significant and motivating investment for the material-production side (Dudeney & Hockly, 2012).

As stated earlier in this section, employing other examples of autonomy-fostering assignment models, such as portfolios and reflective work, will be discussed in the assessment section below.

2.3.5. Assessment:

Assessment is of great importance in terms of providing chances for autonomy and self-regulation. In general, assessment tools highlight the strengths, weaknesses, and what is going right or wrong during the learning process. Assessment tools are basically used for evaluation purposes. In fact, the real aim is to check for the standards and get feedback on the fulfilment of objectives, achievement of the learners, and efficiency of the learning/teaching process. For

example, language tests can be used for formative evaluation purposes helping students guide their learning and teachers re-arrange their teaching (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). However, tests are criticised for failing to represent real-life situations in terms of both content and performance, and not emphasising student improvement and growth (Peköz, 2017). Thus, as complementary (Brown, 1994 as cited in Peköz, 2017), but unlike traditional assessment, alternative assessment focuses on the overall process of learning.

Phongsirikul (2018) summarises general aspects of alternative assessment as the requirement of the students to perform, create, and produce something (Herman et al., 1992), use of real-world contexts or simulations, focusing on processes as well as products (Aschbacher, 1991), and providing information about both the strengths and the weaknesses of students (Huerta-Macias, 1995). Alternative assessment is giving meaningful and constructive feedback on the work done and covers the observation of the overall learning process as well as the product. Alternative assessment tools include self-assessment, peer assessment, journals, learning logs, portfolios, projects, conferences, presentations, exhibitions, observations, interviews, and student-generated tests (Peköz, 2017). Some suggested ones will be presented here.

2.3.5.1. Self-assessment

Self-assessment is a key strategy for autonomous language learning (Brown, 2006; Harris, 1997) and a powerful weapon for the teacher to train students to evaluate their own learning (Lianisya, 2014). Self-assessment aims for the learners to have a fuller understanding of what they have done right and what they have done wrong or what is missing in their own learning journey. Self-assessment gives the responsibility for learning. Checklists, rubrics, and KWL charts (See Figure 6) enhance the process.

Checklists provide a list of items to be checked at the end of the learning process. Similarly, rubrics, similarly present statements related to the efficiency of the learning process. KWL charts make use of full awareness of the learners by using remarks to be checked before, during, and at the end of the process. Also, self-grading on the learned content using a rubric, checklist or pre-discussed set of criteria would be aiding the contribution and active participation of the learners. The criteria might also be created with the active participation, collaboration and contribution of the learners, as well, which encourages self-reflection and responsibility. The learners can monitor and assess their own language skills by editing and setting realistic goals, getting the opportunity for self-improvement. This provides an atmosphere for learners to become less dependent on their teachers, take on a more proactive role (Yalçın Tılfarlıoğlu, 2017), develop a sense of responsibility and self-confidence for their own learning in addition

to creating a more reliable assessment mode (Ur, 2018). Learners' involvement and autonomy also substantially contribute to their motivation to learn the language in question (Brown & Hudson, 1998).

Figure 6. Examples of rubric, checklist, and KWL chart

https://tr.pinterest.com/pin/573083112316574589/(Student Self-assessment rubric)
www.cambridgeenglish.org (Cambridge Checklist)

https://www.chompingatthelit.com/kwl-chart/ (KWL chart)

In the same way, peer assessment, which is basically providing feedback on each other's work through feedback forms, discussions, reflections, peer-check or peer-editing activities would employ collaboration, communication, and critical thinking skills thus- in addition to self-awareness- learners would develop awareness for each other's performance. Andrade and Valtcheva (2009) assert some advantages of self and peer assessment as "direct involvement of students in their own destiny" and "encouragement of autonomy" (as cited in Brown and Abeywickrama, 2004).

2.3.5.2. Portfolio:

A portfolio is a purposeful collection of student's work in specific areas (Genesse & Upsher, 1996). Portfolios are a variety of samples of learners' work produced within the learning

journey such as written products, audio-video recordings, and presentations. Students collect and organise these products to showcase their progress, assess the effectiveness of their work, think critically, and set future goals. With their student-centred, collaborative, holistic (Genesse & Upsher, 1996), longitudinal effort, and personal decision-making nature; portfolios raise awareness, provide authenticity, critical thinking through self-reflection, and develop autonomy and decision-making skills (Peköz, 2017). While creating their portfolios learners see their work and keep track of their progress, critically and creatively think to choose among the products, make decisions and monitor the process, thus raising awareness on their learning and re-planning their schedule if needed.

2.3.5.3. Reflective Journals:

Reflections are of great importance as they significantly play an essential role in the autonomy of the learner. The reason lies beneath the fact that reflections provide self-regulation, self-awareness and a closer and more critical look at the learning process. The learners should better understand the need to reflect on their own learning process to have the focus and control of their own learning.

Reflective journals serve as quick notes working as feedback - also for the teacher - on learning efficiency. Throughout the process, they visualise and materialize the goals, challenges, achievements, and progress. To this extent, the students observe and pay attention to the learning experience with full awareness at each stage of reflective learning, so they take charge of their learning and autonomy is promoted.

In reflective learning, the key is to encourage learners to reflect on their learning in all aspects of their learning process. Encouraged to reflect on their learning objectives, progress, outcomes and process, the learners are motivated to keep track of their progress, check out their needs, successes and failures, step by step to take ownership of their own learning. Incorporating regular reflective activities gives learners the opportunity to think critically about their learning experiences, thus learners get to know about their strengths and weaknesses. Realising their strengths and weaknesses, learners improve their learning performances.

3. Conclusion

Designing English Language courses aiming to foster autonomy is crucial in empowering students' self-awareness and taking control of their own learning journey. The key to fostering learner autonomy is to provide chances for students to set goals, make choices, decisions, and

changes, take an active role within the learning process, reflect on their progress, take responsibility, develop awareness and self-regulation, and autonomy eventually. To enhance autonomy, a few key steps should be taken by the teachers in class: incorporating methodologies based on student-centeredness, choosing materials aiming at self-regulation of the learners, using assignment and assessment tools that make learners monitor the process.

Providing choices would be wise in accessing the long-term goals of raising autonomous learners and creating autonomous atmospheres for learning. Therefore, the decisions should be made with the collaboration of all stakeholders in the learning process. Especially the learners should be carefully included in the planning and implementation, and decision-making processes to practise actively and effectively. They should have the freedom of choice in terms of choosing topics that are of interest to them, activities and materials that challenge them, and assessment tools that give them the chance to check their progress themselves. This enhances self-motivation and self-engagement. The more engaged they feel, the more actively and motivated they participate in the learning process.

In conclusion, teachers play a significant role in leading learners take control over their own learning considering their learning styles, preferences, specific goals, and characteristics. Creating a supporting and engaging learning environment, the teachers empower critical thinking, reflection on learning, taking control, creating awareness, and self-regulation in the classroom environment. Teachers guide the students in having control of their progress and supporting independency so help them develop awareness of their learning. Finally, making them active participants in their own learning journey and empowering them to take charge of their learning, teachers will make the learners become independent, autonomous learners.

REFERENCES

Arnold-Garza, S. (2014). The flipped classroom teaching model and its use for information literacy instruction. *Communications in information literacy*, *8(1), 9.*

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests* (Vol. 1). Oxford University Press.

Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning*. Pearson Education Limited.

Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning*. Routledge.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles an interactive approach to language pedagogy.* Pearson

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Pearson.

Brown, H. D., & Abeywickrama, P. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices.* Pearson Education.

Brown, J. D., & Hudson, T. (1998). The alternatives in language assessment. *TESOL quarterly*, *32*(4)*, 653-675.*

Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2004). *Teaching English learners: Strategies and methods*. Allyn & Bacon.

Dodge, B. (1995). WebQuests: A technique for internet-based learning. *Distance educator*, *1*(2), 10-13.

Dodge, B. (1997). Some thoughts about WebQuests. *http://webquest. sdsu. edu/about_webquests. html*.

Dudeney, G., & Hockly, N. (2012). *How to teach English with technology*. Pearson.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind. The theory of multiple intelligences.* BasicBooks.

Genesee, F., & Upshur, J. A. (1996). *Classroom-based evaluation in second language education*. Cambridge University Press.

Gremmo, M. J., & Riley, P. (1995). Autonomy, self-direction and self-access in language teaching and learning: The history of an idea. *System*, *23*(2)*,* 151-164.

Hamdan, N., McKnight, P., McKnight, K., & Arfstrom, K. M. (2013). *The flipped learning model: A white paper based on the literature review titled a review of flipped learning*. Flipped Learning Network/Pearson/George Mason University.

Holec, H. (1979). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Pergamon(First published 1979, Council of Europe.)

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Pergamon.

Kiddle, T. (2003): Developing digital language learning materials. In B. Tomlinson (Ed), *Developing materials for language teaching*. Continuum, 189-206.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Lianisya, L. (2014). The Use of Self-Assessment towards Students' Reading Behavior (A Case Study). *Journal of English and Education*, *2(2).*

Little, D. (2003). Learner autonomy and second/foreign language learning. In CIEL Language support network (Ed.) *Guide to Good Practice*. (https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259874624)

McDonough, J., Shaw, C., & Masuhara, H. (2013). *Materials and methods in ELT: A teacher's guide* (Vol. 2). John Wiley & Sons.

Nunan, D. (1988). Resources for a learner-centred curriculum. In *The learner-centred curriculum: A study in second language teaching* (Cambridge Applied Linguistics, pp. 98-115). Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9781139524506.009

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Newbury House Publishers.

Peköz, B. N. (2017). Alternative assessment. In E. Solak (Ed.), *Assessment in language teaching* (pp.183-202). Pelikan Yayınları.

Prensky, M. (2001). Digital natives, digital immigrants. *On the Horizon*, *9*(5), 1-4.

Phongsirikul, M. (2018). Traditional and Alternative Assessments in ELT: Students' and Teachers' Perceptions. *REFLections*, *25(1), 61-84.*

Rubin, J. (1987) Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In: Wenden, A.L. and Rubin, J., Eds., *Learner strategies in language learning* Prentice Hall, 15-30.

Scott-Monkhouse, A. R. (2012). Learner autonomy and multiple intelligences in vocabulary learning: A student-centred project. In *Creativity and innovation in language education* (Vol. 1, pp. 111-124). Peter Lang.

Smith, R., Kuchah, K., & Lamb, M. (2018). Learner autonomy in developing countries. *Autonomy in language learning and teaching: New research agendas*, 7-27.

Stern, H.H. 1992. *Issues and Options in Language Teaching*. OUP.

Taylor, J. (2006). Evaluating mobile learning: What are appropriate methods for evaluating learning in mobile environments? In M. Sharples (Ed.), *Big issues in mobile learning* (pp. 25-27). University of Nottingham.

Tılfarlıoğlu, F. Y. (2017). Testing and evaluation in ELT methodology. In A. Sarıçoban (Ed.), *ELT methodology* (pp. 159-176). Anı Yayıncılık.

Ur, P. (2018). *Dil öğretiminde 100 temel strateji: Penny Ur's 100 Teaching Tips*. Eğitim Yayınevi

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Assist. Prof. Dr. Eda ERCAN-DEMİREL

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-7686-1550

eercandemirel@erbakan.edu.tr

Necmettin Erbakan University, English Language Teaching Department

Eda Ercan Demirel received her PhD degree from Gazi University, ELT Department. She is currently teaching at NEU, ELT Department as an assistant professor with a special focus on foreign language teacher education, educational technologies & material design, and teaching methodology

To Cite this Chapter

Ercan-Demirel, E. (2023). Towards learner autonomy: ways to design language courses. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *Current studies in foreign language education,* (pp. 121-143). ISRES Publishing.

Rümeysa PEKTAŞ iD

> "There are no hopeless situations,
> there are hopeless people.
> I have never lost hope."
> **Mustafa Kemal Atatürk**

> "Be happy in the moment, that's enough.
> Each moment is all we need, not more."
> **Mother Teresa**

1. Introduction

Educational setting requires whole-hearted, mindful, and capable educators to entice learners' not only academic skills but as humans also their emotive, social and life skills. Recent trends in positive psychology have led to a proliferation of mindfulness studies in education to cultivate social and life skills. During and beyond Covid19 pandemic, educational settings globally witnessed challenges in that educators and learners need to alleviate stressors, anxiety, and sense of burden, depression, low wellbeing, and problem behaviors. With the lens of Foreign Language Education (FLE), foreign language educators should also cope with linguistic, cross cultural, psychological, and pedagogical adversities additional to demanding teaching profession. Mindfulness as a novel activity in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) has attracted a renewed attention to boost positive emotions of EFL educators and learners towards language, life, and social skills and to cogitate challenges of Covid 19.

The centrality of this paper is on mindfulness and the significance of mindfulness in ELT in Türkiye. Therefore, it is better to begin with umbrella term Positive Psychology first before highlighting Mindfulness as one of the Positive Psychology variables. Positive Psychology (PP) is a discipline of human psychology that places a higher priority on empirical research concerning how individuals prosper and live well; it is the investigation of what is good in life leveraging fundamental human strengths and attributes to make life happier (Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 2011; MacIntyre, 2021; MacIntyre et al., 2019; Peterson, 2006; Seligman, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi's influential works (2000) were the very first to introduce PP, which sought at promoting a change in the emphasis of psychology from solely fixing the adverse and troubling issues that life brings to nurturing positive attributes.

> Psychology is not just a branch of medicine concerned with the illness or health; it is much larger. is about work, education, insight, love, growth, and play. And in this quest for what is best, positive psychology does not rely on wishful thinking, faith, self-deception, fads, or hand-waving; it tries to adapt what is best in the scientific method to the unique problems that human behavior presents to those who wish to understand it in all its complexity. (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 7)

A few years later, Peterson (2006) put emphasis on scientific techniques and good things in life, consequently defined PP as "The scientific study of what goes right in life, from birth to death and at all stops in between" (p. 4). According to Seligman, PP attempts to establish instruments for cultivating positive emotions, greater involvement, and an awareness of purpose in life rather than employing a lenitive method to alleviating pain or struggling with traumatic experiences. Therefore, life is not just viewed through the lens of oddities and challenges but also from its pleasing features (2006). Seligman (2011) highlights that PP takes interest in a person's not merely happiness but as well resilience, growth, flourishing, and pleasure in all spheres of their lives (MacIntyre, 2021), including their educational pursuits. Seligman (2006) launched the PP research in education and psychology as a response against the supremacy of cognitivist positions in second-language acquisition (SLA) research with a focus on anxiety (Çapan & Pektaş 2013), demotivation or burnout (Ghanizadeh & Royaei, 2015) which had obscured the significance of emotions in L2 learning. It is an undeniable fact that an overtly positive rebirth occurred in the field of language instruction with the introduction and swift spread of PP in general education (Deweale & MacIntyre, 2014).

Figure 1. Potential positive psychology factors contributing to SLE/FLE (Wang et al., 2021)

Figure 1 above visualizes the positive student and/or teacher factors that may have impact in SLA/FLE research domains. Now that the main foci of PP and its relation to SLA and FLE research field highlighted, it is time to focus on the centrality of this paper Mindfulness as a PP construct and its relation to ESL/EFL studies.

From a scientific standpoint, mindfulness is a relatively recent development in numerous disciplines, including medicine (Arıcı Özcan & Şahin, 2021), psychology, education (Öz, 2017), positive psychology and intercultural communication tracing to the period of early Buddhist meditation taking its name from language Pali, an old Buddhist language (Germer, et al., 2013). As a pioneer scientist in *Mindfulness*, Kabat-Zinn (2003) defined mindfulness as "the awareness that emerges through paying attention on purpose, in the present moment, and non-judgmentally to the unfolding of experience moment by moment" (p. 145). It is noteworthy to comment on Jon Kabat Zinn's definition. There are a few key factors in Kabat's definition on what is of crucial stances for mindfulness. It is a procedure that is ongoing, to start. The period we are in is the only thing that is important; revisiting the past or worrying on the future are not. Last but not least, it is important to accept and refrain from imposing judgment thus embracing acceptance and non-judgementality. However, the mindful attitudes are not limited to nonjudgement, acceptance and here and now-the present. Kuru Gönen (2022) provides a detailed information in Table 1 below about mindful attitudes, its features with implications.

Table 1. Nine attitudes of mindfulness (Kuru Gönen, 2022).

Attitudes	Features	Implications for EFL Classroom
Non-Judgement	Not labeling or categorizing the events, situations as good, bad, nice, awful, etc. Cultivating an ability to understand.	Approaching English language learning by leaving the judgments about learning FL and adopting an objective perspective.
Acceptance	Accepting fear, anxiety, and sorrow as they are and not running away from them.	Accepting negative arousals related to FL learning and going through all with an open perspective. Being able to see solutions to language learning problems.
Beginner's Mind	Experiencing things like a child as if they are happening for the first time.	Going through everything as they are related to FL learning with curiosity regardless of the concerns of the past and future.
Patience	Trying to control the plans of expectations of the future. Making negative consequences out of the things and situations that have not happened yet.	Being stuck in negative past experiences of learning English and jumping into conclusions. Language learning takes time, and it can only happen in the present moment.
Non-Striving	Observing the feelings and sensations as they rise and fall and being in full awareness of the experience.	Avoiding difficult situations and topics related to English and expecting to learn everything at the end of a single lesson bring disappointment.
Letting Go	Having an awareness of 'everything shall pass' by conscious observation of the internal states.	Letting go of negative FL learning experiences, choosing to focus on the present moment instead of living in the same worrisome story repeatedly.
Compassion	Having a friendly attitude towards feelings, thoughts, and all internal states.	Building emotional resilience for learning FL by acknowledging the reasons for failure and downfalls.
Gratitude	Not taking everything for granted. Appreciating even the simplest things.	Being able to say 'I am here, I am healthy, and I am in the class. I am here for language learning, and I am putting my effort into this.'

In Kuru Gönen's study, she indicated patience, non-striving, trust, letting go, compassion and gratitude additional to attitudes of nonjudgement, acceptance and here and now. She provides the readers a comprehensive and to the point features and attitudes besides providing implications for EFL learner and instructors. Having defined what mindfulness is and its features, what follows is the Mindfulness-Based studies in disciplines to unravel their results and implications in brief.

There are many different mindfulness-based interventions as well each has its own characteristics. Table 2 demonstrates the most utilized Mindfulness-Based interventions by the scientists and the researchers.

Table 2. Common mindfulness-based interventions (Felver, et al. 2013, p.533)

Intervention	Format	Description
Mindfulness- Based Stress Reduction	8 weeks, daily homework, weekly group meetings to teach mindfulness techniques and discussion application	Teaches mindful breathing, body awareness and stretching focuses on integrating mindfulness into everyday life
Mindfulness- Based Cognitive Therapy Soles of the Feet	8 weeks, daily homework, weekly psychoeducational group meetings to discuss precursors to psychopathology.	Blends CBT and MBSR to address precursors to psychopathology
	5 structured 45-minute sessions to teach awareness of emotional precursors to aggressive behavior and technique to shift attention to a neutral stimulus	Teaches simple self-regulation strategy to interrupt escalating emotional problems that lead to aggression
Acceptance and Commitment Therapy	Individual or group sessions of varying lengths, uses experiential thought exercises, relies heavily on metaphors	Works to increase psychological flexibility relevant to internal and external experience, concurrently uses behavioral strategies to promote change

Mindfulness based interventions are practiced in many disciplines from medicine to education their participants ranging from children to adults. To begin with, there are some recent studies on mindfulness for students with learning disabilities including Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). The available research seems to verify the positive effects of parent-child mindfulness training with high school pupils suffering from ADHD or ASD by indicating a further need of research (Keenan-Mount, et al., 2016). On bullying and cyberbullying, Foody and Samara (2018) in their paper, accentuated the connection between mental health and experiences of bullying with numerous studies. To target and counteract adverse impacts of bullying and cyberbullying, they presented beneficial mindfulness practices. Özcan and Şahin (2021) conducted experimental research to investigate the impact of Mindfulness-Based Thriving Program (MTP) on undergraduates. The undergraduates from Faculty of Health enrolled in different majors participated in the study. MTP intervention was found to be effective on the experimental group's mindfulness and

thriving levels. So far, the author presented the effects of mindfulness-based practices from disciplines of medicine and academy with a focus on ASD, ADHD high school students, bullying and cyberbullying and university students' thriving and mindfulness level and all indicated that mindfulness-based practices may be quite effective to eliminate problem behaviors and boost thriving. The following paragraph will focus on mindfulness and foreign language education.

The practice of mindfulness, which has its roots in Buddhism, is used in Western psychology for problem behaviors, disorders or mental issues. EFL as afield with a pedagogy is distinct from merely psychology however as MacIntyre (2016) asserts that the growth of positive psychology in SLA can offer creative solutions in that field.

> In addition, the notion that deliberate and effective interventions can be made to increase wellbeing for both individuals and communities is a central tenet in PosPsy and is a defining feature of education itself, with language at the very center of the process. For this reason, and many others, there are connections between PosPsy and SLA that are well worth exploring (p.5).

In EFL on Foreign Language Anxiety studies, Charoensukmongkol (2019) examined the role of mindfulness to diminish ESL public speaking anxiety of university students. The results yielded that the more participants' mindfulness level the less anxiety level they demonstrated with higher grades on their speaking class presentations. In the study, there was no difference on the mindfulness levels based on gender variable. Fallah (2017) found the more mindfulness levels were associated with the lower anxiety levels and the more coping self-efficacy levels. Önem (2015) conducted a study with Freshman ELT preservice teachers. The researcher aimed to determine whether the effects of meditation and the smell of aroma lavender will affect their anxiety states and new vocabulary learning levels. The results indicated that the experimental group scored lower on posttest anxiety. Öz (2017) also with an experimental design in her study, found that mindfulness meditation-based intervention program lowered preparatory EFL learners' speaking anxiety while increasing willingness to communicate levels.

In their paper, Koçali and Aşık (2022) presented a systematic review on mindfulness in EFL and ESL context on national and international studies. They found that both experimental and non-experimental studies yielded positive results in favor of mindfulness. Despite the numerous studies on anxiety and FLE, in Türkiye, there is dearth of studies on mindfulness. Hence, there seems a need for a systematic understanding of how mindfulness contributes to FLE in Türkiye. The purpose of this paper is to review recent research into the notion and interactional effect of Mindfulness on EFL educators and learners and pave a way for further research with practical

and pedagogical implications. A systematic understanding of how mindfulness contributes to FLE in Türkiye is still lacking. With this aim in mind, this systematic review attempts to unravel the most recent research about the concept of mindfulness in ELT studies conducted in Türkiye. By locating the works conducted over the preceding ten years, this systematic review seeks to analyze the subject of mindfulness research in ELT in Türkiye. Although there are studies on mindfulness and ELT abroad, we need to adapt the studies in Türkiye because of many internal and external factors such as context, culture, ELT programs and stakeholders, ELT policy, physical and psychological climates of the schools. This objective's primary driving force is to demonstrate the value of mindfulness in English Language Teaching and Learning in Türkiye, since this will serve as the foundation for future studies on mindfulness and intervention studies.

The following research questions (RQ) are addressed to draw a conclusion of the study.

RQ 1: What are the main aims of mindfulness studies in ELT regarding preceding ten years?

RQ 2: What are the tendencies of research design, participants, data collection and analysis instruments of mindfulness studies published in ELT in Turkish context regarding preceding ten years?

RQ 3: What are the major findings of the studies on mindfulness in ELT?

2. Procedure

This part of the paper informs the readers about research design, data collection and analysis, identification, eligibility and exclusion stages.

Systematic review is used for research design of the current study. The systematic review's main objective is to provide an in-depth summary of all primary research that is currently accessible in answer to a specific research issue. The term "secondary research" (research on research) is occasionally used to describe a systematic review, which makes use of all the current research. A thorough search of all available sources of evidence for pertinent studies is the first stage in a systematic review. In the methodology part of the review, a list of the databases and citation indexes that were examined is presented. Next, titles and abstracts are scrutinized for eligibility and relevance using prearranged, consistent criteria. The scientific merit of each study is then evaluated. The evidence is then synthesized (Clarke, 2011).

In data collection and analysis, the author had a clear objective, used relevant research, relevant criteria for studies, transparent techniques for eligible studies, evaluated the validity of the findings of the included studies, and presented and synthesized the included studies in a systematic manner. The author employed The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses group (PRISMA) standards as the foundation for the four-phase flow diagram (identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion of the studies) that served as the basis for the current systematic review (Moher et al., 2009). By using qualitative techniques, the data from the studies of choice were analyzed and their findings were interpreted through content analysis.

For *Identification Stage*, since the study's initial eligibility criterion was to analyze recent research on mindfulness in ELT that was restricted to Turkey, it was decided to focus on searching studies from the preceding ten years. Ten studies on mindfulness in ELT published between 2014 and 2023 that fall under the purview of this systematic review were chosen and evaluated in accordance with the research questions formulated. The fundamental criterion employed for selecting the studies was that they were primarily concerned with the mindfulness in ELT in Türkiye. The second criterion relates to study quality. The study sought to identify research papers that were listed in open access databases and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) Thesis Center. 'Mindfulness in ELT ' in Türkiye was selected as the keyword used for structuring the search query throughout the literature. The review excluded any of the following documents: books, book chapters, book reviews, conference papers, and review studies. The review solely addressed works pertaining to mindfulness in ELT because research in the field of ELT in Türkiye was prioritized. The author used PRISMA standards to mitigate the potential of bias and enhance eligibility. Studies that met the following criteria were included in this systematic review:

> ➤ confined to Türkiye and focusing on mindfulness in ELT,
> ➤ were carried out with Turkish EFL learners or teachers,
> ➤ had been published in open access journals and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) Thesis Center,
> ➤ were printed between the years of 2014 and 2023.

Eligibility Stage included a pathway. The relevant recent studies were first identified and then evaluated for eligibility using the inclusion and exclusion criteria, which are essential in determining in the selection of studies deemed relevant to the study's aim and research questions.

Following Exclusion Stage; books, book chapters, book reviews, conference papers, and review studies were not included in the final phase of searching for related articles on mindfulness in ELT. In addition, research studies that were not published between 2014 and 2023 were eliminated. For example, out of 336 (CoHE Thesis Center, 2023). The author searched for the Web of Science (WOS) (360 articles but out of criteria), Scopus (1250 articles and 45 Türkiye based article none belonging to ELT) and ScienceDirect (91 articles none of them is suitable for review) databases thus decided to utilize from Google Scholar database and open access journals and CoHE Thesis Center. See Appendix for the summary of studies included in systematic review.

3. Findings

The author sought answer for the Research Questions of 'what the main aims of mindfulness studies in ELT regarding preceding ten years are', 'what the tendencies of research design, participants, data collection instruments and data analysis of mindfulness studies published in ELT in Turkish context regarding preceding ten years are' and 'what the findings of the studies on mindfulness in ELT are'. The emerging themes of finding are elaborated below.

3.1. Focus of Mindfulness in ELT Studies in Türkiye

The review comprised research papers and theses on mindfulness in ELT in Türkiye that used five quantitative, four mixed-methods, and one qualitative research design. Based on the examination of the studies under evaluation, many different subjects were investigated:

Due to the nature of their research, quantitative studies sought to find out if senior English Language and Education students were aware of their being always present during various activities or, instead, acted automatically without paying enough attention to them (Altan, 2021) and to ascertain whether using lavender essential oil to promote meditation will have an impact on anxiety and learning in the context of learning a foreign language (Önem, 2015), to determine whether the guided mindfulness meditation technique will affect the level of motivation among English language teachers for the preparation of lessons (Pamuk, 2019). In another quantitative study, the objective was to examine how mindfulness affects EFL teachers

who are demotivated and claim to have burnout syndrome (Şimşir, 2019). The last quantitative based research aimed to investigate the amount of mindfulness among learners in preparatory schools and how it might fluctuate depending on psychosocial factors (Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021).

On the other hand, mixed methods studies aimed to; investigate the connection between learner autonomy and mindfulness throughout the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at Fırat University (Demirci, 2022), reveal how instruction on mindfulness influences EFL students' levels of speaking anxiety, willingness to speak in the target language, and mindfulness awareness (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022), at a state university in Central Anatolia, Türkiye to investigate the association between mindfulness and anxiety levels related to learning a foreign language among university students (Koçali, 2020). The final mixed-method study, as the first thesis in Türkiye on mindfulness in ELT, also aimed to distinguish between EFL students who received Mindfulness meditation-based clinical intervention (MMCI) training and those who did not in terms of L2 speaking anxiety, their degree of mindfulness and WTC in second language as a shared concern (Öz, 2017). Finally, there is only one qualitative study that sought to investigate the effects of mindfulness training on teachers' interactions with students, wellbeing, and resilience in their classrooms (Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023).

3.2. Context and Sample

The context is a predetermined criterion thus all the reviewed studies needed to be and were in Türkiye on mindfulness in ELT. Most the studies' target populations were EFL preparatory class students but some also included EFL teachers, ELT preservice teachers, and undergraduates of different majors such as Aviation Management and International Relations. To begin with, the studies chose the participants from preparatory school (Demirci, 2022; Öz, 2017; Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021), EFL instructors (Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023; Şimşir, 2019), EFL teachers (Pamuk, 2019), ELT preservice teachers (Altan, 2021; Önem, 2015), undergraduates in Aviation Management (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022) and International Relations (Koçali, 2020). In general, the studies, except from the one in Ministry of National Education (Pamuk, 2019), were carried out at universities.

3.3. Data Collection and Analysis Instruments

The quantitative studies primarily used survey-based tools to collect data, Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) was used (Altan, 2021; Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021), furthermore State and Trait Anxiety Inventory & Vocabulary Test (Önem, 2015), Comprehensive Relative Autonomy Index (Pamuk, 2022), Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire (FFMQ) and Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (Şimşir, 2019) were the instruments utilized in the quantitative studies.

In similar veins, for the mixed methods studies, two studies echoed employing the same instruments; namely MAAS, The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC) and semi-structured interview (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Öz, 2017). Similarly, Autonomy Perception Scale (APS), MAAS and semi-structured interview (Demirci, 2022) and FLCAS, MAAS and semi-structured interview (Koçali, 2022) were the common tools as an integral component of their data collection process. Finally, the last study uniquely qualitative in nature of research, included a teacher journal and three semi structured interviews (Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023).

3.4. Major Findings

The selected research generated an array of noteworthy findings illustrating the various impacts of mindfulness in ELT on student anxiety, speaking anxiety, willingness to communicate, higher degree of mindfulness on both student and teachers, positive student-teacher interactions teacher professional and personal development, resilience, well-being, teacher burnout, job-related affective well-being and learner autonomy. Mindfulness in ELT enabled students to decrease their speaking anxiety (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Önem, 2015, Öz, 2017) and another study yielded moderate level of foreign language anxiety on students (Koçali, 2022). For correlational studies, one of the studies demonstrated a significant negative relationship between mindfulness and foreign language anxiety on undergraduate students (Koçali, 2022) and in similar veins, another study reported statistically significant and meaningful relationship between mindfulness and L2 speaking anxiety (Öz, 2017).

Aside from the positive effects of mindfulness on foreign language anxiety, the studies agreed on the higher level of willingness to communicate (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Öz, 2017) and high degree in mindfulness (Altan, 2021; Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Öz, 2017; Şimşir, 2019) along with mindfulness level being above moderate (Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021) and yielding moderate level of mindfulness (Demirci, 2022; Koçali, 2022). To elaborate on mindfulness, among the

related studies, many different positive effects and findings emerged like revealing small correlation between mindfulness and learner autonomy (Demirci, 2022), better level of vocabulary knowledge (Önem, 2015), an increase in the level of well-being and mindfulness besides indicating statistical and meaningful relationship between mindfulness and 'Mindfulness for Well-being and Peak Performance' (MWPP) also well-being and MWPP, furthermore; high, positive and significant relationship between well-being and mindfulness emerged (Şimşir, 2019). In parallel, mindfulness training had a positive effect on selected student-teacher interactions, teacher resilience and wellbeing (Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023).

A closer look at the data indicates some negative impacts and findings. To begin with, two studies indicated low level of expected mindfulness behaviors like being here and now (Altan, 2021) and students being not capable in performing mindful behaviors (Demirci, 2022). Akin to the findings, the studies displayed no noteworthy connection between mindfulness and gender among university students correlating with the findings (Demirci, 2022; Koçali, 2022). In their study, in respect of variables like the place the students lived most of their gender and academic achievement findings revealed no relationship between mindfulness and these variables (Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021). In one study, the participant teachers' autonomous motivation levels did not change after mindfulness intervention and both control and experimental group displayed decrease in autonomous and controlled motivations (Pamuk, 2019).

4. Discussion

This systematic review's main objective was to provide recent studies that focused on mindfulness in ELT to draw conclusions for subsequent investigations. The review addresses several essential features of mindfulness in ELT specifically in Türkiye. In that manner, the current study creates a descriptive portrait of mindfulness in ELT while simultaneously illuminating the methodology and focus trends evident in the studies that were conducted over the preceding ten years. In considering this, it analyzed ten research studies on predetermined criteria that were carried out in Türkiye for a decade. The study reached to some crucial findings that serve as springing off points for further studies. The research results demonstrate that the following issues are specifically among the reviewed research topics/trends of the mindfulness in ELT studies: Foreign Language Anxiety, L2 speaking anxiety, willingness to communicate, mindfulness on both student and teachers, teacher professional and personal development, resilience, well-being, teacher burnout, job-related affective well-being and learner autonomy.

Four themes arose within the parameters of the findings and the synthesis and analysis of intended research questions. The fist theme is on the focus on mindfulness in ELT studies in Türkiye, the second theme entails context and sample, the third theme covers data collection and analysis instruments, and final theme is about the major findings on the synthesized review studies. The evaluation of research papers revealed that there were some overlaps and discrepancies among studies on the effects and the degree of mindfulness in ELT.

To begin with, the first emerging theme is the focus on mindfulness in ELT studies in Türkiye, which yielded versatile research objectives on quantitative and mixed methods studies. The studies have tended to focus on revealing the mindfulness levels of ELT undergraduates as participants (Altan 2021) and the degree of preparatory school learners' mindfulness and its fluctuation depending on psychosocial factors (Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021). In the other studies, the researchers treated mindfulness through interventions to ascertain whether benefitting lavender aroma will affect anxiety and vocabulary learning (Önem, 2015), to unravel how mindfulness instruction impacts EFL students' speaking anxiety, willingness to communicate and mindfulness awareness (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Öz, 2017), to display the effect of guided mindfulness meditation technique on English language teachers' motivation for lesson preparation (Pamuk, 2019) and how the influence of mindfulness on demotivated EFL teachers having burnout syndrome (Şimşir, 2019). In the correlational studies aside from interventional, the emphasis was on the association between mindfulness and EFL learners' learner autonomy (Demirci, 2022) and mindfulness and EFL learners' FLA levels (Koçali, 2020). Under first theme, the focus of studies on anxiety are parallel with another study in EFL as well (Schoeberlein & Sheth, 2009). Two studies attempted to unearth teachers' burnout, well-being and mindfulness levels after mindfulness intervention (Şimşir, 2019) and the impact of mindfulness training on a teacher's teacher- students interaction, teacher wellbeing, and resilience in class (Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023). Likewise, Charoensukmongkol (2013) shared the same research focus on the benefits of mindfulness training on teacher burn out and job satisfaction.

The second theme based on the context and participants indicated a rich context and samples. Since the setting is a predetermined criterion, all the studies on mindfulness in ELT reviewed ought to be and were conducted in Türkiye in general context. To specify more, the recent synthesized review studies, except from the study in Ministry of National Education (Pamuk, 2019), were carried out at many public and private universities. The evaluation revealed that, for the participant selection, students in EFL preparatory classes were the majority as the target

groups of the studies (Demirci, 2022; Öz, 2017; Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021), but in their studies, some also preferred EFL instructors (Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023; Şimşir, 2019), EFL teachers (Pamuk, 2019), ELT preservice teachers (Altan, 2021; Önem, 2015), and included undergraduates with a variety of fields of study, namely from Aviation management (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022) and International Relations (Koçali, 2020) similar to the participants as undergraduates with different majors Charoensukmongkol (2013) , Özcan and Şahin (2021).

The third theme puts emphasis on data collection and analysis instruments thus similar and quite different tools were employed in the recent studies. Based on the findings, the most frequently used instrument was Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) by many researchers (Altan, 2021; Demirci, 2022; Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Koçali, 2022; Öz, 2017; Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021) it may be because of the focus of the main studies put mindfulness at its hearth., followed by the second mostly employed tool as semi structured interviews (Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023; Demirci, 2022; Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Koçali, 2022; Öz, 2017) to support triangulation and validity. The third tool is a very famous and most frequently employed scale in ELT named The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). This may stem from that it was developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), it has been commonly used to determine anxiety level of participants it was developed by Horwitz et al. in 1986, it has been commonly used to determine anxiety level of participants Ersanlı and Ünal (2002); Koçali, (2022) and Öz, (2017) used FLCAS for their mixed methods studies as shared concern to understanding on the impact of mindfulness on anxiety types (Charoensukmongkol, 2013; Fallah, 2017). The reviewed studies as well covered many different sources of tools as scales, questionnaires, index and journals to add breadth and depth of analysis.

The final theme put emphasis on major findings based on the synthesis of the reviewed studies. The studies yielded positive and to a less degree negative impact of mindfulness in FL. Almost every reviewed research that was carried out on anxiety and the impact of mindfulness yielded positive results on decreasing the EFL anxiety or speaking anxiety (Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Koçali, 2022; Önem, 2015; Öz, 2017). The result of the findings also correlates with Semple et al. (2005) regarding the impact of mindfulness on anxiety. This result may be because of the mindfulness traits of *beginner's mind* and *letting go* (Kuru Gönen, 2022) as both indicates a clear focus to the present moment opportunities that life brings rather than living in the past with regret/ indignation and the future with anxiety.

Much of the available recently reviewed research deals with the significance, positive impact and level of mindfulness on participants indicating better vocabulary knowledge, higher level

of mindfulness, increased willingness to communicate, (job related) well-being, resilience and better teacher-students interaction (Altan, 2021; Çiçek & Gürbüz, 2023; Demirci, 2022; Ersanlı & Ünal, 2022; Koçali, 2022; Önem, 2015; Öz, 2017; Şimşir, 2019; Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021). The review results are in the same position as by Koçali and Aşık's (2022) systematic review on mindfulness in EFL and ESL context on with a focus on both national and international studies yielding positive results in favor of mindfulness.

To specify more, even if the numbers were considerably lower, some studies' findings point to gender variable did not differ on mindfulness level. According to the research results, the studies (Demirci, 2022; Koçali, 2022; Tural & Küçükkaragöz, 2021) did not uncover any notable associations between gender and mindfulness among university students. This view is supported by the other scholars by Brown and Ryan (2003), Charoensukmongkol (2019) and Yazıcı (2020) that highlighted no gender difference on mindfulness studies. The justification for demonstrating the same mindfulness level despite gender disparities may be because mindfulness is a lately popular technique and practice in Türkiye, and attending such courses may be out of the realm of possibility financially. Additionally, the majority of undergraduates may also come from akin social and economic backgrounds, which might place them all in the same context (Koçali, 2020).

There is also, however, a further point to be considered. Even though the numbers are somewhat lower, some research findings seem to contradict those that demonstrate the positive effects of mindfulness and high degrees of mindfulness. For instance, in her study, Pamuk (2019) found that guided meditation had no effect on the autonomous motivation level of teachers in the experimental group. Besides all of the teachers in the control and experiment groups showed a decline in both autonomous and controlled motivation after the intervention. She asserts that this result may stem from the length of the meditation limited to 8 minutes and many individuals participation in the guided mindfulness meditation without understanding how to do it effectively. Two research revealed low levels of the expected mindfulness behaviors, such as being present in the moment (Altan, 2021), and students' inability to engage in these activities (Demirci, 2022).

5. Conclusion

This systematic review attempts to examine the topic of mindfulness research on ELT limited to studies conducted in Türkiye by synthesizing the studies completed over the recent 10 years. By analyzing the relevant studies carried out across the nation with regards to bolstering the

awareness and understanding of mindfulness practices, this systematic review aimed to portray the mindfulness in ELT in the pertinent literature. The ultimate aim is to contribute to Turkish academia on mindfulness in ELT otherwise we need to adapt the studies in Türkiye because of many internal and external factors such as context, culture, ELT programs, physical and psychological conditions of the schools. The four-phase flow diagram served as the basis for the current systematic review, and it was constructed by employing PRISMA standards. Data from the studies of choice were analyzed using qualitative methods, and their results were then interpreted using content analysis. The synthesis of the studies indicated four themes. This systematic review study came to the conclusion that the concept of mindfulness is worthwhile researching because recent studies indicate it has a high potential to influence both students' and teachers' interactions with language and personal- professional development, resilience, well-being and decreased anxiety in spite of fewer studies revealing contradictory results. Also, the studies indicated a gap in qualitative studies to unveil the deeper understanding of and trustworthiness of in-depth analysis of findings and further research to unearth the rationale behind no gender difference on mindfulness levels.

This review study has some limitations as it only includes the studies conducted in Türkiye only, the research studies published from 2014 to date, the studies focused merely on mindfulness in ELT only. The review did not cover books, book chapters, book reviews, systematic reviews, conference proceedings, poster presentations in Türkiye. The overall conclusion of this systematic review might be affected due to these limitations. These restrictions may have an impact on the systematic review's ultimate conclusion.

Further studies on gender difference and mindfulness in ELT may be the focus for filling the above-mentioned gap. The researchers may compare and contrast the recent mindfulness studies in Türkiye and abroad to see the whole picture in detail. Although cognitivist approaches have been criticized, it is evident that the researchers are still primarily interested on anxiety in the experimental mindfulness studies. Further research in this field might dwell more on PP elements than on the prevalence of anxiety or demotivation more with a qualitative focus. There is still scarce of mindfulness-based theses and even having no dissertation of mindfulness in ELT indicates a need for new theses and dissertations in Türkiye.

REFERENCES

Altan, M. Z. (2021). Bilinçli farkındalık ve İngiliz dili ve öğretimi lisans öğrencilerinin MAAS'a (The Mindful Attention Awareness Scale/ Bilinçli Farkındalık Dikkat Ölçeği'ne dayalı farkındalık ve dikkat düzeyleri. *Uluslararası Beşeri Bilimler ve Eğitim Dergisi, 7*(16), 612-649. https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/ijhe/issue/65605/980651

Arıcı Özcan, N. & Şahin, S. (2021). The effectiveness of mindfulness based thriving program on level of mindfulness and thriving. *Klinik Psikiyatri Dergisi, 24*(3), 324 - 333. https://doi.org/10.5505/kpd.2021.65037

Brown, K. W., & Ryan, R. M. (2003). The benefits of being present: mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *84*(4), 822.https:// /doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.4.822

Çapan, S. A., & Pektaş, R. (2013). An empirical analysis of the relationship between foreign language reading anxiety and reading strategy training. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(12), 181. https://doi.org/ 10.5539/elt.v6n12p181

Charoensukmongkol, P. (2013). The contributions of mindfulness meditation on burnout, coping strategy, and job satisfaction: Evidence from Thailand. *Journal of Management & Organization, 19*(5), 544-558. https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2014.8

Charoensukmongkol, P. (2019). The role of mindfulness in reducing English language anxiety among Thai college students. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *22*(4), 414-427. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1264359

Çiçek, M. & Gürbüz, N. (2023). Exploring the impacts of mindfulness training for an EFL teacher: Insights from a narrative inquiry study. *Issues in Educational Research*, 33(2), 471-487. http://www.iier.org.au/iier33/cicek.pdf

Clarke, J. (2011). What is a systematic review? *Evidence-Based Nursing*,*14*(3),64. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/ebn.2011.0049

Csikszentmihalyi, M. & Nakamura, J. (2011). Positive psychology: Where did it come from where is it going? In M. K. Sheldon, T. B. Kashdan, & M. F. Steger (Eds), *Designing positive psychology: Taking stock and moving forward* (pp. 3-8). Oxford University Press.

Demirci, E. (2022). *Exploring the relationship between mindfulness and learner autonomy in EFL context* (Publication no. 771945) [Master's Thesis, Çağ University]. Council of Higher Education Thesis Center.

Dewaele, J.-M., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). The two faces of Janus? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *4*(2), 237–274. https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/id/eprint/10592

Ersanlı, C. Y., & Ünal, T. (2022). Impact of Mindfulness training on EFL learners' willingness to speak, speaking anxiety levels and mindfulness awareness levels. *Education Quarterly Reviews*, *Special Issue 5*(2). Current education research in Turkey, 429-448. https://doi.org/10.31014/aior.1993.05.04.634

Fallah, N. (2017). Mindfulness, coping self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety: a mediation analysis.*EducationalPsychology*,*37*(6),745-756. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2016.1149549

Felver, C. J., Doerner, E., Jones, J., Kaye, N.C. & Merrell, K. (2013). Mindfulness in school psychology: applications for intervention and professional practice. *Psychology in the Schools*.*50*: 531–547. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.21695.

Foody, M. & Samara, M. (2018). Considering mindfulness techniques in school-based anti-bullying programmes. *Journal of New Approaches in Educational Research, 7*(1), 3-9. https://doi.org/ 10.7821/naer.2018.1.253

Germer, C. K., Siegel, R. D., & Fulton, P. R. (Eds.). (2013). *Mindfulness and psychotherapy* (2nd ed.). The Guilford Press.

Ghanizadeh, A., & Royaei, N. (2015). Emotional facet of language teaching: emotion regulation and emotional labor strategies as predictors of teacher burnout. *International. Journal of Pedagogical Learning 10*, 139–150. https://doi.org/ 10.1080/22040552.2015.1113847

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), 125-132.https://doi.org/10.2307/327317

Kabat-Zinn, J. (2003). Mindfulness-based interventions in context: Past, present, and future. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, *10* (2), 144-156. https://doi.org/ 10.1093/clipsy/bpg016

Keenan-Mount, R., Albrecht, N., & Waters, L. (2016). Mindfulness-based approaches for young people with Autism Spectrum Disorder and their caregivers: Do these approaches hold benefits for teachers? *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 41*(6), 68-86. https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2016v41n6.5

Koçali, Z. (2020). *The relationship between mindfulness and foreign language anxiety at a university context* (Publication no. 630274) [Master's Thesis, Çağ University]. Council of Higher Education Thesis Center.

Koçali, Z., & Aşık, A., (2022). A systematic review of Mindfulness Studies in ESL and EFL contexts. *i-manager's Journal on Educational Psychology*, *15*(3), 47-61. https://doi.org/10.26634/jpsy.15.3.18588

Kuru Gönen, S. I. (2022). Mindfulness-based practices for EFL Teachers: Sample tasks and insights to cultivate mindfulness. *Focus on ELT Journal,4*(3),78-93. https://doi.org/10.14744/felt.2022.4.3.6.

MacIntyre, P. D. (2021). "Exploring applications of positive psychology in SLA," in Positive psychology in second and foreign language education, eds K. Budzi´nska and O. Majchrzak (Cham: Springer), 3–17. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-64444-4_1

MacIntyre, P. D., Gregersen, T., and Mercer, S. (2019). Setting an agenda for positive psychology in SLA: Theory, practice, and research. *Modern Language Journal*, *103* (1), 262–274. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12544

MacIntyre, P. D. (2016). So far so good: An overview of positive psychology and its contributions to SLA. In D. Gabryś-Barker & D. Gałajda (Eds.), *Positive psychology perspectives on foreign language learning and teaching* (pp. 3–20). Springer International Publishing/Springer Nature.

Moher, D., Liberati, A., Tetzlaff, J., Altman, D. G., & PRISMA Group. (2009). Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, *151*(4), 264-269. https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-151-4-200908180-00135

Öz, S. (2017). *The effects of mindfulness training on students' L2 speaking anxiety, willingness to communicate, level of mindfulness and L2 speaking performance* (Publication no. 475460) [Master's Thesis, Bahçeşehir University]. Council of Higher Education Thesis Center.

Pamuk, Z. O. (2022). *Mindfulness as an intervention in English teachers' quality motivation for lesson preparation* (Publication no. 695563) [Master's Thesis, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University]. Council of Higher Education Thesis Center.

Peterson, C. (2006). *A primer in positive psychology*. Oxford University Press.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2006). Afterword: Breaking the 65 percent barrier. In M. Csikszentmihalyi & I. S. Csikszentmihalyi (Eds.), *A life worth living: Contributions to positive psychology.* (pp. 230-236). Oxford University Press.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2011). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being*. Atria.

Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 5-14. https://doi:10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.5

Semple, R. J., Reid, E. F. G., & Miller, L. (2005). Treating anxiety with mindfulness: An open trial of mindfulness training for anxious children. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy, 19*(4), 379–392. https://doi.org/10.1891/jcop.2005.19.4.379

Şimşir, D. (2019). *An exploratory study of the effects of mindfulness on EFL teachers' motivation* (Publication no. 578015) [Master's Thesis, Maltepe University]. Council of Higher Education Thesis Center.

Tural, P., & Küçükkaragöz, H. (2021). Mindfulness and academic achievement among English language learners at preparatory schools. *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *5*(7), 79-90. https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/mkuefder/issue/63331/890495

Wang, Y., Derakhshshan, A. & Zhang, J. L. (2021) Researching and practicing positive psychology in second/foreign language learning and teaching: The past, current status and future directions. Frontiers in Psychology, 12, 1-10. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.731721

Yazıcı, E. C. (2020). *Üniversite öğrencilerinin bilinçli farkındalık düzeyleri ile ruminatif düşünme biçimlerinin çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi* (Publication no. 606844) [Master's Thesis, Sivas Cumhuriyet University]. Council of Higher Education Thesis Center.

Appendix A. Summary of Studies Included in Systematic Review

Author	Research Design	Context and Sample	Data Collection Instruments	Key Findings
Altan, M. Z. (2021)	Quantitative Descriptive	42 senior English Language and Education department students	MAAS (The Mindful Attention Awareness Scale)	Higher mindfulness level in general but low in the score of being here and now.
Çiçek, M. & Gürbüz, N. (2023)	Qualitative Narrative Inquiry	An EFL instructor with mindfulness training certificates who worked at a preparatory school in a northeast state university in Türkiye	A teacher journal and three semi-structured interviews.	Positive impact of mindfulness training on selected trained teacher's student-teacher interactions, and on her resilience and wellbeing.
Demirci, E. (2022).	A mixed research design Correlational	155 preparatory class students at State university in Elazığ, Türkiye.	Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS) Autonomy Perception Scale Semi-structured interview	Small correlation between mindfulness and learner autonomy moderate level of mindfulness no gender-based difference in mindfulness level participants were not adequate enough on performing mindful behaviors
Ersanlı , C. Y & Ünal, T. (2022).	A mixed research design Interventional Quasi Experimental	41 sophomore students taking General English in the Department of Aviation Management at a State University in	Mindfulness Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS) The Foreign Language Classroom	Experimental group had a higher willingness to communicate in a foreign language, a higher degree of mindfulness, and a lower level of second language speaking anxiety

		the Black Sea Region	Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC) Semi-structured interview	compared to their previous condition. Qualitative data also reveal that students who got mindfulness training could cope with their anxiety of making errors while speaking both in or outside of the class
Koçali, Z. (2020).	A mixed research design Correlational	157 students from preparatory to senior students International Relations at a State university in Central Anatolia in Türkiye	Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) Semi-structured interview	Moderate level of foreign language anxiety moderate level of mindfulness no meaningful relationship between mindfulness and gender among university students no meaningful relationship between mindfulness and grade a significant negative relationship between mindfulness and FLA.
Önem, E. E. (2015)	Quantitative Experimental	61 freshmen of English Language Teaching department of a state university in Türkiye	Turkish version of State and Trait Anxiety Inventory Vocabulary Test	Experimental group a lower level of anxiety at the end of the research Better level of vocabulary knowledge

Öz, S. (2017)	Mixed Method Experimental	29 preparatory program students at a private university in Türkiye	Mindful Attention & Awareness Scale (MAAS), Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC) and semi-structured interviews.	there is a statistically significant and meaningful relationship between mindfulness and L2 speaking anxiety of EFL preparatory school students. the practice of mindfulness reduces fear of making mistake in English classes. a higher degree of mindfulness a significant decrease in L2 speaking anxiety
Pamuk, Z. O. (2022).	Quantitative Experimental	50 EFL teachers working at primary, secondary, high school and university	Comprehensive Relative Autonomy Index	The measured motivational variables decreased statistically in both groups
Şimşir, D. (2019).	Quantitative Quasi Experimental	60 Instructors of English who work at different universities in İstanbul	Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire, FFMQ Job-related Affective Well-being Scale, JAWS	significant increase in mindfulness after the Mindfulness for Well-being and Peak Performance (MWPP) statistical and meaningful relationship between mindfulness and MWPP in experimental group no difference found in control group for JAWS significant increase in well being after the MWPP significant relationship between wellbeing and JAWS. control group remained stable

				high, positive and significant relationship between well-being and mindfulness
Tural, P., & Küçükkaragöz, H. (2021).	Quantitative Descriptive	214 preparatory school students at a university from different departments	Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS)	the study group's mindfulness level was above moderate. no relationship was found between academic achievement, gender, and where they have spent most of their life

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Research Assist. Rümeysa PEKTAŞ

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-7883-9664

pektasrumeysa@gmail.com

Süleyman Demirel University, English Language Teaching Department

Rümeysa PEKTAŞ is a Research Assistant at Isparta Süleyman Demirel University in English Language Teaching Division. She received her M.A. from Konya Necmettin Erbakan University, ELT. She worked as Research Assistant in 2015-2017 at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University ELT Department. She currently pursues her career in PhD. at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University in ELT. She presented papers in international and national conferences and published in refereed journals and book chapters. She has attended TUBITAK Projects and received certificates. Her main research interest are; Positive Psychology, Personal and Professional Development, Active Learning, Reflective Teaching, Mindfulness and Resilience, Intercultural Communication, Orientalism, Deconstructive Feminism, Body Language and Elocution, Special Education & ELT.

To Cite this Chapter

Pektaş, R. (2023). Delving into the mindfulness: A window of opportunity for EFL preservice-inservice teachers in Türkiye. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *Current studies in foreign language education,* (pp. 144-169). ISRES Publishing.

Ali ERSOY iD

Ali KARAKAŞ iD

Abstract

English language teacher education is a priority in many countries due to the global importance of English as a means of communication. The quality of English language teacher education programs is essential to ensure that teachers are equipped with the knowledge and skills required to effectively teach English as an additional language. This study investigates the views of English language teacher educators in Türkiye regarding the 2018 English Language Teaching Education Program (ELTEP). The research involved 80 participants from various academic positions in English language teaching (ELT) departments across state universities in Türkiye. Data was collected through a questionnaire based on Peacock's evaluation model and follow-up semi-structured interviews conducted online in 2020. The findings suggest that the teacher educators are generally satisfied with the program's up-to-date teaching materials, testing and evaluation methods, and coverage of modern English issues. However, they expressed dissatisfaction with certain aspects, such as course hours, training opportunities, self-awareness promotion, classroom management skills, and balancing different language skills. The teacher educators were neutral on the issue of course connections and overlap between courses. The study highlights the need for a comprehensive needs analysis in program development.

Keywords: Pre-service teacher education, Program evaluation, Opinions of teacher educators

1. Introduction

Since English has become the dominant language for international communication and media, proficiency in English is crucial for socializing, entertainment, and employment, providing opportunities to work for multinational companies domestically or abroad. However, English language teaching as a field has been questioned in recent years (Karakaş, 2012). As Stern (1983) states, language teaching comprises activities intended to stimulate language learning. Specifically, the teacher's role is to design target activities and determine when and how to engage learners with the target language in the classroom setting. English now has more non-

native speakers than native speakers (e.g. Canagarajah, 2006; Kachru, 1992). Consequently, it is often the case that non-native English speakers are teaching other non-native speakers (Hall, 2018; Kachru & Nelson, 2006; Medgyes & Ryan, 1996; Pasternak & Bailey, 2004). To train highly qualified language teachers who understand their part in the language learning process, a comprehensive teacher education system of pre-service and in-service training is essential. Pre-service preparation is particularly vital, as later education and training builds on this foundation, representing the initial critical step towards professionalization. Structuring a well-balanced pre-service program for prospective English language teachers is of paramount importance for equipping student teachers to fulfill their educational duties, achieve their objectives, and enhance their future teaching performance.

In Türkiye, English language teacher education takes place in education faculties of universities, generally lasting four years, or five years if there is an additional required one-year intensive preparatory class. Students from related departments like English/American language and literature or English philology can also qualify as English teachers provided they obtain a pedagogical formation certificate. While departments follow a centralized compulsory curriculum published by the Higher Education Council (HEC), elective courses and materials can vary as departments have autonomy in administering them.

Studies conducted in Turkey on English language teacher education programs (ELTEP) predominantly reflect the perspectives of student teachers and teachers, rather than those implementing the programs, i.e. teacher educators. The number of teacher educator participants is insufficient to gain a full-bodied understanding. For example, Coşgun-Ögeyik's (2009) study had 53 third year student teachers, Coşkun and Daloğlu's (2010) study had 55 senior student teachers and three university instructors, Hişmanoglu's (2012) study had 72 second year student teachers, and Salihoğlu's (2012) study had 200 fourth year student teachers and 21 teacher educators. As evidenced by these examples, there is a lack of studies in the Turkish context where teacher educators' perspectives are centered. More research is thus needed that foregrounds the viewpoints of those delivering ELTEPs. Against this backdrop, the current study aims to expand the scope of ELTEP evaluation research in the Turkish context by providing a more professional viewpoint, which can inform agreements on improving future programs over the long term. In other words, this study aims to uncover the deficiencies of the latest ELTEP and identify which program components teacher educators in ELT departments find adequate or inadequate by consulting teacher educators' opinions in the field of language teacher education.

2. Key concepts and building blocks of language teacher education

2.1. Pre-service teacher education

Pre-service teacher education refers to the education and training provided to student teachers before they begin their teaching careers (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Pre-service teachers are candidate professionals in the process of training to become teachers (Kennedy, 2005). Pre-service education occurs in various institutional settings, including public or private teacher training colleges, universities, and private institutes (Darling-Hammond, 2006). It can also be delivered through different modalities, such as residential education, distance learning, and using various technologies like print, radio, television, internet, etc. (Kennedy, 2005). Pre-service teacher education involves guided and supervised teaching to equip student teachers with pedagogical knowledge and teaching skills (Grossman, 1990). Pedagogical knowledge encompasses the theoretical, sociological, and psychological elements that provide student teachers a foundation for executing teaching skills in the classroom (Grossman, 1990). Teaching skills refer to the procedures, strategies, methods, and approaches that can assist teachers in fulfilling their career and contributing to the advancement of the profession (Grossman, 1990). In most countries, teachers undergo some form of pre-service education, though the duration and format of this training can vary greatly (Schwille et al., 2007). In some cases, pre-service training has been shortened significantly to allow governments to meet teacher demand in communities experiencing rapid increases in enrollment (Schwille et al., 2007). Additionally, teachers may be required to obtain professional certification or pass government examinations in conjunction with their academic qualifications (Ingvarson et al., 2013).

Schwille and Dembele (2007) noted that pre-service teacher education has been criticized for its rigid, expensive, time-consuming structure and inability to keep pace with curriculum reform and new classroom/school demands. Institutions are often slow to implement curricular changes or additions. Class size is another constraint on institution-based pre-service training. There are ongoing debates about the quality of pre-service teacher education, as mass education is still relatively new in many contexts.

2.2. In-service teacher education

In-service teacher education refers to the education teachers receive after they have started their professional teaching careers (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Its aims and objectives include reflecting on and developing one's own practice (Desimone, 2009), staying current in one's

academic discipline and other curricular areas (Buczynski & Hansen, 2010), researching and reflecting on learners and their education (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999), understanding evolving educational and social issues (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005), and preparing for other professional roles related to education and teaching (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). In-service teacher education consists of several types of programs which are offered by different institutes (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Conferences, workshops, refresher courses, orientation programs, and study groups are most common types of in-service teacher education programs (Desimone et al., 2002; Gulamhussein, 2013; Kennedy, 2014; Villegas-Reimers, 2003).

2.3. Teacher Education models

Teacher education involves two key policies: training and development (Freeman, 2001). Training aims to build skills and knowledge to improve classroom effectiveness but can have limitations, notably a fragmented view of teaching (Freeman, 1989). In contrast, development centers on self-awareness and reflection (Head & Taylor, 1997). While training is dispensed by others, development is self-driven (Wallace, 1991). However, training and development are interrelated in teacher education, providing opportunities to practice techniques while developing awareness of new approaches to enhance teaching (Freeman, 2001). Freeman (1989) proposed an influential model for teacher education comprised of four elements: knowledge, skills, attitudes, and awareness. Knowledge refers to information about language teaching, while skills involve applying that knowledge with students. Attitudes represent teachers' stances towards themselves, teaching, and learners, playing a key role albeit hard to incorporate in teacher training (Freeman, 1989). Awareness means recognizing how to utilize the other components to address classroom challenges through knowledge, skills, and attitude changes. This model highlighted core aspects of teacher preparation.

Likewise, Wallace (1991) outlined several teacher education models including craft/apprenticeship, applied science, reflective/constructivist, and competency-based. The craft model involves experts transferring knowledge and skills to novices through guidance and training until novices gain mastery to become professionals, relying on observation, imitation and practice (Wallace, 1991). The applied science model utilizes empirical research to inform teaching, often entailing theoretical linguistics, language-learning, psychology courses (Ur, 1992; Wallace, 1991). Wallace (1991) critiqued this model for limiting expert-novice interactions and overemphasizing empirical knowledge versus other teaching skills. Key models highlight differing approaches to teacher preparation. Building on prior models,

Wallace (1991) advocated for reflective/constructivist teacher education integrating received and experiential knowledge. This reflective cycle engages student-teachers in practicing and reflecting on teaching components to build awareness in ways traditional knowledge transmission cannot (Wallace, 1991). Reflective models view teachers as active knowledge producers who can solve classroom problems, not just passive transmitters (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1983). Key features include open-mindedness to new ideas, responsibility for unintended consequences, and willingness to aid students (Dewey, 1933). Schön (1983) highlighted classroom unpredictability by arguing that teachers should be reflective decision-makers learning through practice. Ultimately, differing models provide complementary insights into effective teacher preparation.

2.4. Program evaluation and its objectives

An educational program is an organized sequence of courses leading to a defined objective, degree, certificate, diploma, license, or transfer to another institution of higher education (ASCCC.org, 2018). Program evaluation is a common form of evaluation in education. As Worthen (1990) notes, it is "the determination of the worth of a thing consisting those activities undertaken to judge the worth or utility of a program (or alternative programs) in improving some specified aspect of an education system" (p. 42). Similarly, Lynch (2006, p. 2) defines program evaluation as "the systematic attempt to gather information in order to make judgements or decisions". As can be inferred from the preceding descriptions, program evaluation refers to the collection, analysis, and interpretation of information to draw inferences about the value of a particular program (Robinson, 2002), and it serves to determine the extent to which the program meets student teachers' needs and goals overall by means of signaling necessary improvements to program designers and teacher educators (Demir, 2015). As Erarslan (2016) summarizes, evaluation is a systematic and a planned process in which collecting and analyzing research data about organizations and programs are made to inform stakeholders about current situation of them. Furthermore, program evaluation is conducted to gain insight into the effectiveness of a program, so that improvements can be made. Ultimately, the outcomes of evaluation can help stakeholders determine if a program should be terminated, continued, or expanded. That is, evaluating an educational program is an effective tool for assessing whether it adequately prepares teacher trainees for the context in which they will operate. Especially, program evaluation has recently gained much prominence among researchers in English language education internationally, with similar trends locally observed

in Türkiye (e.g. Coşgun-Ögeyik, 2009; Coşkun & Daloğlu, 2010; Demir, 2015; Hismanoğlu, 2012; Karakaş, 2012; Karakaş & Yavuz, 2018; Kıldan et al., 2013; Salihoğlu, 2012; Yavuz & Topkaya, 2013).

3. Essential characteristics of language teachers

Scholars have identified various qualities of effective teachers, including subject mastery, motivation, organization, enthusiasm, and rapport with students (Calabria, 1960; Feldman, 1976). Some contend that language teaching requires unique skills like target language proficiency, stimulating student interest, clarity, cultural knowledge, flexibility, and assessment abilities (Borg, 2006; Brosh, 1996; Hammadou & Bernhar, 1987; Horwitz, 1988; Kalebic, 2005; Vadillio, 1999). Core competencies include solid command of the target language, organization/explanation skills, fairness, availability to assist students, and the ability to motivate and respond to diverse learner needs. Scholars have categorized effective language teacher attributes into English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, socio-affective skills, and personality characteristics (Dinçer et al., 2013; Park & Lee, 2006). Essential competencies include subject knowledge, professional skills, positive attitudes, and ability to incorporate technology. Key factors highlighted include strong student-teacher relationships, enthusiasm, pedagogical content knowledge, confidence, and interpersonal abilities (Arıkan, 2010; Dinçer et al., 2013). While perspectives differ, common themes emphasize target language mastery, pedagogical expertise, learner-centered rapport, and intrapersonal skills.

4. English language teacher education process in Türkiye

In Türkiye, English language teachers are educated through English language teaching or foreign language education university programs. Students must meet exam requirements for admission. Nearly 100 such programs exist, and graduates must pass a national exam (KPSS) and interview to qualify for placement as a state school teacher. Those with related degrees, such as English language and literature or linguistics, can teach with a pedagogical formation certificate from a teacher certification program (Aydoğan & Çilsal, 2007; Tercanlıoğlu, 2004). Multiple pathways exist to become an English teacher in the Turkish education system. In Türkiye, the Higher Education Council provides overall standards for English teacher education programs, while individual university departments administer materials, exams, courses, and electives (Karakaş, 2012). Programs usually last four years, with some requiring additional English preparatory semesters. They offer compulsory professional and pedagogical courses

plus electives. Public universities are tuition-free and private ones offer scholarships. Teacher educators hold at least master's degrees. English teachers comprise the largest foreign language teaching workforce in Turkish state schools.

5. Exploring the 2018 English language teacher education program

In this section, the focus will be placed on the structure of the 2018 program. While doing so, each academic term will be inspected in terms of the courses offered and their credits in a comparative fashion with reference to the previous program. In doing so, it will be easier to see the changes between the previous program and the 2018 one.

5.1. Program structure

In 2018, Turkey's HEC implemented new English teacher education programs based on constructivist principles, with teachers as learning guides rather than sole knowledge sources. Changes included revised course names, sequences, and credits. Total credits decreased to 148 and class hours to 155, while the number of courses increased. Courses fall under three main categories, similar to the 2006 program. The 2018 update reflects contemporary constructivist and learner-centered perspectives.

The 2018 program made significant first term changes versus its predecessor. Advanced Reading/Writing split into separate Reading Skills 1 and Writing Skills 1 courses. Foreign Language 1 and Ataturk's History/Principles moved to this term. Effective Communication and Contextual Grammar were removed, while Educational Sociology was added. Despite increased courses from 8 to 10, credits decreased to 22. Reading Skills 1 targeted comprehending diverse materials and higher-level skills like identifying main ideas. Writing Skills 1 covered paragraph types/structure, features, and various writing genres. Courses emphasized contemporary reading, writing, listening, and oral communication competencies.

Table 1. 2018 ELTEP First Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
PK	Introduction to Education	2	0	2	3
PK	Educational Sociology	2	0	2	3
GC	Ataturk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution 1	2	0	2	3
GC	Foreign Language 1	2	0	2	3
GC	Turkish Language 1	3	0	3	5
GC	Information Technologies	3	0	3	5
FE	Reading Skills 1	2	0	2	2
FE	Writing Skills 1	2	0	2	2
FE	Listening and Pronunciation 1	2	0	2	2
FE	Oral Communication Skills 1	2	0	2	2

	TOTAL	22	0	22	30

The second term built on the first, with Word Knowledge removed and Structure of English added, seemingly replacing Contextual Grammar. Reading Skills 2 focused on top-down/bottom-up strategies and inferring direct/indirect meanings. Writing Skills 2 covered composition processes and genres. Listening/Pronunciation 2 targeted note taking, gathering details, identifying key points, using authentic materials. Oral Communication Skills 2 further developed higher-level speaking and listening abilities. Structure of English examined word and sentence structures and contextual usage. Changes maintained an emphasis on well-rounded English proficiency development.

Table 2. 2018 ELTEP Second Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
PK	Educational Psychology	2	0	2	3
PK	Educational Philosophy	2	0	2	3
GC	Ataturk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution 2	2	0	2	3
GC	Foreign Language 2	2	0	2	3
GC	Turkish Language 2	3	0	3	5
FE	Reading Skills 2	2	0	2	2
FE	Writing Skills 2	2	0	2	3
FE	Listening and Pronunciation 2	2	0	2	3
FE	Oral Communication Skills 2	2	0	2	3
FE	Structure of English	2	0	2	2
	TOTAL	21	0	21	30

The third term increased total courses to 9 from 7, though decreased credits by 2. Notable changes included removing Turkish-English Translation and Oral Expression/Public Speaking. Turkish Education History moved to the next term. Educational Technology and Critical Reading/Writing were added. Learning/Teaching Approaches in English covered English teaching history, methods, classroom strategies, and cultural perspectives. English Literature 1 examined British/American literary backgrounds, genres, analysis, and interpretation. Linguistics 1 introduced basic linguistic analysis, language structures/systems, and variations. Critical Reading/Writing aimed to develop summarization, reporting, and synthesis abilities with scholarly texts. Changes reflected more critical thinking and technology integration goals

Table 3. 2018 ELTEP Third Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
PK	Educational Technologies	2	0	2	3
PK	Principles and Methods in Teaching	2	0	2	3
PK	Optional 1	2	0	2	4
GC	Optional 1	2	0	2	3
FE	Optional 1	2	0	2	4
FE	Approaches in English Language Learning and Teaching	2	0	2	3
FE	English Literature 1	2	0	2	4
FE	Linguistics 1	2	0	2	3

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
FE	Critical Reading and Writing	2	0	2	3
	TOTAL	18	0	18	30

The fourth term increased courses by 2 but decreased credits by 2. Notable updates include renaming Scientific Research Methods to Educational Research Methods and restructuring/renaming ELT Methodology I to Teaching Programs in English. Linguistics, Language Acquisition, and English Literature remained but had reduced credits. Teaching Programs in English covered concepts, history, content, outcomes, materials, assessment, and more regarding English teaching programs. Literature, Linguistics, and Acquisition courses continued prior goals. Changes maintained research and teaching programming foundations.

Table 4. 2018 ELTEP Fourth Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
FK	Turkish Education History	2	0	2	3
FK	Educational Research Methods	2	0	2	3
FK	Optional 2	2	0	2	4
GC	Optional 2	2	0	2	3
FE	Optional 2	2	0	2	4
FE	Teaching Programs in English Teaching	2	0	2	3
FE	English Literature 2	2	0	2	4
FE	Linguistics 2	2	0	2	3
FE	Language Acquisition	2	0	2	3
	TOTAL	18	0	18	30

A notable change was the addition of Morals and Ethics in Education under the teacher education category. Some field knowledge course names changed, but content remained similar to the 2006 program. The inclusion of ethics signifies an increased focus on teacher professionalism and values.

Table 5. 2018 ELTEP Fifth Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
FK	Classroom Management	2	0	2	3
FK	Moral and Ethics in Education	2	0	2	3
FK	Optional 3	2	0	2	4
GC	Optional 3	2	0	2	3
FE	Optional 3	2	0	2	4
FE	Teaching English to Young Learners 1	2	0	2	5
FE	Teaching English Language Skills 1	2	0	2	5
FE	Teaching Language and Literature 1	2	0	2	5
	TOTAL	2	0	2	3

The sixth term increased courses to 8 but decreased total credits to 18 versus the 2006 program. A major change was moving Turkish Education System and School Management from the eighth term in 2006 to this term. The sixth term largely continued the fifth term's focus, with

similar major field course content as the 2006 program. The earlier placement of the Turkish education course points to increased attention on understanding the local school context.

Table 6. 2018 ELTEP Sixth Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
FK	Testing and Evaluation in Education	2	0	2	3
FK	Turkish Education System and School Management	2	0	2	3
FK	Optional 4	2	0	2	4
GC	Optional 4	2	0	2	3
FE	Optional 4	2	0	2	4
FE	Teaching English to Young Learners 2	2	0	2	5
FE	Teaching English Language Skills 2	2	0	2	5
FE	Teaching Language and Literature 2	2	0	2	3
	TOTAL	18	0	18	30

The seventh term had 7 courses like 2006, but increased credits by 2. Second Foreign Language III was removed. School Experience was renamed Teaching Practice 1 with increased hours from 4 to 6. Material Development renamed Developing Course Content in English Teaching but maintained similar goals. A new Translation course combined prior Turkish-English and English-Turkish Translation. Changes reveal more emphasis on practical teaching experience and comparing Turkish/English structures.

Table 7. 2018 ELTEP Seventh Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
PK	Teaching Practice 1	2	6	5	10
PK	Education of Special Needed and Inclusion Teaching	2	0	2	3
PK	Optional 5	2	0	2	4
GC	Serving Society	1	2	2	3
FE	Optional 5	2	0	2	4
FE	Developing Course Content in English Teaching	3	0	3	3
FE	Translation	3	0	3	3
	TOTAL	15	8	19	30

With 5 courses, the eighth term had the fewest of any term, decreased by 2 from 2006. Updating Testing/Evaluation in Foreign Language Teaching to Preparing Exams in English Language Teaching was a main change. This course covered assessment types, principles, question formats, test construction, criteria, and analysis for various skills and ages. Reduced courses and the assessment focus signify consolidation of core teaching knowledge and skills.

Table 8. 2018 ELTEP Eight Term Course Plan

Code	Course Name	T	P	C	ECTS
FK	Teaching Practice 2	2	6	5	15
FK	Guidance in Schools	2	0	2	3

FK	Optional 6	2	0	2	4
FE	Optional 6	2	0	2	4
FE	Preparing Exams in English Language Teaching	3	0	3	4
	TOTAL	11	6	14	30

5.2. ELTEP 2018 Program evaluation

The study employed concurrent triangulation mixed method research design to explore Turkish teacher educators' reflections on ELTEP 2018. In concurrent designs, both qualitative and quantitative data are collected independently but simultaneously. The merging of these methods can occur at any research stage. Yin (2006) suggests purposeful and logical blending to avoid separate outcomes. Here, qualitative and quantitative data are sequentially collected but treated as parallel. After individual analysis, results are combined in the interpretation phase. This research aims to strengthen findings using both data types (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2012). Quantitative (Peacock's model-based questionnaire) and qualitative (semi-structured interview) data were sequentially collected and integrated in findings. This study aimed to address these research questions:

What are teacher educators' views on the new ELT teacher education program?

> ➤ Positive aspects identified?
>
> ➤ Negative aspects identified?

The study was conducted during the fall semester of the 2020-2021 Academic Year. To gather data from all state universities in Turkey, online surveys and interviews were carried out using Google Form and various instant messaging apps for the convenience of participants. A total of 437 academic individuals, including Professor Doctors, Associate Professors, Assistant Professors, Lecturers, and Research Assistants from English language teaching departments in state universities across Turkey, were invited to participate via email. Eventually, 80 academicians agreed to partake in the study. Detailed participant information is provided below.

Table 9. *Characteristics of the Participants*

According to Academic Title	Number (n/N)	Percentage (%)
Professor Doctor	10	12,5
Associate Professor	11	13,8
Assistant Professor	38	47,5
Lecturer	11	13,7
Research Assistant	10	12,5
According to Years in Profession		
1-5	4	5
5-10	26	32,5
10-15	13	16,2
15-20	5	6,3

20 and more	32	40
According to Age		
24-32	18	22,5
32-40	23	28,7
40-48	17	21,3
48-56	13	16,2
56 and more	9	11,3
According to Gender		
Female	49	61,3
Male	30	37,5
Prefer not to say	1	1,2

Among the 80 participants, 20 voluntarily provided additional comments in response to an open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire. Additionally, 6 out of the 80 participants agreed to be interviewed at a later time for their convenience. These semi-structured interviews were conducted with 2 professor doctors, 1 associate professor, and 3 assistant professors. The interviews took place online using participants' preferred communication applications. Initially, participants were informed about the study's purpose and ethical considerations. Subsequently, each participant responded to predetermined interview questions, with follow-up questions used to delve deeper into their responses. Interview durations ranged from 20 to 30 minutes, conducted in either Turkish or English. To ensure a comfortable environment for participants, all interviews were audio recorded, eliminating the need for note-taking. Following the interviews, the researcher transcribed and translated the content.

Peacock's survey was developed with the primary objective of identifying aspects of teacher education programs in need of enhancement or retention, as perceived by teacher educators within English language teacher education departments. Given the relatively limited popularity of teacher education, the need for consistent internal assessment within such programs is essential. Peacock (2009) created this survey based on the concept of program evaluation – the collection, analysis, and interpretation of information.

To evaluate programs based on desired outcomes, Peacock (2009) established a method by extracting relevant questions from literature. The procedure (Peacock, 2009) involves the following steps:

➢ Literature review to generate questions

➢ Identification of suitable data sources

➢ Design of data collection methods and tools

➢ Collection and analysis of each data set according to the questions

➢ Construction of a comprehensive account by connecting interpretations

To verify these evaluation steps, Peacock tested their effectiveness by assessing a TEFL program with program participants – students and teachers from the BA in TEFL in Hong Kong. The questions applied to evaluate the TEFL program include:

➢ Does the program have a clearly stated philosophy?

➢ Does it reflect the program's philosophy?

➢ Does it encourage flexibility in using diverse teaching approaches?

➢ Does it foster the ability to use and adapt foreign language teaching materials?

➢ Does it balance received and experiential knowledge?

➢ Does it incorporate and encourage reflection on experiences and values, including the 'apprenticeship of observation'?

➢ Does it promote the skill of self-evaluation and reflection as a teacher?

➢ Does it encourage future reflective practice?

➢ Does it emphasize long-term, developmental learning to teach, promoting post-qualification growth?

➢ Does it ensure coherence among courses and prevent overlaps?

➢ Does it balance teacher- and student-centered learning?

➢ Does it prepare EFL teachers for their sociocultural working context?

➢ Does it strike a balance between linguistic, pedagogic, and managerial competence, with linguistic competence encompassing L2 proficiency and pedagogic competence referring to teaching skills and language knowledge?

➢ Is the program up-to-date?

➢ Do students believe the program addresses their needs and prepares them for classroom teaching?

Peacock's (2009) assessment tools had a significant impact and were employed in three other studies within the Turkish context (Coşkun & Daloğlu 2010; Demir, 2015; Salihoğlu, 2012). The questionnaire used in the current study was adapted from Coşkun and Daloğlu's (2010) study. Quantitative data underwent descriptive analysis, a process involving data simplification (Loeb et al., 2017). The data collected via questionnaires were analyzed using Google Office Suite applications to determine frequencies and percentages. The presentation focused solely on frequencies and percentages associated with questionnaire items, aligning with the practice of using responses from the majority for generalization purposes in descriptive data presentation. Each Likert-type item from the questionnaire was individually presented. For robust descriptive analysis, utilizing low-inference and low-assumption methods that require minimal statistical adjustments is crucial (Romero & Ventura, 2013). As a result, the dataset is free from any missing or excluded values.

Content analysis was employed to analyze the data gathered from interviews. Content analysis is the method of systematically and objectively identifying special attributes of messages for the purpose of making inferences. Content analysis serves as a research tool used to categorize particular phrases, arguments, or perspectives within specific qualitative data. Through content analysis, researchers can quantify and examine the meanings and relationships conveyed by specific words, themes, or concepts. This method can be applied to various sources of data, such as interviews, open-ended questions, field research notes, conversations, or any form of communicative language (Neuendorf, 2016).

5.2.1. Positive perspectives about the program

Table 10 shows the items that received more positive feedback than negative or neutral. To clearly demonstrate the results, strongly disagree and disagree responses were combined into a Negative category, while strongly agree and agree were combined into a Positive category.

Table 10. The items that gathered more positive responses

Items	Given statement in the questionnaire	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Item 6	The program is up-to-date.	32,6%	26,3%	41,3%
Item 14	The program teaches student teachers how to use foreign language teaching materials.	22,6%	28,7%	48,8%
Item 15	The program teaches student teachers how to adapt foreign language teaching materials.	28,8%	28,7%	42,5%
Item 17	The program teaches student teachers foreign language testing and evaluation skills.	25,1%	32,5%	42,6%
Item 23	The program has courses on contemporary issues in English (e.g ELF, Global English).	26,3%	26,3%	47,5%

It is evident from the table that despite a majority of respondents disagreeing that the program is up-to-date (32.6%), more still agreed that it is (41.3%). Nearly half responded positively that the program teaches how to use (48.8%) and adapt (42.5%) foreign language materials. Similarly, 42.6% agreed the program covers foreign language testing/evaluation skills. Finally, 47.5% felt the program includes courses on contemporary English issues like ELF and Global English. Although opinion was mixed, more teacher educators expressed positive views on the program teaching key competencies like materials use, adaptation, assessment, and addressing contemporary topics.

These issues were further discussed in the interviews. For instance, one teacher educator was very positive about the reduction of course hours in the 2018 ELTEP. His argument drew on the idea that the new generation cannot sustain their span of attention for a long time.

> **TE1:** …decreasing course time is something good since it is hard to have long time courses with new generation students…

A few teacher educators expressed their objection to separating the ELT programs for age groups, supporting the unified structure of the 2018 ELTEP.

> **TE5:** I don't think we need a separation in English language teaching. It does not matter which grade they will teach because we always return to the beginning. We always teach at elementary or intermediate levels. No-one can reach to advance level. In terms of different age groups, we can handle this difference in micro-teachings in methodology courses.

When it comes to issues, such as learner autonomy and reflective thinking, some teacher educators noted that the development of such skills is the responsibility of student teachers rather than the program itself.

> **TE1:** Students should say "I want to be a good teacher. This is my responsibility. I should be able to do this." by themselves. It is not just depending on the program.

> **TE6:** Students are not autonomous… not everything is up to program

Some teacher educators seemed to be content with the *high number of elective courses*, especially on contemporary issues, such as World Englishes and Culture and Pragmatics, in the program. However, they warned that it is only favorable if the department has adequate number of teaching staff willing to offer these elective courses.

> **TE1:** Having so many elective courses in the program can be something good for departments which have a plenty number of academicians but otherwise lecturers might experience rough times while trying to catch up more than one course.

5.2.2. Negative perspectives about the program

Table 11 below displays items that received more negative responses than positive or neutral. To clearly present the results, strongly disagree and disagree responses were combined into a Negative category, while strongly agree and agree were combined into a Positive category. Further analysis of each item is provided below.

Table 11. The items that gathered more negative responses

Items	Given statement in the questionnaire	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Item 3	The program gives students adequate training in English	%53,8	%25	%21,2
Item 4	The program gives students adequate training in teaching skills	%42,6	%26,3	%31,1
Item 5	The program gives students adequate training for the needs of the local context (Turkey)	%50	%33,8	%16,2
Item 7	The program encourages students to reflect on their past experiences as a language learner	%41,2	%36,3	%22,5
Item 8	The program encourages students to be reflective teacher (when they start teaching)	%45	%30	%25
Item 9	The program promotes flexibility in using different teaching practices for different situations	%38,8	%27,5	%33,8

Item 12	The program teaches students how to evaluate themselves as a teacher	%46,3	%40	%13,8
Item 13	The program teaches students classroom management skills	%38,8	%31,3	%30,1
Item 16	The program increases students' power of self-evaluation	%50	%37,5	%12,5
Item 18	The program is relevant to students' needs	%43,8	%26,2	%30
Item 19	The program has a good balance between the teaching of English, teaching skills, and classroom management skills	%43,8	%28,7	%27,6
Item 21	The program meets students' needs	%45,1	%33,8	%21,3
Item 22	The program prepares students to teach English at different levels of education. (Primary, secondary, and high school)	%47,6	%25	%27,4
Item 24	The practicum component of the program is sufficient for training students to teach English in schools	%48,8	%23,8	%27,6
Item 25	By the end of this program, students will be ready to teach English	%41,3	%35	%23,8

Table 11 shows several items received more negative than positive or neutral responses. Over half of the respondents disagreed that the program provides adequate English training (53.8%). Many also disagreed that it adequately covers teaching skills (42.6%), local context needs (50%), reflection as a language learner (41.2%), reflection as a teacher (45%), flexibility (38.8%), self-evaluation (46.3%), classroom management (38.8%), self-evaluation abilities (50%), relevance (43.8%), balance (43.8%), meeting student needs (45.1%), teaching at different levels (47.6%), sufficient practicum (48.8%), and readiness to teach (41.3%). The predominant disagreement across these items indicates that many teacher educators felt the program does not sufficiently develop key competencies like reflection, flexibility, classroom skills, localized training, and practicum experience.

The analysis of the interviews indicates that nearly all teacher educators expressed negative views towards ELTEP 2018. The majority of the teacher educators complained that the program is not relevant to their own needs nor student teachers' needs, due to *the lack of a needs analysis phase* at the outset.

> **TE2:** … I was invited the first leg of the seminars but we didn't report such things we didn't demand such things. Outcome is not in the way we desired…

> **TE4:** …We don't know who puts the courses in the curriculum… have they performed a need analysis? Does it make sense to change a curriculum depending on two people's thoughts? …

Reduced course hours in the program were the most common complaint about the new program, with nearly all interviewed teacher educators commenting negatively except one. The main issue raised was not having adequate time to cover course content in sufficient detail.

> **TE5:** …we need more class hours but this program does the opposite. All courses are two hours now. it is like coming to class and saying hello then good bye. No time for warm-up or activities…

> **TE19:** The class hours allocated for the courses offered are too limited to cover the course content.

Slightly over half of the interviewed teacher educators who provided additional details agreed that the content of some courses includes *unnecessary knowledge* that does not benefit student teachers.

> **TE1:** … it is such a waste of time in our department to have literature classes for the sake of literature. I mean starting from old English period and talking about sagas is something not useful. Maybe it can be like using texts for international communication…

> **TE4:** …Students are being filled with plenty of unnecessary information. Everything is theoretical. In the current program in contextual grammar (structure of English) course students learn terminologies such as ellipsis or parallelism, actually memorise, but they don't know how to create a if-clause sentence…

Student teachers in English language teaching departments can be appointed as teachers in primary, secondary or high schools in Turkey by passing an exam administered by the HEC. When asked about this *unified structure of the program*, the majority of teacher educators stated there should be separate training programs.

> **TE3:** The program is not capable of preparing students for teaching at different age groups. For example, there is a course under the name of teaching English to young learners but there is not a course for adult teaching, disadvantaged group teaching and multicultural-multilingual classes teaching.

> **TE9:** It can be better if it is separated. Adult teaching is really different compared to young learns. There is an inclination towards young learner teaching but adults and adolescences are totally neglected.

In Türkiye, student teachers must pass an exam assessing grammar, vocabulary, and reading to enroll in a university department. Because listening, writing, and speaking skills are not tested, students often do not prioritize developing these skills when preparing for the exam. All interviewed teacher educators complained about *how these skills are addressed* in the program.

> **TE6:** …how can students practice English if they do not have a chance to do so…

> **TE11:** The proportion of field-specific courses are largely reduced in the overall programme which eventually has a negative impact on student teachers' both language and professional competency-building processes

> **TE17:** The ELT program imposed on 2018-2019 academic year did not offer adequate time (class hours) to teach four language skills, thus, students will not have a chance to improve their language skills.

> **TE21:** The program assumes that teacher trainees have got a good command of English… But we cannot blame it for those trainees whose English is not up to par.

Given its crucial role within the educational setting, *instructional materials* have garnered significant significance in the realm of education. Below are the viewpoints of teacher educators regarding the approach to material development within the program.

> **TE5:** There is no detailed explanation and commands for this course… it is so rounded and dependent on educators.

> **TE7:** Reduced course hours created a disadvantage by making content simpler and superficial. We can't demand creative things from students. I also bring simpler materials in my other courses because proficiency of my students is not enough to comprehend complex materials.

> **TE11:** The program is too loose on covering that area. If educator is talented, there can be so many good outcomes otherwise it would be a disaster.

While *reflective teaching* is a sought-after concept in educational institutions, there exists a lack of consensus among teacher educators regarding its inclusion in the pre-service teacher education stage. A portion of teacher educators argue against its incorporation as a standalone course, advocating instead for its gradual integration across multiple courses. Conversely, a notable group of teacher educators asserts that reflective teaching should be formally integrated into the curriculum as a dedicated course, aiming to cultivate awareness and understanding among prospective educators.

> **TE1:** Students should say "I want to be a good teacher. This is my responsibility. I should be able to do this." by themselves. It is not just depending on the program.

> **TE2:** It is up to teacher educators in a way because not everything is related to program.

> **TE3:** How much are our teacher educators in universities or teachers in schools ready for this kind of teaching? They go to classroom and say "it is like that, that is like this" … today's students do not need knowledge. Knowledge is everywhere. What is important is to make them use the knowledge and field-specific courses should let this happen.

> **TE6:** Students are not autonomous… not everything is up to program

> **TE8:** New trends such as teacher autonomy, technology use, etc. should be included in the program.

ELTEP 2018 provides a range of *elective courses* within a selection pool, allowing students to choose based on their preferences following the first year. However, two primary concerns regarding the presentation of these elective courses have been raised, posing significant challenges according to statements from teacher educators. The initial major grievance pertains to the scarcity of academic personnel within departments, leading to difficulties in conducting impactful elective courses. The second concern revolves around the preparedness of student

teachers, as certain courses offered in the second year are considered too advanced for their current level of readiness.

> **TE4:** Actually, elective courses are really important but we don't know who teaches these courses and what they do. There are fancy names here and there like "reading media content" but no-one knows what is going in classrooms

> **TE5:** We couldn't offer most of the elective courses in our department because of lacking number of stuff members. Ours were like "compulsory elective courses" but if we had enough academicians, it would be good.

> **TE11:** Many core subjects are currently offered as electives, which means they can be taken at a stage of their training. This also makes it hard to build links between courses and also to achieve a staged and balanced progression of theory and practice

A number of teacher educators expressed the view that an ELTEP should include a dedicated course addressing Professional Development matters. They highlighted that within the student body, there are individuals whose enrollment in the department is influenced by external pressures from family members. This lack of intrinsic understanding about the gravity of the teaching profession has been observed to yield detrimental outcomes within the realm of education. To avert such challenges, these educators emphasized the necessity of acquainting student teachers with a comprehensive understanding of their professional identity, thereby mitigating potential issues and fostering a more informed approach to their teaching careers.

> **TE4:** I totally would like to see a course about Professional Development in English language teaching education program

> **TE5:** There is a need for a course about Professional Development. Our students seek for opportunities for personal development or professional development after their graduation

Türkiye, with its expansive geographical expanse, stands as a substantial nation in global comparison. Despite its efforts to implement a centralized education system uniformly across all regions, certain deficiencies persist in various parts of the country. When teacher educators were queried about strategies to address these challenges within the pre-service education phase, their responses coalesced into two main approaches. The first approach involves the incorporation of dedicated courses specifically addressing the unique issues faced in distinct locales. The second approach suggests the integration of discussions on these regional challenges within existing courses, albeit indirectly.

> **TE1:** Education is very idealized in our classrooms. Everyone is motivated and happy. But for instance, classes in south-eastern part of Turkey are very crowded so student teachers should take an education considering these facts…

> **TE2:** … As you know there is no local concerns in the program. It is mostly projecting conceptual knowledge from U.S. … we should deal with regional differences… now we have refugees in our classrooms…Here we send them to the schools that have ideal environment. I mean, not crowded, at the city center, everything is easy peasy…

> **TE4:** Specifically, when they are appointed to schools during practicum stage, we shouldn't appoint them to qualified schools all the time. They can even go to a village school, if there is a chance…

Establishing *strong interconnections among program courses* emerged as a highly endorsed aspect among teacher educators. When queried about this matter, their responses clustered into two primary categories. The first category pertains to courses lacking proper linkage, leading to a disjointed learning experience. The second category involves the repetition of knowledge across different courses, which could potentially impede the depth of understanding and progression.

> **TE4:** We offer courses separated from each other in one, two or three terms. There is no connection between them but there must be.

> **TE11:** It is like repeating same things again and again… Turkish and English courses have same content most of the time…but it is related to field itself because it is relatively new compared to others field like philosophy.

Among the notable criticisms directed towards the published ELTEP in 2018, the *elimination of practical courses* stands as one of the two prominent concerns, the other being *the reduction in course hours*. Teacher educators further advocate for an augmentation of school-based practicum experiences, reflecting their belief that hands-on teaching practice within actual educational settings should be enhanced.

> **TE3:** School experience course should be also added inside third grades both terms. Along with fourth year's first term in total 3 terms they can observe different age groups; primary school education, secondary school and high school.

> **TE5:** Abolishment of practice hours is the most significant negative side of this program. Every course is theoretical. There is no application until fourth grade.

> **TE9:** The new program seems to fail giving practice opportunities in many courses.

> **TE14:** The hours for practical courses (i.e., Teaching English Language Skills) are less compared to the previous program.

Several teacher educators noted that certain prestigious universities in Turkey are able to deliver all their courses in English. However, they recognize that replicating this approach within their own departments is not feasible. For smaller-scale departments, it is crucial to offer a greater

number of courses in English, particularly those related to ELT. This emphasis on English-medium courses is paramount as it represents the primary opportunity for student teachers to be consistently immersed in the language.

> **TE14:** The program needs to focus more on ELT-related courses. More courses are available in Turkish language. The areas need to be revised in favor of English Language Teaching related course offerings

> **TE8:** New program is full of Turkish educational courses rather than English ones. More time should be devoted to English language teaching. Most of our students complained about little time for the intensive content of ELT.

5.2.3. Neutral views

Table 12 displays items that received more neutral responses than positive or negative. To clearly show the results, strongly disagree and disagree responses were combined as Negative, while strongly agree and agree were combined as Positive.

Table 12. The items that gathered more neutral responses

Items	Given statement in the questionnaire	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Item 1	The program has good linkage between different courses	%26,3	%41,3	%32,4
Item 2	The program avoids overlapping information between different courses	%28,7	%38,8	%32,5
Item 10	The program balances teacher-centred and student-centred learning on its courses	%35,1	%40	%24,9
Item 11	The program teaches students how to teach English	%23,7	%38,8	%37,4
Item 20	The program prepares students to teach English in the classroom	%35	%30	%35

It is evident from the table that over 40% were neutral on whether the program has good course linkage (41.3%) and avoids overlapping information (38.8%). Respondents were also largely split on if the program balances teacher- vs student-centered learning (40% neutral) and prepares for classroom teaching (30% neutral). The high neutral ratings indicate uncertainty among teacher educators regarding how well the program aligns and sequences courses, provides coherent information, incorporates varied teaching approaches, and prepares students for classrooms.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to reveal teacher educators' perspectives on the 2018 ELTEP mandated by the HEC. The quantitative results showed that educators were largely dissatisfied, indicating

implementers are unhappy with the mandated program. The high percentage of neutral questionnaire responses also suggests divided opinions and gaps in the new program.

Regarding positives, around half viewed the program as up-to-date, likely due to new elective courses on contemporary issues like World Englishes. This aligns with calls to incorporate sociolinguistics in teacher training (e.g. Bayyurt & Akcan, 2016; Karakaş & Boonsuk, 2020). Many also agreed that the program teaches materials use, adaptation, and assessment skills. This echoes past student teacher feedback (e.g. Coşkun & Daloğlu, 2010; Demir, 2015; Yavuz & Topkaya, 2013) and highlights the need for modern evaluation methods (Kırkgöz, 2016; Akcan, 2005).

However, there were few positive open-ended or interview comments. One stated the program assumes adequate English proficiency, while another felt reduced hours suit shorter student attention spans, supporting learner-centeredness. Unlike this study, previous research often regarded reduced hours negatively, especially for language skills, thinking, research, and teaching practice (e.g. Coşgun-Ögeyik, 2009; Hişmanoğlu, 2012; Yavuz & Topkaya, 2013).

Participants held largely negative perspectives, disagreeing with 15 of 25 questionnaire items. Most critically, 58.3% felt the program does not sufficiently develop student teachers' skills, explaining why many do not believe that students will be fully ready to teach by completion (41.3%). This reflects reduced language course hours, negatively impacting development (42.6%) as prior research also found (Karakaş, 2012; Karakaş & Yavuz, 2018; Yavuz & Topkaya, 2013). Many (47.6%) agreed the program does not prepare teaching across levels, as courses are imbalanced with decreased language/field credits but increased pedagogical/cultural credits. Consequently, many saw the program as irrelevant to student (43.8%) and local (50%) needs, since English courses comprise less than 50% of total courses, reducing exposure versus previously. This lack of balance was felt to hinder using varied teaching practices (38.8%). The teaching practice component was deemed weakest, limited to one final year, likely because practical application is lacking (Seferoğlu, 2006) and the program adheres to an applied science model (Ur, 1992; Wallace, 1991). Reflective skills development was also viewed inadequately, not preparing reflective teachers (45%), building self-evaluation (46.3%), or reflecting on past learning (41.2%). As in Hişmanoğlu (2012), higher thinking skills are not strongly cultivated. In summary, teacher educators criticized reduced practical components, course balance and sequencing, hours, and reflective skills training, desiring improvements in these areas.

The findings of the study on teacher educators' perspectives on the ELTEP also offers several implications. They can be listed as follows:

- ➤ Teacher trainers should help develop programs, providing practical knowledge.

- ➤ Skills course credits/hours should increase in year one, as student English levels vary.

- ➤ More practical courses and expanded teaching practice are needed, versus just the final year.

- ➤ Courses should prepare teachers for all education levels.

- ➤ Higher thinking and reflection should be integrated throughout the program.

- ➤ More practical and reflective models should replace the theoretical, knowledge-first model.

In summary, teacher trainers advocate for more practical training, skills development, teaching practice, critical thinking cultivation, and reflective models in redesigning the teacher preparation program.

REFERENCES

Akcan, S. (2005). An alternative approach to preservice EFL teacher education in Turkey: A focus on learner autonomy and creativity. *Bogazici University Journal of Education, 22*(1), 1-13.

Arıkan, A. (2010). Effective English language teacher from the perspectives of prospective and in-service teachers in Turkey. *Electronic Journal of Social Science*, *9*, 209–223.

ASCCC.org. (2018). *The course outline of record: A curriculum reference guide.* Academic Senate for California Community Colleges. https://asccc.org/sites/default/files/COR_0.pdf

Aydoğan, İ., & Çilsal, Z. (2007). Yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin yetiştirilme süreci (Türkiye ve diğer ülkeler). *Erciyes Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, *22*(1), 179-197.

Bayyurt, Y., & Akcan, S. (2016). *Current perspectives on pedagogy for English as a lingua franca*. De Gruyter Mouton.

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. Continuum.

Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived characteristics of the effective language teacher. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*(2), 125-136.

Buczynski, S., & Hansen, C. B. (2010). Impact of professional development on teacher practice: Uncovering connections. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(3), 599-607.

Calabria, F. M. (1960). Characteristics of the effective teacher based on pupil evaluations. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, *46*, 185-202.

Canagarajah, S. (2006). Changing communicative needs, revised assessment objectives: Testing English as an international language. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *3*(3), 229-242.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. L. (1999). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities. *Review of Research in Education*, *24*(1), 249-305.

Coşgun-Ögeyik, M. (2009). Evaluation of English language teaching education curriculum by student teachers. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *10*(3), 1-15.

Coşkun, A., & Daloğlu, A. (2010). Evaluating an English language teacher education program through Peacock's model. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *35*(6), 24-42.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-century teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *57*(3), 300-314.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (Eds.). (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. John Wiley & Sons.

Demir, C. (2015). A study on the 4th grade English language teaching undergraduate students' views on the practicum course in terms of various variables. *Educational Process: International Journal*, *4*(1-2), 7-26.

Desimone, L. M. (2009). Improving impact studies of teachers' professional development: Toward better conceptualizations and measures. *Educational Researcher*, *38*(3), 181-199.

Desimone, L.M., Porter, A.C., Garet, M.S., Yoon, K.S., & Birman, B.F. (2002). Effects of professional development on teachers' instruction: Results from a three-year longitudinal study. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, *24*(2), 81-112.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think*. DC Heath.

Dinçer, A., Göksu, A., Takkaç, A., & Yazıcı, M. (2013). Common characteristics of an effective English language teacher. *International Journal of Educational Researchers*, *4*(3), 1–8.

Edmonds, W. A., & Kennedy, T. D. (2012). *An applied reference guide to research designs: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. Sage Publications.

Feldman, K. A. (1976). Grades and college students' evaluations of their courses and teachers. *Research in Higher Education*, *4*(1), 69-111.

Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher training, development, and decision making: A model of teaching and related strategies for language teacher education. *TESOL quarterly*, *23*(1), 27-45.

Freeman, D. (2001). Second language teacher education. In Carter, R. & Nunan, D. (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 72-79). Cambridge University Press.

Grossman, P. L. (1990). T*he making of a teacher: Teacher knowledge and teacher education*. Teachers College Press.

Gulamhussein, A. (2013). *Teaching the teachers: Effective professional development in an era of high stakes accountability*. Center for Public Education.

Hall, G. (2018). *Exploring English language teaching: Language in action*. Routledge.

Head, K., & Taylor, P. (1997). *Readings in teacher development*. Macmillan Education.

Hişmanoğlu, M. (2012). English language teaching candidates' attitudes towards ELT department curriculum at Uludağ University. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *46*, 3434-3438.

Ingvarson, L., Schwille, J., Tatto, M. T., Rowley, G., Peck, R., & Senk, S. L. (2013). *An analysis of teacher education context, structure, and quality-assurance arrangements in TEDS-M countries: Findings from the IEA Teacher Education and Development Study in Mathematics (TEDS-M).* International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.

Kachru, B. B. (1992). *Teaching World Englishes. The other tongue: English across cultures*. University of Illinois Press

Kachru, B. B., & Nelson, C. L. (2006). *World Englishes in Asian contexts* (Vol. 5). Hong Kong University Press.

Kalebic, S. K. (2005). *Towards the development of standards in foreign language teacher preparation*. Paper presented at the Conference Improving Foreign Language Teaching: Towards a European Framework for Teacher Education, Ljubljana, Slovenia, May (pp. 6-7).

Karakaş, A. (2012). Evaluation of the English language teacher education program in Turkey. ELT Weekly, 4(15), 1-16.

Karakaş, A., & Yavuz, E. (2018). A Comparative Analysis of English Language Teacher Education Programs in Turkey and Malaysia. *Cumhuriyet International Journal of Education*, *7*(3), 287–306.

Kennedy, A. (2005). Models of continuing professional development: a framework for analysis. *Journal of In-service Education*, *3*1(2), 235-250.

Kennedy, A. (2014). Understanding continuing professional development: the need for theory to impact on policy and practice. *Professional Development in Education*, *40*(5), 688-697.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2016). Türkiye'de yabancı dil eğitim politikaları ve müfredat programı. In S. Akcay & Y. Bayburt (Eds.), *Türkiye'deki yabancı dil eğitimi üzerine görüş ve düşünceler* (pp. 45–59). İstanbul: Boğaziçi University Press.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). *World Englishes: Implications for international communication and English language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Loeb, S., Dynarski, S., Mcfarland, D., Morris, P., Reardon, S., & Reber, S. (2017). *Descriptive analysis in education: A guide for researchers.* Washington: National Center on Education.

Lynch, R. (2006). Professional development. In V. Anfara & N. Mertz (Eds.), *Theoretical frameworks in qualitative research* (pp. 1-20). SAGE Publications.

Medgyes, P., & Ryan, C. (1996). The integration of academic writing skills with other curriculum components in teacher education. *System*, *24*(3), 361–373.

Neuendorf, K. A. (2016). *The content analysis guidebook (2nd ed.).* Thousandoak, CA: Sage Publications.

Pasternak, M., & Bailey, K. M. (2004). Preparing nonnative and native English-speaking teachers: Issues of professionalism and proficiency. Teacher learning in language teaching, In L. D. Kamhi-Stein (Ed.), *Learning and Teaching Experiences* (pp. 155-175). University of Michigan Press.

Peacock, M. (2009). The evaluation of foreign-language-teacher education programmes. *Language Teaching Research, 13*(3), 259–278.

Romero, C., & Ventura, S. (2013). Data mining in education. *Discovery, 3*(1), 12–27.

Salihoğlu, U. M. (2012). Pre-service teachers' and their instructors' beliefs on the effectiveness of an English language teacher education program. Social and Behavioural Sciences, 46, 3440–3444.

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. Basic Books.

Schwille, J., Dembélé, M., & Schubert, J. (2007). Global perspectives on teacher learning: Improving policy and practice. International Institute for Educational Planning.

Seferoğlu, G. (2006). Teacher candidates' reflections on some components of a pre-service English teacher education programme in Turkey. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *32*(4), 369-378.

Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Tercanlıoğlu, L. (2004). Achievement goal theory: a perspective on foreign-language-learners' motivation. *TESL Canada Journal*, *21*(2), 34.

Ur, P. (1992). Teacher learning. *ELT journal*, *46*(1), 56-61.

Vadillo, R. P. (1999). Language teaching and linguistic awareness. (Unpublished master's dissertation, University of Birmingham, UK).

Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003). *Teacher professional development: an international review of the literature*. International Institute for Educational Planning.

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge university press.

Worthen, B.R. (1990). Program evaluation. In H.J. Walberg & G.D. Haertel (Eds.), *The international encyclopedia of educational evaluation* (pp. 42-47). Pergamon Press.

Yaman, İ. (2018). The 2018 English curriculum for Turkish higher education: A preliminary review of changes and potential impact. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *14*(2), 255-269.

Yavuz, A., & Topkaya, E. Z. (2013). Teacher educators' evaluation of the English language teaching program: A Turkish case. *Novitas-ROYAL, 7*(1), 64-83.

Yin, R. K. (2006). Mixed methods research: Are the methods genuinely integrated or merely parallel?. *Research in the Schools, 13*(1), 41-47.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Lect. Ali ERSOY

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-8939-5210

ali.ersoy@agu.edu.tr

Kayseri Abdullah Gül University, School of Foreign Languages

Ali Ersoy graduated from Akdeniz University, Department of English Language Teaching. After graduation, he taught at the secondary and high school levels for several years. He completed his master's degree at Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Department of English Language Teaching. He is currently working as a lecturer at Abdullah Gül University School of Foreign Languages. He focuses his studies on linguistics and teaching programs.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-9790-8562

akarakas@mehmetakif.edu.tr

Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Department of Foreign Language Education

Ali Karakaş is currently working as an Associate Professor in the Department of English Language Teaching, Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur. He graduated from the English Language Teaching Department at Uludağ University, Bursa. He earned his PhD in Applied Linguistics from Southampton University, UK. He is also a postdoctoral member of the Centre for Global Englishes, Southampton University, UK. His main research interests include Global Englishes, English as a Lingua Franca, Language Policy and Planning, English-medium Instruction and Teacher Education. He has currently co-edited a book entitled English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education: Policy, Practice and Progress published by Springer.

CHAPTER 9: CALL FOR BUILDING INCLUSIVE PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCIES IN EFL TEACHER EDUCATION AMIDST GLOBAL AND LOCAL CHANGES

Ayfer SU-BERGİL iD

Abstract

The obligations and responsibilities of regular education teachers have experienced significant changes since the global paradigm shift from exclusive to inclusive education. Thus, inclusive pedagogical competencies that refer to the skills, knowledge, and attitudes of teachers to create a welcoming and supportive learning environment regarding the diverse needs of their students gained utmost importance in English language teacher education. Inclusive pedagogy in English language teaching recognizes the importance of valuing and respecting learners' diverse backgrounds, experiences, and abilities and aims to guarantee equitable access to education for every learner. In this aspect, this chapter attempts to offer a review on the research and practices of inclusive education in foreign language education by 1) explaining the content of inclusive education, 2) focusing on the inclusive pedagogical competencies of English as a foreign language teacher education, and 3) highlighting the inclusive education tendencies in recent past ELT(E)/EFL studies through document and thematic analysis methods. Last but not least, this chapter makes an effort to envisage the context of English language teacher education, basing the competencies of English language teachers on the principles of inclusive education, and calls for more research that will open the doors for everyone.

Keywords: Inclusive education, inclusive pedagogical competencies, EFL teacher competencies, inclusive education in ELT(E)/EFL

1. Introduction

In today's rapidly evolving world, characterized by increasing globalization and diverse cultural exchanges, the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching faces new challenges and opportunities. As educational systems adapt to the changing needs of learners, it becomes crucial to ensure that EFL teachers possess the necessary pedagogical competencies to create inclusive and empowering learning environments (Majoko, 2019).

The call to build inclusive pedagogical competencies in EFL teacher education arises from the recognition that education is not a one-size-fits-all concept (OECD, 2023). Students come from varied backgrounds, possess different learning styles, and have unique linguistic and cultural identities. As such, EFL teachers must be equipped with the skills and knowledge to effectively engage and support a diverse range of learners, fostering their linguistic, social, and emotional development.

This call is particularly significant amid the global and local changes that impact EFL teaching. Globalization has brought about increased migration, cultural diversity, and interconnectedness, resulting in classrooms that are more multicultural and multilingual than ever before. Rapid advancements in technology and the growing importance of digital literacy further add to the complexity of language teaching. These changes necessitate a paradigm shift in EFL teacher education, one that embraces inclusivity and prepares teachers to respond to their learners changing demands.

The purpose of this call is to emphasize the urgency of integrating inclusive pedagogical competencies into EFL teacher education programs. By doing so, we aim to empower EFL teachers to cultivate an environment that respects and celebrates diversity, facilitates effective language learning, and nurtures the holistic development of learners. This approach goes beyond the acquisition of linguistic skills, encompassing intercultural understanding, empathy, critical thinking, and the ability to adapt teaching strategies to meet individual student needs (Navarro Martell, 2022).

Through a comprehensive and interdisciplinary approach, EFL teacher education programs can equip teachers with the necessary tools to create inclusive and transformative learning experiences. This involves incorporating intercultural communication, anti-bias education, differentiated instruction, and culturally responsive teaching methods into the curriculum. By developing these competencies, EFL teachers will be better prepared to address the linguistic, cultural, and socio-emotional dimensions of language learning, thus promoting equitable educational opportunities for all students.

In conclusion, as the world becomes more interconnected and diverse, it is essential to prioritize the development of inclusive pedagogical competencies (Majoko, 2017; 2019; Pantić, 2015) in EFL teacher education. By acknowledging the global and local changes impacting language teaching and learning, we can foster a new generation of EFL teachers who are not only proficient in language instruction but also skilled in creating inclusive and empowering

educational environments. This call invites educational institutions, policymakers, and EFL professionals to collaborate and invest in teacher education programs that embrace inclusivity, ensuring that every learner can thrive and succeed in the dynamic landscape of language education (Navarro Martell, 2022).

2. The Concepts of Inclusion and Inclusive Education

Inclusion and inclusive education are concepts that revolve around creating equitable and supportive learning settings that accommodate all learners' varying demands, regardless of their abilities, backgrounds, or identities. These concepts aim to ensure that every student, including those with disabilities, cultural differences, or other unique characteristics, is provided with equal opportunities to participate, learn, and succeed within the educational setting (UNICEF, 2017, 2020).

Inclusion goes beyond mere physical presence in the classroom. It emphasizes the active engagement and full participation of all students in educational activities, social interactions, and the overall school community (Stubbs, 2008). Inclusive education recognizes and values the individual strengths, abilities, and potential of each student, while also acknowledging and addressing their specific challenges or barriers to learning.

At its core, inclusion is a mindset and a guiding principle that permeates all aspects of education. It promotes the belief that diversity should be celebrated, and that differences in abilities, backgrounds, and identities should not be seen as obstacles but rather as valuable resources for learning and growth. Inclusive education seeks to foster a sense of community, acceptance, and respect for every student, fostering a positive and supportive learning environment (UNICEF, 2017; 2020; OECD, 2010; 2023).

Woodcock et al. (2022) claimed that to achieve inclusion, educational practices and policies need to be created and put into practice in a way that accommodates the diverse learning needs of students. This involves providing appropriate instructional strategies, support services, and resources to enable students to access the curriculum, participate meaningfully, and achieve their full potential. Inclusive education also involves collaboration among teachers, support staff, parents, and the wider community to ensure the provision of a holistic and inclusive educational experience.

In summary, inclusion and inclusive education embody the principles of equity, respect, and equal opportunities for all learners. They recognize and embrace the diversity and unique characteristics of learners, while promoting a supportive and inclusive learning environment where every student can thrive, learn, and contribute to the best of their abilities.

3. The History of Inclusive Education

It is stated that the basis of inclusive education is founded on the research conducted in the 1800s on special learning disabilities (Hornby, 2014). It is reported that in the classrooms where inclusive education takes place, both the special education teachers and the teachers who teach in the regular classrooms share the responsibilities, as well as the creation of an environment where the needs of the learners are met, and the goals that are aimed to be gained by the students of the same age with the individualized education program are similar (Causton & Tracy-Bronson, 2015). It is stated that in the last 30 years, practices, and policies towards special education, especially in pre-school special classes, have encountered an alternative method, which is described as an inclusive education approach (Hornby, 2014). The World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality, which evaluated policies for all children with 25 international organizations and more than 300 participants, was held in Salamanca, Spain, in 1991. It was based on the premise that education is a fair and equal fundamental human right. In schools, the understanding of serving individuals with special needs is emphasized (UNESCO, 2009).

In the beginning, it was argued that individuals with special needs should receive boarding education in separate, private schools opened for them, and it is stated that an application was carried out that caused these individuals to stay away from the society. It is reported that individuals with special needs began to receive education at the secondary level in the 1930s, and since the second half of the 20th century, special classes were opened in order for individuals with these characteristics to receive education without being kept away from the society, and then they were placed in schools where general education was carried out close to their home (Çitil, 2012). Causton and Tracy-Bronson (2015) state that individuals with disabilities did not have the right to education before 1975, and the costs of educational areas were covered by their families. Causton and Tracy-Bronson (2015) also identified the 'All Children with Disabilities Act (PL 94-142)' of 1975 regarding the amendments to special education and the 'No Child Left Behind (NCLB)' of 2001 for Primary and Secondary Education. It draws attention to the steps taken for individuals with disabilities by the Act (PL 107-110). Causton and Tracy-Bronson (2015) underline that individuals started to receive education in state

institutions by protecting their legal rights with the law in 1975, and they report that with the increase in the participation of disabled individuals in the education process in normal classrooms in the 1990s, the responsibilities of teachers were shaped accordingly, and they were frequently included in the public opinion. In addition, with the law in 2001, the education standards of all students, especially those with disabilities, were determined. UNESCO (2009) states that inclusive education can be achieved by making education in ordinary schools more inclusive for all children and can be more productive without discrimination. In this context, UNESCO (2009) lists some organizations that support inclusive education as follows:

- 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- 1952 European Convention on Human Rights
- 1960 Convention Against Discrimination in Education
- 1965 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
- 1966 UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- 1971 UN Declaration of the Rights of Persons with Intellectual Disabilities
- 1975 UN Declaration on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
- 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
- 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
- 1990 International Convention for the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families.
- 1993 Standard Rules for Equal Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities
- 1994 Salamanca Declaration and Action Plan
- 1999 Convention on the Prohibition and Immediate Action to Eliminate the Worst Forms of Child Labor
- 2000 World Education Forum, Dakar
- 2005 Convention on the Protection and Promotion of Diversity in Cultural Expressions
- 2006 UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
- 2007 United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples 2010-220 European Union Disability Strategy

Figure 1. Legal frameworks supporting inclusive education (UNESCO, 2009)

The history of inclusive education dates back to ancient times and the history of inclusive education can be evaluated in dimensions based on historical processes occurring in the world and in our country. It is stated that inclusive education in our country dates back to the Ottoman period and the roots of special education services were also realized in this period (Çakıroğlu, 2016). It is stated that in this period, special education institutions were in Enderun schools and

gifted students were included in these institutions. They were the first samples of systematic education in the world, and the studies on gifted students were carried out for the first time in Turks in the 14th century (Çitil, 2012). In addition to this, Çitil (2012) states that the formal education of special education students with different characteristics began in the 17th and 18th centuries, and that the first private education institution implemented in the Ottoman period, the Mute School, which was opened in 1889, was for the deaf and dumb. Çakıroğlu (2016) reports that the İdil Biret Suna Kan Law (Wonderful Children Law) was passed in 1948 to protect the rights of gifted students during the Republican era.

Researchers state that there are some laws and regulations for students who need special education in the 1980s (Çakıroğlu, 2017; Diken & Batu, 2010). In this context, Çakıroğlu (2017) states that the first regulation on special education services dates back to 1960. The Law No. 2916 on Children in Need of Special Education took place in 1983 and that there are definitions, principles, institutions, and duties for special education in this law, and regulations are published for the identification of students with special needs, their proper placement and follow-up.

It is reported in the sources that the Decree No. 573, published in 1997, contains regulations on the general objectives of national education for students in need of special education and the use of their right to receive general education and vocational education for this purpose (Çakıroğlu, 2017). Cavkaytar (2015) reported that changes were made in 'Disabled Persons and Some Laws and Decrees' in 2005 regarding students with special needs. In addition, with Law No. 5378, it was emphasized that people with special needs should exist not only in a single area but also in the social area.

Since opening its borders, our nation has welcomed many foreign nationals and taken them under its protection. These people are primarily included in education, and foreigners in schools are not indifferent to this bad situation that humanity is experiencing. Recent internal and external wars in various countries have caused people to migrate to different countries. It is known that it necessitates the creation and implementation of more inclusive approaches in order to ensure the active participation of nationals in education.

It is stated that the legislation for the education of students with special needs is comprehensively regulated in our country, but there is no regulation regarding inclusive education in terms of gender, religion, language, origin, and social economy (ERG, 2017). In addition, it is reported that inclusive education in our country is understood as the integration

and education of individuals with disabilities and special needs in general education schools who have been diagnosed for a long time (Sakız, 2015).

ERG and UNICEF worked on inclusive education in our country in 2014-2015, and according to the results of the internationally applied experience, according to the results of the study, it is aimed to raise awareness and inform teachers, students and parents about the spread and sustainability of the inclusive education approach; renewal of curricula, materials that can be used in practice, in a way that supports teaching. It is emphasized that educational design for teachers and the implementation of these designs should be taken (ERG, 2016). With these aspects, it is useful to examine the views on the basis, resources, and systems of the inclusive education approach. Below are the explanations of basic concepts according to Stubbs (2008, p. 40):

Concepts for students	Education system and concepts for schools
•Education is the fundamental right of all individuals. • Learning begins with the birth of the individual and continues throughout life. • All children have the right to receive education in their community. • Every child can learn but may experience difficulties. • All students need self-learning. • It is for the benefit of all individuals that the education in which the child is the focus is supported.	• It is broader than formal education. • It is flexible and has a sensitive structure. • It has a structure that meets the necessary environment for education. • Schools need to be developed and effective. • The whole school should carry out the process jointly and collaboratively.
Concepts for diversity and discrimination	**Concepts for processes that promote inclusion**
• There is a struggle against discrimination and exclusionary situations. • Diversity is not seen as a problem, on the contrary, it is embracing. • To prepare a society that respects and values individuals from differences.	• It envisages overcoming barriers to participation and exclusion. • Increasing participation and joint action for cooperation are emphasized.

	• There are participatory method, participatory method, action research, collaborative inquiry.
Concepts for resources	
• It includes using local resources and redistributing existing resources. • Individuals (children, parents, teachers, members of other groups, etc.) are perceived as the main resource. • Supports such as mother tongue education, Braille alphabet, assistive devices are needed in schools for different individuals.	

Figure 2. Basic concepts of inclusive education

4. Fundamentals and Justifications of Inclusive Education

The basic condition of inclusive education is expressed as creating appropriate environments and situations in general education, which includes all children, and realizing it with necessary precautions, and it is stated that the inclusive education approach is adopted in many international institutions (ERG, 2017). Inclusive education is characterized as an approach that embraces all students and the education system, school, classrooms, transportation, playgrounds should be suitable for every student where all students should learn together in the same school (UNICEF, 2017).

Everyone has unique characteristics, interests, abilities, and learning needs, according to UNESCO (1994), and as a result, education rights are created and implemented in a way that will meet those needs. Additionally, general education schools should offer education for all students using appropriate and effective materials. According to UNESCO (2001), inclusive education enhances the learning of both people with and without disabilities, ensures their understanding, fosters social cohesion, lessens prejudices, and helps make people with disabilities better able to work and make contributions to society in both an economic and social sense.

In this context, UNESCO (2001) and UNICEF (2017) present the educational, social and economic justifications for inclusive education and accordingly, it is stated that there may be more inclusive societies where all children learn more effectively, participation is strengthened in terms of socialization, and the economic reason is that the economic cost will decrease as more institutions are not opened for students with different characteristics (UNICEF, 2017).

4.1. Economic Justifications

It is stated that in the past, special education programs for students with special needs for economic reasons caused the exclusion of students and failed (UNESCO, 2005). In today's inclusive education approach, it will be effective for all individuals to receive education together in terms of cultural, economic, social, origin, religion, and language (OECD, 2010). As declared, institutions opened for students with different characteristics due to the failure of this union will increase segregation and be costly in economic terms, and inclusive education will be of low cost and high quality for all students (UNESCO, 2001). Instead of opening different schools for students with different characteristics, supplying these schools with equipment and assigning additional teachers, all the needs of inclusive schools can be met, and contribution can be made to the development of inclusive schools.

4.2. Educational Justifications

According to the educational theory, inclusive education entails co-education for all students, the development of practical and effective teaching techniques that improve students' academic performance and success, the development of teaching methods and techniques that cater to the individual needs of all students who study together and have different characteristics, and the creation of high-quality educational institutions. It is reported that offering it will provide fruitful outcomes (UNESCO, 2001). According to reports, pupils who attend schools that do higher on international tests like the OECD's PISA (2010) benefit from equitable educational and training opportunities regardless of social and economic factors.

4.3. Social Justifications

It is accepted that all students receive education in the same environment, develop positive attitudes towards individuals with different characteristics, and social cohesion will be ensured without discrimination and exclusion. In addition, in the Salamanca Declaration and the Framework for Action (1994), it is argued that the struggle against prejudice and exclusion, as well as everyone's right to an education, take place in schools that practice inclusive education (Aktekin, 2017; Tomlinson, 2005).

In addition to the economic, educational, and social justifications, the articles on children's education rights in other national and international conventions, including Articles 23 and 28 in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, constitute the legal justification, which is another justification for inclusive education.

5. Legal Basis for Inclusive Education

UNICEF (2017) emphasizes that human rights are integrated with each other, and that an effective education can be achieved by realizing not only the right to education, but also all other rights, it will essentially open the door for the inclusion of the opportunity to education in other rights. Akgündüz (2019) states that every nation and international community accepts the right to education, and that inclusive education forms the basis of this. In addition, it sees education as the principles of an inclusive education that includes everyone, defends the rights of all children, and emphasizes that each individual has different characteristics, interests, abilities and learning needs. Aktekin (2017) draws attention to the importance of the articles that state that the right to education is the right of all children, which is emphasized in international conventions, and underlines that these articles have become a responsibility that must be fulfilled regardless of whether they have a language, religion, origin, physical or mental disability in terms of education.

When the literature is examined, it is seen that all national and international agreements constitute the legal basis of inclusive education (Hyde, 2014; Yazıcıoğlu, 2020; Yılmaz & Melekoğlu, 2018). New contracts and agreements continue to be signed within the framework of these national and international agreements. Inclusive education is being built on more solid foundations day by day and is becoming the focus of education with new contracts.

6. The Difference of Inclusive Education with Special Education and Mainstream/Integrated Education

It is stated that inclusive education is not understood despite its increasing prevalence, and when it is fully understood, the contradictions will disappear. It has been claimed that many nations lack an understanding of other ideas combined with inclusive education, making it essential to explain some concepts in order to grasp inclusive education and for the disparity in inclusive education to become apparent (Stubbs, 2008).

In this context, Stubbs (2008) states that difference will emerge clearly when the basis of these concepts is understood in order to distinguish that they are confused with special education and inclusive education. In addition, Stubbs (2008) explains that the basic principles and values accepted about why the definitions of these concepts are important will lead to different results, limit inclusive education practices, prevent them from running successfully, and prevent the deepening of inclusive education in practice due to its culturally expanding structure.

Stubbs (2008) explains that in different countries, special education is in the form of a completely separate education system, that this situation has recently been objected to within the scope of human rights activities, and that the main concept of 'private' is a learning need. In special education, it is accepted that the problem is not the system itself, but the individual itself, and it is stated that there are separate schools for such students (physically, mentally, hearing, visually impaired) by segregating the individual according to their disability, that students with similar disabilities are supported to develop their strengths, overcome their perception deficiencies, overcome their problems and their own limits (Mariga et al., 2014).

Mainstream education is defined as the placement of students with disabilities in regular classrooms and receiving education at certain intervals in line with their skills (UNESCO, 2017). Furthermore, according to UNESCO (2017), the system used in regular classrooms, like in special education, is not seen as a problem in and of itself, the student is seen as a problem, the school is not prepared for the student, but the student adapts to the school, there is an effort to integrate disabled students into regular classrooms, and little attention is paid to the students' learning. Mariga et al. (2014) emphasize that their focus is on the student rather than the system or the teacher.

When the characteristics of normal education, special education, mainstream/integrated education, and inclusive education are examined, the differences emerge clearly as shown in the figure below:

Figure 3. The characteristics of normal education, special education, mainstream/integrated education, and inclusive education (Adapted from: Stubbs, 2008, p. 45)

Furthermore, the differences between inclusive education, special education, and mainstream education can be based on four important aspects of education:

1-Focus and Philosophy:

Inclusive Education: Regardless of a student's ability, background, or impairments, inclusive education's main goal is to establish a learning environment that meets all of their different requirements. The goal of inclusive education is to give all students equal chances to participate, learn, and succeed. It places a strong emphasis on the value of diversity.

Special Education: Special education, on the other hand, is designed specifically to cater to students with disabilities or specific learning needs. It operates on the principle of individualization, providing tailored instruction, interventions, and support to help students with disabilities overcome barriers and achieve their educational goals.

Mainstream Education: Mainstream education follows a standardized curriculum and typically includes students without significant learning disabilities or special needs. It represents the typical classroom setting where students learn together in a general education environment.

2- Classroom Setting and Placement:

Inclusive Education: Students with and without impairments are taught in the same setting in inclusive classrooms. Students with disabilities receive appropriate support and accommodations to participate fully in the regular classroom activities.

Special Education: Special education classrooms are specialized settings where students with disabilities receive intensive support and instruction that is tailored to their individual needs. In some cases, these students may be placed in separate classrooms or schools.

Mainstream Education: Mainstream education classrooms consist of students without significant disabilities learning together under the same curriculum. Students with disabilities in mainstream education may receive some accommodation but are typically expected to keep pace with the standard curriculum.

3- Teacher Training and Support:

Inclusive Education: Teachers must get training in differentiating instruction, using Universal Design for Learning (UDL), and supporting diverse learners in order for inclusive education to be effective. To effectively address the needs of all learners, it is frequently important for general education and special education teachers to work together in collaboration.

Special Education: Teachers in special education undergo specialized training to work with students with disabilities and develop individualized teaching strategies. They may have expertise in specific disabilities and interventions.

Mainstream Education: General education teachers in mainstream classrooms are responsible for instructing a diverse group of students, which may include students with mild learning challenges. They may benefit from professional development on differentiated instruction and classroom management strategies.

4- Social and Emotional Aspects:

Inclusive Education: Inclusive classrooms can promote positive social interactions, empathy, and understanding among students with and without disabilities. All students have the opportunity to develop friendships and a sense of belonging within the school community.

Special Education: While special education provides specialized support, it may result in social isolation if students with disabilities are consistently separated from their peers in regular classrooms.

Mainstream Education: Mainstream education fosters social integration among students without disabilities. However, students with more significant disabilities may face challenges in social interactions and forming friendships without appropriate support.

Overall, the literature emphasizes the importance of promoting inclusive education as a means to create equitable and supportive learning environments for all students (Opertti & Belalcazar, 2008; UNICEF 2017; 2020). It acknowledges that while special education serves a critical role in providing individualized support, the integration of students with disabilities into inclusive classrooms can lead to positive academic and social outcomes for both students with and without disabilities. Effective implementation of inclusive education requires collaboration, appropriate resources, and a commitment to diversity and inclusion in the educational system.

7. Inclusive Education and English as a Foreign Language

Inclusive education refers to the approach of providing equal opportunities for all learners, regardless of their diverse backgrounds, abilities, or disabilities, to access quality education in mainstream schools or educational settings. It aims to ensure that every learner receives appropriate support and accommodation to maximize their learning potential.

When it comes to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction in inclusive education, there are specific considerations to bear in mind to ensure that all students, including those with varying linguistic and learning needs, can benefit from the learning experience. Here are some key points to consider:

1- Differentiated Instruction: In an inclusive EFL classroom, teachers need to implement differentiated instruction. This entails adjusting instructional strategies, resources, and evaluations to each student's unique requirements (Raza, 2020). Strategies may include using visual aids, hands-on activities, and providing supplementary resources to cater for various learning styles and proficiency levels.

2- Culturally Responsive Teaching: In a diverse classroom, students may come from various cultural backgrounds, each with unique linguistic and social experiences. Culturally responsive teaching acknowledges and values these differences, integrating students' cultural identities and experiences into the learning process. This approach fosters a more inclusive and supportive environment for all learners (Sanczyk, 2020; Zorba, 2020).

3- Universal Design for Learning (UDL): A versatile setting for instruction that supports individual learning variances is the goal of the UDL educational framework. When applied to EFL instruction, teachers can use multiple means of representation, engagement, and expression to meet students' diverse needs, ensuring that language learning is accessible to all (Kaçar et al., 2023; Lintangsari & Emaliana, 2020).

4- Collaborative Learning: Encourage collaborative activities in the EFL classroom, where students can work together in pairs or groups. Collaborative learning helps build language skills, boosts confidence, and fosters a sense of belonging among students, including those with different language abilities (Zubiri-Esnaola, 2020).

5- Assistive Technology: Integrating assistive technology can be beneficial for students with learning challenges or disabilities. Technology tools like text-to-speech software, speech-to-text applications, and translation tools can support EFL learners in understanding and expressing themselves effectively (Chambers, 2020; Kamali Arslantas et al., 2019).

6- Individual Education Plans (IEPs): For students with specific learning needs or disabilities, teachers can develop Individual Education Plans (IEPs). As Johnstone (2018) explains, these plans outline specific goals, strategies, and accommodations tailored to each student's requirements, ensuring they receive the necessary support for successful language learning.

7- Continuous Assessment and Feedback: Regularly assess students' language proficiency and learning progress to identify their strengths and areas for improvement. Despite the challenges of managing time, effort, and capacity (Bakaira, 2023), providing constructive feedback and offering additional support when needed helps EFL learners stay motivated and engaged in their language learning journey.

By adopting inclusive practices in EFL instruction, educators can create a supportive and enriching environment that caters to the diverse needs of all learners. In doing so, they enable students to successfully improve their language abilities and completely engage in the educational process.

8. Inclusive EFL Teachers and their Competencies after Reconceptualizing 'Teachers' Regarding the Inclusive Education

The identification and development of a substantial role for teachers are the results of an increased understanding of inclusive education. The 48th ICE outcomes document advanced the idea of inclusive instruction by suggesting training that equips teachers with the necessary knowledge and resources to teach diverse student populations and satisfy the various learning

needs of various categories of learners through strategies like professional development at the school level, pre-service training about inclusion, and instruction focused on the growth and strengths of the individual students (UNESCO, 2008). In fact, the text makes a substantial number of recommendations for the training, encouragement, and appreciation of teachers who work to promote inclusion at all educational levels (Opertti & Brady, 2011). Six of these recommendations are as follows (UNESCO, 2008, p. 20):

(i) Reinforce the role of teachers by working to improve their status and their working conditions, and develop mechanisms for recruiting suitable candidates, and retain qualified teachers who are sensitive to different learning requirements.

(ii) Train teachers by equipping them with the appropriate skills and materials to teach diverse student populations and meet the diverse learning needs of different categories of learners through methods such as professional development at the school level, pre-service training about inclusion, and instruction attentive to the development and strengths of the individual learner.

(iii) Support the strategic role of tertiary education in the pre-service and professional training of teachers on inclusive education practices through, inter alia, the provision of adequate resources.

(iv) Encourage innovative research in teaching and learning processes related to inclusive education.

(v) Equip school administrators with the skills to respond effectively to the diverse needs of all learners and promote inclusive education in their schools.

(vi) Take into consideration the protection of learners, teachers and schools in times of conflict.

According to the UNESCO (2009b) Policy Guidelines, teachers play a crucial part in promoting the growth of an inclusive educational system. This needs to be taken into account in the context of the larger global agenda for inclusive education as well as a number of interregional concerns and difficulties pertaining to teachers and teacher education. In the Reaching the Marginalized part of the 2010 Education for All Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO 2009a), teachers were depicted as a reflection of their own educational systems. As Opertti and Belalcazar (2008) declared, due to the fact that economic and social issues (such as immigration, social inequality, and poverty levels), have been shown to have a significant influence on the adoption of policies for inclusive education. In schools and cultures, the inclusive teacher is seen to contribute to the advancement of social justice and solidarity.

Another important aspect of inclusive education is an 'inclusive curricular perspective' (Opertti & Brady, 2011) that should be taken into consideration in terms of identifying the teacher and EFL teacher concepts. According to the UNESCO (2008), an inclusive curriculum is one that is flexible, pertinent, and adaptable to the many requirements and characteristics of lifelong learners. A curriculum that is inclusive reflects the inclusive societies we want to live in, one that distributes opportunities fairly and eradicates marginalization and poverty. Such curriculum helps to improve and democratize learning opportunities by fostering greater awareness of and responses to student diversity. These curricula aim to combine the density and strength of key concepts of *the value of diversity, the right to lifelong learning, and comprehensive citizenship education* in order to ensure each student's individual right to education. This is done through options, flexibility, and consideration of all learners in classrooms and schools. Given this, it is essential that curriculum content, settings, provisions, and processes be both universal and specific to all learners, moving away from a standardized approach based on the needs and competences of an average learner, because doing so results in an education system that is built around the logic of a homogenous average learner and ignores the diversity of students (Blanco, 2009). According to Blanco (2009), inclusion involves a variety of tailored offerings within a shared framework rather than individualized educational provision. Therefore, if education systems are to be inclusive, they must move away from individualized measures that make up for certain groups and toward a shared, universal design based on the diversity of needs of all students.

Multidisciplinary, competency-based methods have also been proposed as a creative way to think about and arrange curricula in terms of structure, objectives, and content in order to develop an inclusive curriculum and better handle diversity (Roegiers, 2010). Here, knowledge, skills, beliefs, and attitudes are described as competencies together with the capacity to apply them in a particular situation. One of its obvious benefits is the inherent flexibility of competency-based methodologies to a number of real-life circumstances for a range of learners and schools (Cox, 2008). Such a strategy may assist in diversifying learning goals based on a more adaptable and pertinent learner exit profile. Similar to how they have helped students advance regardless of their disparate performance starting places, these methods have also helped teachers modify their instruction to fit the learning styles of various students (UNESCO, 2009a). Teachers may also gain from competency-based approaches by better understanding their own responsibilities and abilities as well as by actively involving students in accessing a range of resources to promote their educational objectives (Jonnaert 2007).

As a result, adopting an inclusive curricular viewpoint necessitates a significant rethinking of teachers' attitudes, roles, and abilities. If this reconceptualization is to be mirrored in the educational system as a whole, it is necessary for English as a foreign language teachers and other educational stakeholders to have an understanding of it. Here, the list of the four main aspects of this reconceptualization is put forward by Opertti and Brady (2011, pp. 463-466) as "Teachers as co-developers of an inclusive curriculum", "Positive teacher attitudes around inclusion and diversity", "Teachers as competent professionals", "Teachers within inclusive schools, communities, and societies".

On the other hand, in addition to the difficulties in conceptualizing inclusive education, the other difficulties, such as stereotypical attitudes, an inaccessible curriculum, insufficient funding, poorly prepared teachers and pre and in-service teacher training, a lack of parental involvement, and a lack of a multidisciplinary orientation is declared by Poornima (2012). Out of all these variables, teacher abilities and attitudes considered as their competencies are regarded as being particularly important because, in the end, it is teachers who must instruct pupils of many backgrounds in their classrooms and put inclusive education's tenets into practice (Meijer, 2011). Thus, the issue that teachers do not have enough training and competencies to implement inclusive education around the world has been brought to the agenda as an issue that has been emphasized over and over again.

The European Agency for the Development of Special Needs Education (2011) outlines the following fundamental teacher competences in the Teacher Education for Inclusion (TE4I) report, which the majority of agency nations have identified as being crucial for the growth of inclusive practice:

➢ reflecting on their own learning and continuously seeking knowledge to address problems and support new practice;

➢ guaranteeing the wellbeing of learners, being accountable for meeting all of their educational and support needs, and fostering a supportive environment;

➢ collaborating with others (e.g., teachers, parents) to evaluate the needs of the students and develop an interesting curriculum that addresses problems of equality and human rights;

➢ using a range of 'inclusive' teaching techniques, group projects, and independent work that are appropriate for the learning objectives, the learners' age, and their abilities and developmental stages, and assessing learning and the efficiency of the techniques employed;

> ➤ addressing multilingual language learning situations fostering several languages and considering cultural diversity as a resource (pp. 51-52).

In a nutshell, the TE4I emphasized four areas of teacher competence: collaborating with others, appreciating learner variety, and supporting all learners. After reviewing several frameworks, Poornima (2012) developed a thorough competency framework for teachers that takes into account their attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, and understanding as well as their teaching and training, intra- and interpersonal relationships, and research skills by doing this with particular reference to inclusive education. Some essential characteristics for inclusive education are listed below. These competencies and skills are necessary for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers to successfully implement inclusive education in their classes.

Knowledge of Diverse Learning Needs: EFL teachers should be aware of the diverse learning needs and abilities of their students, including those with learning disabilities, language disorders, or other special educational needs. Understanding these differences allows teachers to tailor their instructional strategies to meet individual students' requirements (Alzahrani et al., 2022; Atmaca, 2017; Liu & Kleinsasser, 2015).

Differentiation: EFL teachers should be skilled in differentiating their teaching approaches, materials, and assessments to accommodate the varied learning styles and abilities of their students. This involves providing multiple means of representation, engagement, and expression (Gülşen, 2018; Kótay-Nagy, 2023; Naka, 2018).

Cultural Competence: Inclusive EFL teachers should be culturally competent and sensitive to the diverse backgrounds and experiences of their students. Understanding and valuing students' cultural identities can enhance the learning environment and foster a sense of belonging for all (Atay et al., 2009; Karatas, 2020; Safa & Tofighi, 2022; Yurtsever & Özel, 2021).

Collaboration and Communication: Effective communication and collaboration with other educators, parents, support staff, and specialists are crucial for implementing inclusive practices successfully. EFL teachers should be able to work together with others to provide comprehensive support to students (Hidalgo et al., 2020).

Positive Behavior Management: Inclusive classrooms may have students with a wide range of behaviors. EFL teachers should be skilled in fostering a positive and respectful learning environment, implementing behavior management strategies that promote inclusion and minimize disruptions (Hamid & Faezeh, 2019; Mahmoodi et al., 2022).

Adaptive Teaching Techniques: Inclusive EFL teachers should be capable of adapting their teaching techniques and materials to support students with diverse needs. This may include using visual aids, manipulatives, technology, or other assistive tools (Vogt & Rogalla, 2009).

Flexible Assessment Methods: Traditional assessment methods may not be suitable for all students in an inclusive EFL classroom. Teachers should be open to using alternative and flexible assessment techniques to fairly evaluate each student's progress (Al-Awaid, 2022).

Individualized Education Plans (IEPs): EFL teachers should understand the importance of IEPs and be able to collaborate with special education teachers to implement appropriate accommodations and modifications for students with individualized education plans (Haghi et al., 2023)

Reflective Practice: Inclusive EFL teachers need to engage in reflective practice, continuously evaluating their teaching methods and making adjustments to improve inclusivity and student outcomes (Korucu Kış & Yükselir, 2021; Pokhrel, 2022).

Advocacy: Being an advocate for inclusion within the school and the broader community is essential for EFL teachers. Advocating for resources, support, and awareness of inclusive practices can help create a more inclusive learning environment (Lu et al., 2022).

Overall, inclusive education requires a commitment to equity and a willingness to address the diverse needs of all learners. EFL teachers who possess these competencies can contribute significantly to the success and well-being of their students in a diverse inclusive classroom setting.

9. Incorporating Inclusive Education into EFL Teacher Education through the Lenses of Curriculum Changes in Higher Education

The initial restructuring studies of education/educational sciences faculties and teaching undergraduate programs were carried out in 1997–1998 as part of the Ministry of National Education Development Project. Partial adjustments were made in 2006 and 2009. Later, new regulations were formed regarding the faculties of education; departments and undergraduate programs were examined, and required arrangements and updates were made. This was owing

to the structural changes made to the educational system in 2012 as a result of changing conditions and needs. Since the start of the academic year 2018–2019, the new programs have been in place. The courses in the teaching undergraduate programs updated in 2018 are divided into three groups once more: "General Culture Courses" 15-20%; "Field Education Courses" 45-50%; and "Teaching Profession Courses" 30-35%. The undergraduate programs at the faculties of education that train future teachers in various fields had their courses and material changed as of May 2018 and were starting to be gradually implemented as of September 2018. With this update, several courses have been entirely deleted, while others have had their names changed and their semesters changed. Nearly all of the courses' credits have changed in addition to the overall number of courses. The variety and design of elective courses have also undergone considerable changes.

The 2018 change has also had an impact on the undergraduate English language teaching program. When it is necessary to consider the courses determined by YÖK in terms of inclusive education, it would be useful to remember the courses offered in the English Language Teaching departments of all education faculties. It is clearly seen that there is no course in which inclusive education is taught directly to the students, especially within the field education courses, only it can be added to the course contents specified in the program upon the wishes of the instructors. For this reason, it will be beneficial to consider the lessons in the ELT programmes on the basis of categories and it will be better for understanding the presented argument (https://www.yok.gov.tr/kurumsal/idari-birimler/egitim-ogretim-dairesi/yeni-ogretmen-yetistirme-lisans-programlari).

When the courses in the English Language Teaching program are examined, it is seen that there is a course called inclusive education among the elective courses in teaching profession. However, this course may not be opened because it is related to the members of the education faculties of the universities, especially those who have expertise in the field of educational sciences. For this reason, in order to increase the proficiency of our English teachers in the changing and transforming world conditions and to gain a more professional view of the teaching, the concept of inclusive education should be incorporated into the content of the field education courses and teacher candidates should be trained to meet the needs of the age.

Actually, the education faculties have a great potential to adapt and emerge with this concept to the ELT curriculum courses. Following the update in 2018, the council announced the "delegation of authority" to universities on August 18, 2020. Within the scope of this process, committees such as "Higher Education Programs Advisory Board" and "Higher Education

Quality Board" were established, and it was reported that "delegation of authority" was made to higher education institutions on various issues.

In this context, YÖK decided that:

"Recently, many steps have been taken in the direction of the goals we have set in higher education, arrangements have been made and positive developments have been experienced. From now on, the studies of developing and updating the teaching undergraduate programs of the Faculties of Education/Educational Sciences, taking into account the Turkish Qualifications Framework and the Teaching Profession Competencies determined by the Ministry of National Education as it is thought that it is the right choice to have it done by the institutions. Because curriculum development in education is a dynamic and continuous process. "Our universities have the capacity to manage this dynamic process, and our instructors have the competence to develop and update the curriculum." At the Higher Education General Assembly meeting dated October 10, 2020, the decision of the General Assembly of Higher Education dated April 12, 2018 regarding teaching programs was canceled and the new decision was put on the agenda. (https://www.yok.gov.tr/Sayfalar/Haberler/2020/egitim-fak%C3%BCltelerine-yetki-devri.aspx)

However, the precise courses featured in EFL teacher education programs in Turkey may vary among universities and may have changed after the announcement of YÖK for the adaptation and update of the 2018 curriculum. In order to prevent these differences in English Language Teaching departments, the 1st English Language Teaching Undergraduate Program Evaluation and Update Workshop was held on 12-13 March 2021, hosted by Süleyman Demirel University. Within the framework presented by YÖK, the diversity of the courses that can be achieved at the national level was discussed and a draft program was agreed with the participants. This course proposal, which aims to harmonize the English language teaching programs at the national level, must reflect and put into practice the traces of inclusive education with the course content that can respond appropriately in terms of today's classroom practices especially in the field education courses.

10. The Studies on Inclusive Education in EFL and ELT

Within the scope of this chapter, the handling of the concept of inclusive education in the processes of teaching English as a foreign language in the last 5 years will be examined, and it is aimed to present a general framework for how it can be handled in future studies both in English Language Teaching undergraduate programs and in the in-service training programs of

English Language Teachers. For this reason, TR index, ERIC and WOS databases have been examined as focus databases since they are frequently used in education in general and language education in particular both in national and international context. In order to make quality and detailed research "inclusive education and language, inclusive education and language education, inclusive education and EFL, inclusive education and ELT" keywords were used. Furthermore, the following criteria were applied to each database to minimize bias and limit the review's scope:

(1) In the analysis, only the research articles were taken into consideration. Other sources such as book chapters, review studies, editorial notes, conference papers, dissertations or any kind of study that does not fall into the category of research articles were not included in the review.

(2) Articles whose scope was related to the defined key words were interested in the review, and articles that were related to the general education field were excluded.

(3) The review procedure includes all English-language papers published in the last five years.

Under these conditions, the following numbers of articles were collected through the review process:

Table 1. The Number of The Articles Conducted in Inclusive Education and Language, EFL, and ELT

The Database	The number of the studies on inclusive education and language education (general inquiry)	The number of the studies on inclusive education and EFL and ELT (specified inquiry)	The sub-themes of the studies
TR index	74	4	"perspectives in intercultural awareness, young learners and inclusive settings, inclusive education of refugees"
ERIC	85	9	"knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and competence towards inclusive education, language-in-education policy, practices for inclusive language classroom, physical disabilities, practices for learners with

			Dyslexia, challenges of University EFL teachers"
WOS	58	46	"inclusive language, inclusive perceptions, inclusive digital games, inclusive technology (digital games, blended learning environment, remote teaching context, CLIL), inclusive pedagogy, inclusive EFL teaching, inclusive ELT materials, EFL teachers' practices, teachers' inconclusive competence, teachers2 perceptions, inclusive EFL classrooms, challenges and experiences of EFL teachers, queer-inclusive pedagogies, material development in flexible learning, needs in EFL teacher development, equitable TESOL lesson planning, traslanguaging practices, challenges in EFL"

Although there is numerous research on education generally, there are few studies in the literature on inclusive education that focus on inclusion and EFL and ELT. The table above reflects the number of the studies on inclusive education in EFL and ELT contexts. The details show us that TR index includes 74 articles on inclusive education and language in general inquiry and 4 of them are directly related to EFL and ELT with the given themes. Furthermore, ERIC incorporates 85 articles in general inquiry on inclusive education and language, with 9 of them on inclusion in EFL and ELT again while WOS presents 58 articles on inclusive education and language, 46 of them focus on inclusive education in EFL and ELT specifically.

Thus, concerns have been raised by educators, academics, and policymakers who are committed to creating more equal and accessible learning environments about the paucity of papers on inclusive education in the context of EFL and ELT.

Providing all learners with a high-quality education, regardless of their backgrounds, skills, or differences, is a key component of inclusive education. This idea is crucial when teaching languages to varied learners who may have different degrees of competencies and learning requirements. Every student should have the chance to learn and flourish, which may be achieved by incorporating inclusive practices into EFL and ELT.

11. Pedagogical Implications and Conclusion

Despite the fact that inclusive education taken into consideration in general education and in many countries is significant in number and regarding the themes of educational aspects are applicable, studies on inclusive education considering EFL and ELT are quite rare. According

to the reviewed articles on inclusive education focusing on EFL and ELT, the first step to improve the quality and practices of inclusion in English as a foreign language context relies on developing and incorporating the inclusion as a teaching skill and competence in teacher training and education faculties.

Reflecting the concepts of inclusion and inclusive education in EFL and ELT and the awareness and understanding of their importance should be seen in the practices of language learning and teaching conditions. Since COVID-19 introduced another vulnerable learner profile and condition that could be accepted as another kind of inclusiveness the language teachers, teacher trainers, educators need to pace within the process of developing the teaching competencies of future English as a foreign language in our country, Türkiye. As the learner profiles in every aspect of today's world has been changing, the inclusion should be regarded as an important part of foreign language teaching and learning environments.

EFL and ELT that incorporates inclusion entails developing learning settings that cater to the various requirements of all learners in the same area, regardless of their backgrounds, skills, or peculiarities. Hence, differentiated instruction, universal design for learning, culturally responsive teaching, collaborative learning, flexible assessment, supportive environments, individual/peer/language support, inclusive materials, sensitivity and awareness, inclusive responsive teacher training and professional development, technology for integration, flexible grouping, reflection, and feedback again can be used to encourage inclusiveness in EFL and ELT as strategies and methods.

To encourage inclusiveness, it should be kept in mind that teachers, educators, and trainers must be willing to learn from their learners' various needs and modify their teaching strategies accordingly. The more inclusive and egalitarian EFL and ELT classrooms can be reached by accepting, internalizing, and making all these strategies and methods prevalent for ALL!

REFERENCES

Al Roomy, M. A. (2022). Exploring teacher's perspectives about online assessment during the COVID-19 pandemic in a Saudi context. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Special Issue on CALL (8)*3- 16. https://doi.org/ 10.24093/awej/call8.1

Akgündüz, M. M. (2019). Kapsayıcı eğitimin hukuki dayanakları. In P. O. Taneri (Ed.), *Kuramdan uygulamaya kapsayıcı eğitim* (pp. 45-65). Pegem Yayınları.

Alzahrani, S.M., Almalki, M.S., & Almossa, S.Y. (2022), Conceptualizing life competencies: EFL teachers' qualitative perspective. *Saudi Journal of Language Studies*, *2*(4). 189- 204. https://doi.org/10.1108/SJLS-05-2022-0050

Atay, D., Kurt, G., Çamlıbel, Z., & Ersin, P. (2009). The role of intercultural competence in foreign language teaching. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *10*(3), 123-135. Retrieved from https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/inuefd/issue/8704/108680

Atmaca, Ç. (2017). English teachers' perspectives about teacher competencies in terms of professional identity. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 17*(4), 1641-1669.

Bakaira, G. (2023). State of teacher made classroom tests and testing as continuous assessment in an ınclusive setting for practical outcomes, case study of bachelor of teacher education students in Kyambogo University, Uganda. *African Journal of Education,Science and Technology*, *7*(3), 534-551. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.2022/ajest.v7i3.866

Blanco, R. (2009). Conceptual framework of inclusive education. In C. Acedo, M. Amadio, & R. Opertti (Eds.), *Defining an inclusive education agenda: Reflections around the 48th session of the International Conference on Education*. UNESCO IBE.

Causton, J., & Tracy-Bronson, C.P. (2015). *The educator's handbook for inclusive school practices*. Brookes Publishing.

Chambers, D. (2020). Assistive technology supporting ınclusive education: Existing and emerging trends. In Chambers, D. (Ed.) *Assistive technology to support ınclusive education* (*International perspectives on ınclusive education, Vol. 14*), pp. 1-16. Emerald Publishing Limited, Bingley. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-363620200000014001

Cox, C. (2008). Inclusion educativa: Conceptos, etapas, dilemas de implementacio´n [Inclusive education: Concepts, stages, problems of implementation]. Paper presented at the UNESCO International Workshop on Inclusive Education, Andean and Southern Cone Regions, Buenos Aires, Argentina, 12–14 September.

Çakıroğlu, O. (2016). Özel eğitimde temel kavramlar. In V. Aksoy (Ed.), *Özel eğitim* (pp. 1-20). Pegem Yayınları.

Cavkaytar, A. (2015). Özel eğitime gereksinim duyan çocuklar ve özel eğitim. In İ. H. Diken (Ed.), *Özel Eğitime gereksinimi olan öğrenciler ve özel eğitim* (pp. 1-28). Pegem Yayınları.

Çitil, M. (2012). *Yasalar ve özel eğitim.* Vize Yayıncılık.

Diken, Ġ. H., & Batu. E. S. (2010). Kaynaştırmaya giriş. In İbrahim H. Diken (Ed.), *İlköğretimde Kaynaştırma* (pp. 2-23). Pegem Akademi.

ERG (Eğitim Reformu Girişimi). (2017). Eğitim izleme raporu 2016-2017. https://www.egitimreformugirisimi.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/EIR2016-17_12.10.17.web-1.pdf

Gülşen, E. (2018). A phenomenological study concerning Turkish EFL teachers' views on *differentiated* instruction. *ELT Research Journal 7*(1), 42-56.

Haghi, S., & Aliakbari, M., & Yasini, A. (2023). EFL Teachers' individual development planning model: A data-driven approach. *Teaching English as a Second Language Quarterly*, 42, 1-28. https://doi.org/10.22099/tesl.2022.44999.3151

Hamid, M., & Faezeh, A. (2019). EFL teachers' effective classroom management and learners' anxiety and learning strategies. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research, 7*(2), 65-82. https://doi.org/10.30466/IJLTR.2019.120698

Hornby, G. (2014). *Inclusive special education: Evidence-based practices for children with special needs and disabilities.* Springer.

Hyde, M. (2014). Understanding diversity, ınclusion and engagement. In Mervyn Hyde, Lorelei Carpenter, and Robert Conway (Eds.), *Diversity, inclusion and engagement*, (pp. 3–38). Oxford University Press.

Johnstone, C. (2018). The role of individualized learning plans (ILPs) in inclusive education. In Inclusive education strategies: A textbook (pp. 85–104). University of Minnesota. http://file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/Inclusive_Education_Strategies_A_Textboo.pdf

Jonnaert, P. (2007). Le concept de compe´tence revisite´ [The concept of competency revisited]. Montreal: University of Quebec, Observatoire des re´formes en e´ducation (ORE).

Kaçar, I.G., Karakuş, E., Baltacı, H.Ş., & Altun, M. (2023). Online flipped tasks and universal design for learning: A means to an inclusive and motivating EFL learning environment. In Tafazoli, D., Picard, M. (Eds.) *Handbook of CALL teacher education and professional development*, (pp. 292-311). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-0514-0_18

Kamali Arslantas, T., Yildirim, S., & Arslantekin, B. A. (2019). Educational affordances of a specific webbased assistive technology for students with visual impairment. *Interactive*

Learning Environments, 29(6), 1037-1054. https://doi.org 10.1080/10494820.2019.1619587

Karatas, K. (2020). The competencies of the culturally responsive teacher: What, why and how?. i.e.: *Inquiry in Education, 12*(2), 1-23. Retrieved from: https://digitalcommons.nl.edu/ie/vol12/iss2/2

Korucu Kış, S., & Yükselir, C. (2021). A critical review of reflective practices in pre-service ELT context: The Turkey case. *Batı Anadolu Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi, 12*(2), 691-704.

Kótay-Nagy, A. (2023). Differentiated instruction in the EFL classroom: An interview study on Hungarian primary and secondary school EFL teachers' views and self-reported practices, *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge and Innovation*, *6*(1), 33-46. https://doi.org/10.1556/2059.2023.00076

Lintangsari, A. P., & Emaliana, I. (2020). Inclusive education services for the blind: Values, roles, and challenges of university EFL teachers. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education, 9*(2), 439-447. https://doi.org/10.11591/ijere.v9i2.20436

Liu, Mei-hui. & Kleinsasser, R. C. (2015). Exploring EFL teachers' call knowledge and competencies: In-service program perspectives. *Language Learning and Technology,19*. 119-138.

Lu, J., Jiang, H., & Huang, Y. (2022). Inclusive EFL teaching for young students with special needs: A case in China. *Children*, *9*(5), 749. MDPI AG. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/children9050749

Mahmoodi, M. H., Hosseiniyar, S., & Samoudi, N. (2022). EFL Teachers' classroom management orientation, self-efficacy, burnout, and students' L2 achievement. *Profile Issues in Teachers` Professional Development*, *24*(1), 29-44. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v24n1.91153

Majoko T. (2017). Regular teacher preparation for inclusion. *International Journal of Special Education*, 32, 207-236.

Majoko, T. (2019). Teacher Key Competencies for Inclusive Education: Tapping Pragmatic Realities of Zimbabwean Special Needs Education Teachers. *SAGE Open*, *9*(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018823455

Meijer, C. J. W. (2003). *Trends in provision in 18 European countries,* European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education.

Naka, L. (2018). Differentiated instruction as the main tool in EFL learning enhancement. *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research (IJSBAR)*, *42*(2), 106–112. Retrieved from https://gssrr.org/index.php/JournalOfBasicAndApplied/article/view/9439

Navarro Martell, M. A. (2022). *Ciencias bilingües*: how dual language teachers cultivate equity in dual language classrooms, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 25*(6), 2142-2158. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2020.1870925

OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation, Development). (2010). Educating teachers for diversity: Meeting the challenge. Paris: OECD.

OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation, Development). (2023). Equity and inclusion in education: Finding strength through diversity. https://oecdedutoday.com/equity-and-inclusion-in-education/

Opertti, R., & Belalcazar, C. (2008). Trends in inclusive education at regional and interregional levels: Issues and challenges. *Prospects, 145*(1), 113–135.

Opertti, R., & Brady, J. (2011). Developing inclusive teachers from an inclusive curricular perspective. *Prospects, 41*, 459–472. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-011-9205-7

Palacios Hidalgo, F. J, Gómez Parra, M. E, Huertas Abril, C. A. (2020). Digital and media competences: Key competences for EFL teachers. *Teaching English with Technology, 20*(1):43–59.

Pantić, N. (2015) A model for study of teacher agency for social justice. *Teachers and Teaching, 21*(6,) 759-778. https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2015.1044332

Poornima, R. (2012). *An Assessment of teacher training programmes in norway with special reference to ınclusive education*. Project submitted to Research Council of Norway.

Raza, K. (2020). Differentiated instruction in English language teaching: Insights into the implementation of Raza's teaching adaptation model in Canadian ESL classrooms. *TESL Ontario Contact Magazine, 46*(2), 41-50.

Roegiers, X. (2010). *Pedagogy of integration: Education and training systems at the heart of our societies*. DeBoeck University.

Pokhrel, V. (2022). Reflective practice and professional development as an English language teacher. *International Journal of Educational Research Review, 7*(3) , 176-186 . https://doi.org/10.24331/ijere.1097572

Safa, M. A., & Tofighi, S. (2022). Intercultural communicative competence beliefs and practices of Iranian pre-service and in-service EFL teachers. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 16*(2), 164–175. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2021.1889562

Sakiz, H. (2015). *Investigating disability inclusion in Turkey: An exploratory case study*. The University of Manchester.

Sanczyk, A. (2020). Creating inclusive adult ESL classrooms through promoting culturally responsive pedagogy. *COABE Journal: The Resource for Adult Education, 9*(2), 5-16.

Stubbs, S. (2008). *Inclusive education where there are few resources.* The Atlas Alliance Publ.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2005). Grading and differentiation: Paradox or good practice? *Theory into Practice, 44*(3), 262-269. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4403_11

UNESCO. (1994). *The Salamanca statement and framework for action on special needs education.* UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2001). *The open file on ınclusive education*. UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2005). *Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access to education for all.* UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2008). *Conclusions and recommendations of the 48th session of the International Conference on Education (ED/BIE/CONFINTED 48/5)*. UNESCO IBE. http://www.ibe.unesco.org/en/ice/48th-ice-2008/conclusions-and-recommendations.html.

UNESCO. (2009). *Policy guidelines on inclusion in education.* UNESCO.

UNESCO (2009a). *The basic education in Africa programme: A policy paper—responding to demands for access, quality, relevance and equity.* UNESCO IBE.

UNESCO. (2009b). *Training tools for curriculum development: A worldwide resource pack*. UNESCO IBE.

UNICEF. (2017). *Including children with disabilities in quality learning: What needs to be done*. Inclusive Education, 4.

UNICEF. (2020). *Equity and inclusion in education "Ensuring no child or adolescent is left behind". https://www.unicef.org/lac/en/equity-and-inclusion-education*

Woodcock, S. Sharma, U., Subban, P., & Hitches, E. (2022). Teacher self-efficacy and inclusive education practices: Rethinking teachers' engagement with inclusive practices, *Teaching and Teacher Education,117,* 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2022.103802

Vogt, F., & Rogalla, M. (2009). Developing adaptive teaching competency through coaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(8), 1051–1060. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.04.002

Yazicioglu, T. 2020. An analysis of the national legislation in terms of inclusive education in Turkey. *European Journal of Educational Sciences, 7*(2), 49-69. http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v7no2a4

Yılmaz, E., & Melekoğlu, M. A. (2018). Evaluation of the status of ınclusive education in law and practice in Turkey and the European context. *Osmangazi Journal of Educational Research, 5*(1), 1-17. Retrieved from http://ojer.ogu.edu.tr/Storage/OsmangaziJournalOfEducationalResearch/Uploads/OJER-V5-N1-1-TR.pdf

YÖK (Yükseköğretim Kurulu/ Council of Higher Education). (2018). *Yeni öğretmen yetiştirme lisans programları.* https://www.yok.gov.tr/kurumsal/idari-birimler/egitim-ogretim-dairesi/yeni-ogretmen-yetistirme-lisans-programlari

Yurtsever, A., & Özel, D. (2021). The role of cultural awareness in the EFL classroom. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry, 12*(1), 102-132. https://doi.org/10.17569/tojqi.776499

Zorba, M. G. (2020). Personal and professional readiness of in-service teachers of English for culturally responsive teaching. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research (EJER), 88*, 41-66.

Zubiri-Esnaola, H., Vidu, A., Rios-Gonzalez, O., Morla-Folch, T. (2020). Inclusivity, participation and collaboration: Learning in interactive groups. *Educational Research, 62*(2), 162-180. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2020.1755605

https://www.yok.gov.tr/Sayfalar/Haberler/2020/egitim-fak%C3%BCltelerine-yetki-devri.aspx

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayfer SU-BERGİL

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-9277-2862

ayfersubergil@amasya.edu.tr

Amasya University, Department of Foreign Language Education

Ayfer Su-Bergil is currently working as an Associate Professor in Amasya University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education, Division of English Language Teaching. She received her Bachelor of Arts degree from Gazi University, English Language Teaching in 2004 and got Master of Arts degree from Tokat GaziosmanpaşaUniversity, Curriculum and Instruction, in 2010. She completed her doctoral studies at the English Language Teaching Department, Hacettepe University in 2015. Su-Bergil teaches English language courses at the undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.   Teacher education, curriculum and instruction, English language teaching & learning are among the fields of her interest.

CHAPTER 10: PROMOTING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION AND AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE PRACTICE AMONG EFL LEARNERS: VIRTUAL EXCHANGE AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Samed Yasin ÖZTÜRK iD

Abstract

This chapter explores the potential of Virtual Exchange (VE) for promoting Global Citizenship Education (GCE) in foreign language classrooms. Global Citizenship Education emphasizes the significance of developing knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for EFL learners to become responsible and contributing global citizens, while VE is about bringing together learners from geographically dispersed locations to engage in intercultural communication and exchange. The chapter provides an overview of GCE and VE and highlights their complementary nature. The chapter then examines the advantages of using VE for promoting GCE in English language teacher education and foreign language classrooms, such as fostering intercultural communicative competence and critical thinking skills, promoting empathy, and understanding, and providing opportunities for authentic language practice. The chapter discusses the challenges and considerations that need to be considered when designing and implementing such projects and studies. The chapter concludes by emphasizing the significance of incorporating VE into EFL classes and English language teacher education, as a means of promoting GCE and preparing learners to engage in a globally interconnected world.

1. Introduction

It might be necessary to revisit the background propositions leading to the first appearance of the popular concept 'communicative competence' in the field of applied linguistics before delving into the concepts of intercultural communicative competence and virtual exchange. In his definition of Linguistic Theory, Chomsky (1965) argued that the concepts of competence and performance refer to the "ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly…" (p.3). However, this explanation regarding competence and performance sparked heated debates among applied linguists. Hymes (1972) criticized Chomsky and argued that his description of linguistic theory and competence and performance ignores the social conditions in learning English as a foreign language. Moreover,

he indicated that competence and performance must be addressed by considering sociocultural features in a heterogeneous speech community unlike Chomsky's ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community argument.

Years later, Hymes (1985) touched on another important point by arguing that language and culture, as they are reflected in society, cannot be related according to end products of linguists and anthropologists. He points out that language and culture cannot be separated from society and people's daily lives and experiences. Canale and Swain (1980) expanded on the Hymes's concept of communicative competence by arguing that communicative performance is different from communicative competence because the former is the operationalization of respective competences in learners' use of language. Based on this perspective, they identified four types of competences: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. This model ignited the transition from traditional structure-based instruction to a modern instruction encompassing the dynamics of culture, society, and learner diversity in English teaching (Friedrich, 2013).

The contemporary approach to language teaching, namely Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), emphasized the integration of culture into language teaching. With the advent of CLT and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) approach, the concept of culture was replaced with "much more agentive, fluid, and hybrid notion of cosmopolitan practice, in which interlocutors seek alignment, not intercultural understanding, multilayered affiliations, not unidimensional identities, and communicate with one another in the absence of any shared values" (Kramsch, 2014). This restrictive and dogmatic approach to the concept of culture was criticized by scholars like Pennycook (2007) and McNamara (2012), and it was indicated that genuine interactions among people allow the construction of culture and cultural practices. It has also been argued that culture-specific instruction, which is focusing on only one culture, need to be replaced with culture-general instruction, which is interculturally interacting with people from diverse cultural background in variety of contexts and situations (Godwin-Jones, 2013).

Based on this constructivist view on culture & cultural practices and their place in language teaching, the concept of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) has garnered attention in the field of applied linguistics. The examination of the ICC has given rise to various theoretical models. Byram (1997) introduced the most well-known compositional model of ICC, Deardorff (2006) came up with the co-orientational model of ICC, and Bennett (1993) offered developmental model of ICC. Deardorff's (2006) process-based model of ICC highlights the significance of three dimensions: knowledge, attitudes, and skills. It emphasizes

the cyclical nature of the intercultural learning process and includes stages like "applied intercultural learning" and "global leadership". Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (1993) describes the stages individuals go through as they develop intercultural sensitivity and competence. It includes stages such as Denial, Defense, Minimization, Acceptance, Adaptation, and Integration. Byram's (1997) holistic and compositional model of ICC is designed to help learners acquire the required skills and understanding needed to effectively communicate and interact with people from diverse cultural backgrounds. The model goes beyond language proficiency and encompasses a broader set of competencies necessary for appropriate intercultural communication and establishing genuine intercultural relations.

Byram's model has five dimensions: attitude, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness. The dimension of attitude emphasizes the significance of holding positive attitudes towards other people from different cultural backgrounds and their cultural practices. This includes open-mindedness, curiosity, tolerance, and respect for cultural diversity. Developing an attitude of empathy and a willingness to engage with different perspectives is a critical step for building appropriate intercultural relationships. The dimension of knowledge encompasses understanding the cultural norms, values, beliefs, and practices of other cultures and cultural practices. It also covers sociopolitical and historical aspects that influence intercultural interactions.

The dimensions of skills address the ability to understand and interpret written and spoken messages coming from people with diverse backgrounds. These skills also allow individuals to establish and maintain positive relationships with individuals. These skills are critical for effective communication and collaboration in cross-cultural situations, including adapting communication styles and codes. Regarding the last dimension of critical cultural awareness, it is emphasized that the ability and awareness of critically examining and questioning cultural stereotypes and biases can be a key indicator of having intercultural communicative competence since this dimension involves developing a critical perspective on one's own culture as well as the ability to analyze and critique cultural representations in intercultural interactions.

Byram's model has influenced the development of intercultural education programs and materials that aim to prepare language learners for successful intercultural engagement in a globalized world. Having emphasized the importance of ICC in foreign language classrooms, it is equally important to find practical and pedagogical ways to foster it among language

learners. In the following sections, two practical ways of addressing ICC in foreign language classrooms will be discussed: Virtual Exchange and Global Citizenship Education.

2. Virtual Exchange

Virtual Exchange (VE) is a pedagogical approach (Gutiérrez et al., 2021) that brings together learners online from geographically dispersed locations and diverse cultural backgrounds to engage and collaborate on certain tasks usually as part of coursework under the guidance of expert researchers and practitioners. As mentioned in the previous section, bringing up language learners as intercultural speakers with "think globally, act locally" ideology would equip them with the required competences to use the language meaningfully. VE is an ideal venue for achieving this goal in the most practical and economical way (Öztürk, 2022) because it represents a transformative pedagogical approach that uses digital technologies to connect students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, transcending geographical boundaries and fostering cross-cultural understanding.

In the last two decades, VE has been given different names such as telecollaboration, online intercultural exchange, collaborative online international learning, internet-mediated intercultural foreign language education, international virtual academic collaboration, virtual international cooperation projects, globally networked learning environments, and e-tandem (O'Dowd, 2023). Rubin (2016) indicated that use of many different names for VE makes the concept of VE difficult to be understood and realized. For this reason, O'Dowd (2023) offers that the use of VE as an only term would eliminate the confusion among researchers and practitioners.

Upon deciding on the agreed term, O'Dowd (2023) defines VE and sets the boundaries for related VE practices. He indicated that VE is a broad term encompassing various online learning methods. It involves students engaging in ongoing collaborative learning and interaction with peers from diverse cultural backgrounds as part of their studies.

As this definition suggests, VE practices have certain characteristics that differentiate them from other online virtual applications (O'Dowd, 2023) such as intercultural interaction taking place in online environments, their malleability in terms of integrating into curricula, guidance from experts and practitioners, learner-centeredness, and rich intercultural interaction.

3. Internationalizing in Higher Education and at Home

VE practices play critical roles in internationalizing higher education and internationalizing at home. De Wit et al. (2015) explained internationalizing higher education as: "the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society" (p. 29). O'Dowd (2023) argues that this definition indicates the complete difference between physical mobility and international education because internationalizing higher education is a strategic process that aims to instill global perspectives, experiences, and opportunities into the core missions of universities and colleges. The goal is to prepare students to thrive in an increasingly interconnected and interdependent world. Moreover, this goal also addresses the process of global citizenship education, which will be explained later in the chapter.

VE plays a significant role in advancing the internationalization of higher education by promoting global engagement, fostering cross-cultural competence, and expanding access to international experiences. It can contribute to the process of internationalizing higher education in the following ways:

- ➢ It can introduce diverse global perspectives to learners through courses, materials, curricula, and transnational collaborative projects,
- ➢ It can facilitate cross-cultural interactions among learners from geographically diverse locations and these interactions promote intercultural communicative competence, helping students develop the skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed to engage effectively in diverse settings,
- ➢ It can work as an alternative to physical mobility in certain ways for learners who may have financial constraints, family obligations, or health concerns. In this way, VE practices might democratize access to international experiences and exchanges,
- ➢ As Pittarello et al. (2020) indicated, VE practices can serve as a preparation for study abroad programs. Learners who would participate in study abroad programs can be part of VE projects that are organized with participants from the country they intend to study during physical mobility,
- ➢ VE encourages faculty and staff to engage in global professional development. They can collaborate with international colleagues, participate in global projects, and stay updated on international trends and research,

➢ VE encourages faculty to incorporate global perspectives into their teaching, contributing to the internationalization of the curriculum. This may involve redesigning courses to include global content or collaborating on cross-border research projects,

➢ VE equips students with global competencies, such as adaptability, cultural sensitivity, and the ability to work in diverse teams. These skills are highly valued by employers and prepare graduates for successful careers in an interconnected world.

Moreover, VE plays a pivotal role regarding internationalizing at home. Internationalization at home refers to efforts made by educational institutions to globalize their campuses and curricula, ensuring that students who may not have the opportunity to study abroad still receive international and intercultural experiences within their home institutions (Deardorff & Jones, 2022). VE contributes to internationalizing at home in the following ways:

➢ It offers learners the golden opportunity of connecting and interacting with fellow learners from geographically dispersed locations and diverse cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds in the comfort of their home,

➢ Thanks to VE projects and practices, learners can engage in meaningful cross-cultural interactions, discussions, and collaborative tasks and this would expose them to international perspectives and experiences right from their home.

➢ As mentioned, VE provides learners with the opportunity to interact with individuals from different cultures during a certain period and this promotes intercultural communicative competence and critical cultural awareness. Through these interactions, learners can better explore and appreciate different cultures and cultural practices.

➢ During VE projects, learners have ample opportunity to practice their English language skills. Such interactions are especially helpful to improve sociolinguistic and pragmatic skills.

➢ Engaging in cross-cultural discussions and problem-solving challenges learners to think critically about global issues. They learn to approach problems from diverse perspectives and consider the impact of culture on various aspects of life.

➢ VE can be a more inclusive approach to internationalization as it provides access to international experiences for students who may face barriers to physical mobility, such as financial constraints, family responsibilities, or health concerns.

➢ In an increasingly global job market, learners who have participated in VE are better prepared to work in multicultural environments. They develop skills that are highly

valued by employers, such as adaptability, cross-cultural communication, and problem-solving in diverse transnational teams.

4. Global Citizenship Education

As the concept of ICC, VE, and the merits of VE practices and projects were explained, it is worth noting that VE practices greatly contribute to the goal of bringing up global learners and teachers who can live and work in today's globalized world. According to De Wit et al. (2015), global citizenship education is closely linked to the concept of international education. International education refers to "the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society" (p. 29). It can be inferred that international education and global citizenship education mean more than physical mobility because it addresses all relevant processes to make higher education international, intercultural, and global (O'Dowd, 2023).

The goal of international education is to promote global citizenship education in schools and universities (De Wit et al., 2015; O'Dowd, 2023). Therefore, from this point on, global citizenship education and international education will be used interchangeably, and the relevant section on the role of VE in university internationalization will be understood as its role in promoting global citizenship in higher education. There are other concepts such as 'global competence' and 'intercultural competence' used by researchers to address the mentioned processes. However, global citizenship and global competence are two different concepts (O'Dowd, 2019; Porto, 2014). Though global or intercultural competence is closely related to intercultural communication skills, global citizenship and intercultural citizenship pertain to individuals capable of actively engaging in global societies to address worldwide issues and dilemmas. This suggests that global citizens are anticipated to possess a keen cultural sensitivity and the essential abilities to actively engage in societies and contribute to the resolution of global challenges.

UNESCO (2014) defined the aim of global citizenship education as: "to empower learners to engage and assume active roles, both locally and globally, to face and resolve global challenges and ultimately to become proactive contributors to a more just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, secure and sustainable world" (p. 15). As mentioned, global citizenship or

intercultural citizenship can be understood as the implementation of relevant competences defined for the concepts of global competences and intercultural competences. Thus, integrating global citizenship principles into the higher education, especially into English teacher education programs, can contribute to the goal of preparing citizens and teachers who actively engage in their respected societies. Leask (2015) touched on this point by emphasizing that graduates who are trained in this direction "will be committed to action locally and globally in the interests of others and across social, environmental, and political dimensions" (p. 60). Porto (2014) also emphasized the significance of applying competences in foreign language classrooms and promoting global citizenship. She indicated that it combines the aspect of intercultural communication competence typically found in foreign language education with a focus on community-based civic engagement as seen in citizenship education.

Promoting and implementing global citizenship education in educational institutions, especially universities, has been identified by important organizations as well. The UN Global Education First Initiative recognized the promotion of global citizenship education as one of the priorities (UNESCO, 2014). European Union (EU) officials also recognized the promotion of global citizenship in all levels of education in the member states. In the Paris Declaration, which was announced in 2016, it was emphasized that the EU would take necessary steps for "ensuring that children and young people acquire social, civic and intercultural competences, by promoting democratic values and fundamental rights, social inclusion and nondiscrimination, as well as active citizenship" (European Commission, 2016, p. 3). It was indicated in the same document that the EU would put certain steps in action such as promoting critical thinking and media literacy, improving the educational standards of disadvantaged children, and fostering intercultural dialogue among people.

4.1. Models for Fostering Global Citizenship Education

There are different models and approaches to fostering global citizenship in educational institutions and foreign language classrooms (Leask, 2015). These models define certain competences to be followed when adjusting curricula and relevant VE practices can be shaped according to these adjustments as well (O'Dowd, 2023). Existing models for fostering global citizenship education in foreign language classrooms are as follows:

➢ the Council of Europe's Framework of Competences for Democratic Citizenship and Intercultural Dialogue (2016),

➢ UNESCO's model of Global Citizenship Education (2014),

➢ the OECD's Global Competence Framework (2018),

> ➢ Byram's Framework for Intercultural Citizenship (2008).

O'Dowd (2023) indicated that there are numerous differences between these models, yet they share a certain characteristic, which is ensuring that people actively involve in their respected societies and work willingly to be part of the solution.

4.2. The Council of Europe's Framework of Competences for Democratic Citizenship and Intercultural Dialogue

The model focuses on developing the competences (knowledge, skills, attitudes) necessary for active and responsible participation in democratic societies. The framework emphasizes the importance of democratic values and principles, human rights, and active citizenship. It highlights the need for individuals to develop critical thinking skills to analyze and evaluate information critically. Cultural awareness and intercultural competence are central themes, promoting respect for diversity and the ability to engage in constructive dialogue with people from different backgrounds. Key competences of the model are as follows: critical thinking, understanding of human rights, intercultural competence, social and civic responsibility, and media literacy.

The framework serves as a reference for curriculum development and educational policies in European countries. It guides the integration of democratic citizenship and intercultural education into formal and informal learning contexts. Teacher training and resources are often aligned with this framework to support educators in fostering these competences in students.

The model has been criticized because it was created by the Council of Europe, and it merely reflects the European perspective and way of life (Simpson & Dervin, 2019). Yet, Barret and Byram (2020) argued that the model reflects the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and this declaration was signed and accepted by non-European countries and cultures as well. Regarding the use of this model in VE initiatives, O'Dowd (2023) warned researchers and practitioners because the content and principles of the framework might be misinterpreted by people from non-Western societies. The primary aim of intercultural education and VE is to expose students to vastly different worldviews and cultural outlooks. However, educators in other nations might perceive this framework as an effort to enforce European values.

4.3. UNESCO's Model of Global Citizenship Education

UNESCO's model of Global Citizenship Education (GCED) seeks to prepare individuals to become active and responsible global citizens who can address global challenges and

contribute to a more peaceful and sustainable world. It aims to promote values such as human rights, social justice, equality, and environmental sustainability. The model takes a holistic approach to education, aiming to transform not only what individuals know but also how they think and act. It emphasizes the interconnectedness of global issues and encourages individuals to consider the impact of their actions on a global scale. Cultural diversity, intercultural understanding, and the promotion of ethical values are central components of the model.

Key competences of the model are:

- ➤ Critical thinking: The ability to analyze complex global issues and evaluate potential solutions.
- ➤ Empathy and perspective-taking: Understanding different viewpoints and empathizing with people from diverse backgrounds.
- ➤ Ethical reasoning: Promoting values like tolerance, respect, and social responsibility.
- ➤ Sustainable development awareness: Understanding and actively promoting sustainable practices and environmental stewardship.
- ➤ Civic engagement: Encouraging active participation in civil society and global issues.

The model is inspired by a vision of global citizenship that focuses on ideals rather than practicality. It seeks to involve students in exploring universal topics such as sustainable development and peace, encompassing issues like conflict, poverty, climate change, energy security, unequal population distribution, and various forms of inequality and injustice (O'Dowd, 2023). The model is designed to reflect key principles of global citizenship education based on global and multidimensional perspective. Thus, it differs from the previous model. To elaborate on the competences of the UNESCO's model, following inferences can be made:

• An attitude underpinned by an appreciation of various layers of identity, along with the potential for a shared identity that goes beyond individual differences such as cultural, religious, or ethnic distinctions,

• Profound knowledge of worldwide issues and fundamental values like justice, equality, human dignity, and respect,

• Intellectual abilities that encompass critical, systemic, and creative thinking,

• Non-cognitive skills, including social aptitudes like empathy and conflict resolution, as well as communication capabilities,

• Behavioral capacities that enable collaborative and responsible action aimed at discovering global solutions to global challenges and striving for the common good.

4.4. The OECD's Global Competence Framework

The OECD's Global Competence Framework aims to equip individuals with the skills and knowledge necessary to thrive in an interconnected world. It recognizes that global challenges, such as climate change and economic interdependence, require individuals to have a global perspective. The framework focuses on the development of global competence, which involves the ability to understand and engage with diverse cultures, solve global problems, and work collaboratively across borders. It highlights the importance of global awareness and a sense of responsibility toward global issues.

Just like the previously mentioned models, the global competence framework has peculiar competences as well such as intercultural understanding, problem-solving in global contexts and situations, effective communication, adaptability, and civic engagement. The OECD's framework is used as a reference by educational policymakers and curriculum developers to integrate global competence into education systems. It provides guidance on curriculum design, teacher training, and assessment methods to foster global competence in students.

4.5. Byram's Framework for Intercultural Citizenship

Byram's framework for intercultural citizenship (2008) is the extension of his original framework (1997) on the concept of intercultural communicative competence. With this model, he emphasized global citizenship and "service to the community" (O'Dowd, 2023). The framework emphasizes the significance of preparing individuals to participate effectively in diverse and multicultural societies while promoting democratic values.

The framework starts with the acquisition of knowledge about one's own culture and the culture of others. It includes awareness of cultural norms, values, beliefs, and practices, as well as historical, social, and political contexts. Next, individuals are encouraged to develop positive attitudes toward cultural diversity, including openness, curiosity, respect, and tolerance. The framework emphasizes empathy and a willingness to engage with people from different cultural backgrounds.

The framework highlights several essential skills to be acquired for proper intercultural and global citizenship:

- ➤ Linguistic skills: Proficiency in one or more languages is a fundamental skill for effective communication across cultures.
- ➤ Interpretive skills: The ability to interpret and understand cultural symbols, gestures, and non-verbal cues.
- ➤ Interactional skills: The capacity to engage in meaningful intercultural dialogue and adapt communication styles as needed.
- ➤ Critical cultural awareness: The skill of critically examining cultural stereotypes and biases, both one's own and those of others.
- ➤ Reflective skills: The ability to reflect on one's own cultural assumptions and experiences in cross-cultural encounters.

Byram (2008) identifies three interconnected components that contribute to global citizenship:

Knowledge of Culture: Understanding cultural diversity, including language, history, traditions, and values. This knowledge forms the basis for effective intercultural interactions.

Attitudes towards Culture: Fostering positive attitudes such as respect, empathy, curiosity, and openness toward different cultures.

Skills for Interaction: Developing the practical skills necessary for successful intercultural communication and collaboration. This includes linguistic competence, as well as the ability to adapt communication styles and resolve conflicts.

Byram's framework has significant implications for foreign language education. It suggests that education should go beyond language learning and include the development of intercultural competence as an integral part of the curriculum. Educators should create learning environments that promote cultural diversity, encourage critical thinking about cultural issues, and provide opportunities for students to interact with individuals from different cultural backgrounds. In this vein, it can be indicated that Byram's framework is quite a good fit for VE initiatives and practices.

Recent developments in foreign language education emphasize the need for students to use foreign languages in international contexts, including online environments. Transnational approaches acknowledge linguistic and cultural complexity, moving beyond a single national

standard. Foreign language education can address cross-cultural topics like the environment, human rights, migration etc. and promote global citizenship. Foreign language education and digital competence are essential components in nurturing global citizenship. Online communication networks enable students to engage in international interactions, and virtual exchange serves as an ideal tool for preparing students for this globalized scenario.

4.6. Global Citizenship Education through VE

Intercultural communicative competence & citizenship and global citizenship do not automatically take place when groups of learners are brought together from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Byram (1997; 2008) argued that when learners from different cultural backgrounds come together and interact only at the basic information exchange level, critical cultural awareness and proper intercultural communication are not fostered. He called this pre-political level of interaction. Byram (2008) argued that the intercultural interaction taking place among learners from different cultural backgrounds should move from pre-political to political level. At the political level, learners need to be part of instigating change in their respective societies based on their interaction and collaboration with their transnational partners.

O'Dowd (2023) argued that much of the interaction taking place in VE projects organized at universities stay at the pre-political level. Learners interact with their transnational partners and try to critically reflect on those interactions, yet they do not think about or put an effort on changing something problematic in their local and global environments.

O'Dowd (2023) identified the characteristics of VE initiatives that allow learners to instigate change in local and global communities and foster global citizenship education. In such initiatives, opportunities for meaningful cross-cultural interaction should be given to learners. Moreover, learners need to be encouraged to form genuine relationships with their transnational partners. In this vein, learners should be motivated to delve into topics that hold social and political significance in both their own societies and those of their partners. Most importantly, ample opportunities should be provided for guided reflection on intercultural interactions and exchanges.

He goes on to suggest configurations for organizing VE practices and projects in higher education (p. 70):

Class to Class Virtual Exchange,

- ➢ VE in foreign language education
- ➢ Virtual Exchange in STEM

- ➤ Virtual Exchange in Business and Economics
- ➤ Virtual Exchange in the Humanities

Class to World Virtual Exchange

Externalized models of Virtual Exchange

Virtual Exchange as part of physical mobility programs

- ➤ Virtual Exchange for pre-mobility
- ➤ Virtual Exchange as part of blended mobility initiatives

5. Class to Class VE

Class to class VE is the most common configuration of VE initiative. In this type of VE, two or more classes come together in online telecollaborative projects and work on assigned tasks by their teacher or mentor. Class to Class VE aims to enhance students' global competence, intercultural understanding, language skills, and critical thinking through collaborative projects and discussions. It fosters cross-cultural interactions without requiring physical travel, making it accessible to a broader range of students. Students can be at various educational levels, from primary school to university.

As it was explained, VE initiatives and practices rely heavily on digital tools and platforms for communication and collaboration. Common tools include video conferencing software (such as Zoom or Skype), online discussion forums, social media, and collaborative document editing tools (e.g., Google Docs). VE practices are usually facilitated by educators or coordinators from the participating institutions. Facilitators help design and structure the exchange, guide discussions, and ensure the program's success. Class to Class VE involves a variety of activities that encourage interaction and learning between students. For example,

Joint projects: Collaborative assignments or research projects that require students from different classes to work together.

Virtual meetings: Scheduled video conferences or online discussions where students can discuss topics related to their coursework or cultural experiences.

Online forums or discussion boards: Platforms for asynchronous communication where students can exchange ideas and reflections.

Peer feedback: Students provide feedback on each other's work, fostering a sense of peer mentorship.

VE programs can vary in length, from a single session to a semester-long collaboration. The duration depends on the goals of the program and the availability of participants.

Class to Class VE is designed to achieve several key learning outcomes:

- ➢ Improved language proficiency, especially in second or foreign languages.
- ➢ Enhanced intercultural competence, empathy, and cross-cultural communication skills.
- ➢ Exposure to diverse perspectives and global issues.
- ➢ Development of critical thinking and problem-solving abilities.
- ➢ Increased motivation and engagement in coursework.

5.1. Class to World VE

"Class to World Virtual Exchange" is a pedagogical approach that connects an entire class or group of students with external individuals, organizations, or experts from around the world using digital technology. This type of virtual exchange expands students' horizons by allowing them to interact with real-world experts, engage in global discussions, and gain insights into global issues, all without leaving their classroom. It offers a means to bring real-world perspectives and experiences into the educational environment, enriching students' learning, and global awareness.

5.2. Externalized models of VE

Externalized models of Virtual Exchange refer to programs or initiatives where students or participants engage in virtual exchange activities with external partners, often outside their own educational institution. These models involve collaboration with organizations, individuals, or institutions external to the participant's academic setting. Externalized Virtual Exchange can take various forms, such as connecting students with experts, professionals, or community members, allowing them to learn from and interact with external resources to enhance their educational experience and gain real-world insights. This approach expands the scope of virtual exchange beyond the classroom and institutional boundaries, promoting broader and more diverse learning opportunities.

5.3. VE as part of physical mobility programs

Virtual Exchange as part of physical mobility programs is an approach that combines traditional physical study abroad experiences with online collaboration and intercultural exchange. Students who engage in physical mobility programs, such as studying abroad or participating in international internships, complement their in-person experiences with virtual exchange activities. Integrating Virtual Exchange into physical mobility programs provides a

more comprehensive and diverse learning experience, enabling students to continue their international engagement even when they are not abroad. It also offers flexibility, cost-effectiveness, and accessibility for students who may face barriers to physical mobility.

Moreover, VE initiatives can be used as pre-mobility practices that allow students to connect and interact with people from the country where he/she will go as part of a physical mobility program. In this way, learners get the opportunity to explore the culture and cultural practices of people with whom they will meet and live together for a certain period. As mentioned before, physical mobility usually does not ensure proper intercultural communicative competence. A well-designed and pedagogical VE practice can foster ICC among learners, and they can put these competences into practice when they attend the physical mobility program.

6. Key Principles of Integrating VE into Classrooms

VE projects and practices can be easily adapted and adjusted to course syllabuses (O'Dowd, 2023). As it was explained in detail in the section of internationalizing higher education, VE practices and other online intercultural collaboration projects can be integrated into curricula and course programs in various contexts and conditions. However, VE experts have indicated that bringing together groups of learners from different countries on online platforms does not meet the criteria of organizing successful VE and online intercultural collaboration practices (O'Dowd, 2016; Stevens Initiative, 2022). As Byram (2008) put forward, the content of the projects should make sure that intercultural interactions among participants move from pre-political to political level. O'Dowd (2023) briefly identified the required conditions for integrating successful VE practices into foreign language classrooms. He indicated that the content of any VE project (tasks, flow, organization etc.) should emphasize increased meaningful intercultural interaction and pedagogic task design.

The key principles to be applied in VE practices can be listed as follows (based on O'Dowd, 2023):

➢ **Integrate VE into the curriculum**: VE projects and practices need to be integrated into curricula so that they will be established part of educational programs. Moreover, learners' participation in VE practices and their acquired competences should be assessed and recognized.

➢ **Develop rich intercultural learning opportunities:** The task at hand is to create assignments that extend beyond mere information exchange and, instead, necessitate

students to genuinely grasp different cultural viewpoints and cooperate in jointly developing projects or products. Guth and Rubin (2015) suggested that tasks should encourage students to rely on each other for completion. Instead of having students write separate parts of a collaborative essay, they could conduct local interviews, share them with peers, discuss them online, and edit them together.

➢ **Integrate reflection with interaction:** For the VE practices to be successful and meaningful, participating learners need extended opportunities to critically reflect on their intercultural exchange experiences.

➢ **Support learners' foreign language needs:** Along with the benefits of VE initiatives on learners' intercultural communicative skills and collaboration skills, it is expected that non-native learners' English language skills would be improved at the end of projects, especially pragmatic and sociolinguistic skills. Having that in mind, some learners might have difficulty in following up with the tasks and interactions in English-only intercultural projects and such students must be supported to overcome those barriers.

➢ **Clear learning objectives:** VE practitioners need to define clear learning objectives for the participating learners. Specific skills, knowledge, or attitudes that learners are expected to develop through the exchange must be determined. This ensures that the experience aligns with the curriculum goals.

➢ **Technology Infrastructure:** Reliable access to technology and necessary software platforms needs to be ensured.

➢ **Structured Communication:** VE practitioners need to set up a structured communication plan between the participating groups. Moreover, regular interactions, discussions, and collaborative activities must be encouraged in a safe and respectful online environment.

There might be many challenges in organizing and implementing VE projects. Practitioners need to be aware of such possible challenges so that they can take necessary precautions beforehand. Some of these possible challenges can be as follows (not limited to these):

➢ **Time Zone Differences**: Coordinating schedules across different time zones can be challenging. It may require flexible scheduling and asynchronous communication options.

- ➢ **Language Barriers:** Language proficiency can vary among participants. Language differences can hinder effective communication and require additional language support.
- ➢ **Technology Issues**: Technical glitches, poor internet connections, and limited access to technology can disrupt the virtual exchange.
- ➢ **Cultural Misunderstandings**: Cultural differences can lead to misunderstandings or conflicts. It's essential to address these issues promptly and promote cultural sensitivity.
- ➢ **Assessment Complexity**: Assessing the outcomes of virtual exchange can be challenging. It may require developing new assessment methods or adapting existing ones.
- ➢ **Resource Allocation:** Implementing virtual exchange may require additional resources for technology, training, and support, which can strain budgets and time.
- ➢ **Participant Engagement**: Ensuring active engagement and participation from all students, especially in a virtual environment, can be difficult.
- ➢ **Safety and Privacy**: Addressing safety concerns and protecting students' privacy in online interactions is crucial.

7. Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher delved into the realms of intercultural communication, virtual exchange (VE), and global citizenship education (GCE) in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction. The chapter revisited the roots of communicative competence in linguistics and explored its evolution to encompass sociocultural dimensions, paving the way for the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC).

ICC emerged as a vital component of contemporary language teaching, emphasizing not only linguistic proficiency but also the ability to navigate complex intercultural interactions. Byram's (1997) comprehensive model of ICC, encompassing attitudes, knowledge, skills, and critical cultural awareness, laid the foundation for our exploration of practical strategies to foster ICC in EFL classrooms.

One such strategy, Virtual Exchange (VE), has emerged as a transformative pedagogical approach. VE brings together learners from diverse cultural backgrounds, transcending geographical boundaries and fostering cross-cultural understanding. VE serves as a catalyst for internationalizing higher education by promoting global engagement, facilitating cross-cultural interactions, democratizing access to international experiences, and equipping students and

educators with valuable global competencies. Furthermore, it plays a pivotal role in internationalizing education at home, providing meaningful cross-cultural interactions within students' comfort zones.

Global Citizenship Education (GCE) emerged as another crucial facet of preparing EFL learners to thrive in a globalized world. Rooted in international education principles, GCE empowers learners to become proactive contributors to a just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, secure, and sustainable world. By integrating global citizenship principles into higher education, especially English teacher education programs, we can produce graduates committed to action, both locally and globally.

Various models and approaches to fostering GCE in educational institutions and foreign language classrooms were discussed, all emphasizing the active engagement of individuals in their societies and the promotion of democratic values, social inclusion, and intercultural dialogue.

In conclusion, this chapter underscores the symbiotic relationship between VE and GCE. VE offers a practical and economical avenue for promoting ICC, which is a cornerstone of GCE. Together, they prepare EFL learners to be responsible and contributing global citizens, capable of navigating the complex challenges and opportunities of a globally interconnected world. As we navigate the evolving landscape of language education, the incorporation of VE and GCE principles into EFL classes and English language teacher education programs becomes not just a possibility but a necessity to empower learners for a future that demands intercultural competence and global citizenship.

REFERENCES

Barret, M., & Byram, M. (2020). Errors by Simpson and Dervin (2019) in their description of the council of Europe's reference framework of competences for democratic culture. *Intercultural Communication Education, 3*(2), 75–95.

Bennett, M. J. 1993. "Towards ethnorelativism: a developmental model of intercultural sensitivity." In *Education for the intercultural experience*, edited by R. Michael Paige, 21–71. Intercultural Press.

Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence.* Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M. (2008). *From foreign language education to education for intercultural citizenship: essays and reflections.* Multilingual Matters.

Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 1–47.

Chomsky (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax.* MIT Press.

Council of Europe. (2016). *Competences for democratic culture—living together as equals in culturally diverse democratic societies*. Council of Europe.

De Wit, H., Hunter, F., Howard, L., Egron-Polak, E. (2015). *European parliament, directorate general for internal policies of the union, & centre for higher education internationalization (CHEI), E. A. for I. E. (EAIE), international association of universities (IAU). Internationalisation of higher education.* European Parliament.

Deardorff, D. K. 2006. "Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization." *Journal of Studies in International Education 10*(3): 241–266. doi:10.1177/1028315306287002.

Deardorff, D. K., & Jones, E. (2022). Intercultural competence as a core focus in international higher education. In *The handbook of international higher education: Second edition* (2nd ed., pp. 223–242). Stylus.

European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture, Driel, B., Darmody, M., & Kerzil, J. (2016*). Education policies and practices to foster tolerance, respect for diversity and civic responsibility in children and young people in the EU: examining the evidence.* Publications Office. https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2766/46172

Friedrich, P. (2013). Communicative competence in Robinson, P. (Ed.*) The routledge encyclopedia of second language acquisition* (pp.95-98). Routledge.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2013) Integrating intercultural competence into language learning through technology. *Language Learning & Technology, 17*(2), 1–11.

Guth, S., & Rubin, J. (2015). How to get started with COIL. In A. Schultheis Moore & S. Simon (Eds.), *Globally networked teaching in the humanities* (pp. 15–28). Routledge.

Gutiérrez, B., Glimäng, M., O'Dowd, R., & Sauro, S. (2021). *Mentoring handbook for virtual exchange teachers.* www.stevensinitiative.org/resource/mentoring-handbook-for-virtualexchange- teachers/

Hymes, D. (1972). *On communicative competence*. In J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (eds), Sociolinguistics. Penguin Books. ——(1985). Toward linguistic competence. *Revue de l'AILA: AILA Review, 2*, 9–23.

Kramsch, C. (2014). Language and culture. *AILA review, 27*(1), 30-55.

Leask, B. (2015). *Internationalization of the curriculum in context.* Routledge.

McNamara, T. 2012. Poststructuralism and its challenges for applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics 33(*5): 473–482. DOI: 10.1093/applin/ams055

O'Dowd, R. (2016). Emerging trends and new directions in telecollaborative learning. *CALICO Journal, 33*(3), 291–310. https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.v33i3.30747

O'Dowd, R. (2019). A transnational model of virtual exchange for global citizenship education. *Language Teaching, 53*(4), 477-490.

O'Dowd, R. (2023). *Internationalising higher education and the role of virtual exchange.* Routledge.

OECD (2018). *Preparing our youth for an inclusive and sustainable world*. The OECD PISA Global Competence Framework. https://www.oecd.org/pisa/Handbook-PISA-2018-Global Competence.pdf

Öztürk, S. Y. (2022). *Intercultural communicative competence and global citizenship education of ELT student teachers through telecollaboration*. Retrieved from https://www.proquest.com/dissertations-theses/intercultural-communicative-competence-global/docview/2763567956/se-2

Pennycook, A. 2007. *Global englishes and transcultural flows*. Routledge.

Pittarello, S., Beaven, A., & Van der Heijden, C. (2020). *Scenarios for the integration of virtual exchange in higher education.* FRAMES Project. https://zenodo.org/record/5573614#.YnKMHtpBw2w

Porto, M. (2014). Intercultural citizenship education in an EFL online project in Argentina. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 14*(2), 245–261.

Rubin, J. (2016). The collaborative online international learning network. In R. O'Dowd & T. Lewis (Eds.), *Online intercultural exchange: Policy, pedagogy, practice* (pp. 263–272). Routledge.

Simpson, A., & Dervin, F. (2019). The council of Europe reference framework of competences for democratic culture: ideological refractions, othering and obedient politics. *Intercultural Communication Education, 2*(3), 102–119. https://doi.org/10.29140/ice.v2n3.168

Stevens Initiative. (2022). *Virtual exchange impact and learning report 2022.* www.stevensini

tiative.org/resource/2022-virtual-exchange-impact-and-learning-report/

UNESCO. (2014). *Global citizenship education: preparing learners for the challenges of the*

twenty-first   century.   UNESCO.

http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002277/227729e.pdf

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Dr. Samed Yasin ÖZTÜRK

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-5643-9053

sy.ozturk@alparslan.edu.tr

Muş Alparslan University, English Language Teaching Department

Dr. Samed Yasin Öztürk holds BA, MA, and PhD degrees in Applied Linguistics/English Language Teaching. His research interests include Virtual Exchange, Telecollaboration, ICC, and learner autonomy. He currently works at Muş Alparslan University Faculty of Education English Language Teaching Department.

CHAPTER 11: THE WAY TO THE CLASSROOM: EFL PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

Olga PONOMARENKO (iD)

Olena DAVYDENKO (iD)

Olena TARAN (iD)

Abstract

There is considerable research evidence to support the central role of school-based teaching practice in the professional development of pre-service teachers. By engaging in practical teaching activities in real classrooms, they are able to apply the theoretical knowledge and skills acquired in EFL teacher education programs. Extensive and well-supported student teaching experiences are key to a high quality EFL teacher education program at Nizhyn Gogol State University in Ukraine. The university has adopted the Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching (ELT) Methodology at Bachelor's Level in 2020, according to which student teachers undertake school practice throughout the methodology course.

The present paper focuses on the three stages of school practice that EFL pre-service teachers go through on their way to the profession: guided observation, teacher assistantship and observed teaching. The role, organization and challenges of each stage are examined. Principles underlying the practice model are discussed.

Keywords: EFL teacher education, school-based teaching practice, student teaching experiences, guided observation, teacher assistantship, observed teaching

1. Introduction

School-based experience is an integral part of any teacher preparation program and is considered crucial for pre-service teachers' learning and development as it allows application theory into practice and helps to shape student teachers' professional competences and identity (Li et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2020). The exceptional role and importance of school-based teaching practicum for pre-service teachers' professional development is determined by extensive attention devoted to this aspect of EFL teacher preparation programs. A number of studies within EFL teacher education in a variety of national contexts focus on practicum looking into the effect of methodology courses and real teaching practice on student teachers' concerns about teaching (Yalcin Arslan & Ilin, 2018); the opinions of pre-service EFL teachers about

teaching practicum and self-evaluation of their performance (Can & Baştürk, 2018); the beliefs of ELT teacher-trainees about micro-teaching practices (Sarıçoban, 2016); teaching difficulties EFL students face and ways to overcome them during practicum (Marav, 2022; Riesky, 2013); complexity, dynamism and self-organization of pre-service EFL teachers' practicum experiences (Li et al., 2023); the impact of reflective journals on self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service English language teachers (Tavil, 2014); EFL student teachers' practicum expectations, attitudes and attainments (Ulum, 2020; Kazaz & Alagözlü, 2020); the impact of teaching practicum during COVID-19 on pre-service English language teachers' professional development and their views on teaching profession (Choi & Park, 2022; Reyes, 2023); the way practicum changes self-efficacy beliefs of English language teachers (Atay, 2007; Terzi, 2022), etc.

Li (2023) concludes that the practice of learning to teach is a multi-faceted process of 'situated interactions within the complex learning systems' between institutions, individuals, and social discourses. Several issues are reported to prevent school-based teaching experiences from being effective among which is a lack of cooperation between universities and schools often caused by inconsistency between theory-based teaching and practice-oriented teacher learning and results in an inappropriate preparation of EFL student teachers for classroom teaching when it comes to practicum (Li et al., 2023; Valencia et al, 2009). Another issue is related to the quality of supervision, guidance, and support of student teachers (Arshavskaya, 2016; Bailey, 2009; Farrel, 2008). Both university supervisors and school-based mentors are expected to equip EFL student teachers with strategies and tools to cope with the challenges they can encounter during their school experience as well as help them reflect on what they have learned and done in practice. Riesky (2013) looked into the teaching difficulties EFL student teachers face during the practicum and categorized them into three main types: student-related (e.g., students' low competence, lack of motivation, classroom management issues, etc.), self-related (e.g., lack of teaching strategies and ability to manage the class and resources, etc.) and supervising teacher-related (lack of guidance, imposing materials, etc.). The role of the EFL teacher education program is to minimize the above-mentioned difficulties and prepare prospective teachers for practical teaching activities in real classrooms.

Extensive and well-supported student teaching experiences are key to a high-quality EFL teacher education program at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University (NMGSU) in Ukraine. The university has adopted the Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching (ELT) Methodology at the Bachelor's Level (Bevz et al., 2020), according to which student teachers

undertake school practice throughout the methodology course which lasts three years. Carefully phased school experience aims to help student teachers enter the reality of the classroom first as observers (semesters 3 and 4), next as teaching assistants (semesters 5, 6, and 7), and finally as practicing teachers responsible for full-length lessons (semester 8). At each of these stages, there is a strong link between the ELT methodology course and school experience.

2. Guided Observation

Early field experiences have become an important element in almost all teacher education programs around the world, the aim of which is to prepare student teachers for their culminating teaching experience. This type of practicum provides student teachers with excellent field-based opportunities in which they apply theoretical concepts learned in their methodology courses at the university to classroom settings, observe the learners and a school teacher, and assist or even conduct research.

There is no denying that early field experiences play a crucial role in the preparation of student teachers whereas school teachers or - as they are called - mentors serve as models who guide them in the application of theory and instructional approaches introduced in university methodology courses. Freeman and Johnson (1998) suggest that teacher preparation should inevitably include experienced teachers as mentors. The findings of their research show that both pre-service and in-service teachers benefit from each other's classes and they can use the opportunity of being observed to become more aware of their teaching. Mentors' roles are the following: helping apprentices foster their professional skills, enhancing their grasp of subject matter, locating and acquiring resources, acknowledging and acting on the mentees' degrees of ability and willingness to perform, stimulating the mentees' creative and critical thinking, encouraging them to take informed risks, and helping them build the capacity to make perceptive decisions and take appropriate actions (Arnold, 2006; Boreen et al., 2009; Daresh, 2002; Portner, 2008). In collaboration with university teachers and mentors, the student teachers feel their level of readiness to begin their career in education first in student teaching, and finally in their classroom.

One more issue to raise is the transition in examining teacher students and their expectations of universities. Martin (2010) emphasizes that education systems do not foster collaboration between secondary schools and tertiary studies. However, the scholar identifies high school teachers as those who may have the most influence over the development of students' tertiary expectations. The importance of acknowledging this transitional space in which pre-service teachers find themselves is mandatory. A conscious awareness of transferring what a learner

has seen from one context to the other, as Lunsmann et al. (2019) have noted, is necessary to assist student teachers to define and manage the transition from pre-service to full-time teacher.

In teacher education, classroom observation is regarded as an effective teaching means (Blackmore, 2005; Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond, 2004) as it enables observers to identify the nature of teacher behaviour, analyse how classroom activities are structured, and watch the way the teacher and students interact. The literature reveals two methods of observing teaching by students within early field experience (Anderson et al., 2005). In the unguided approach, pre-service teachers have little or even no direction in what to observe while in the guided approach, pre-service teachers observe preidentified types of teacher and learners' behaviors. These two categories are continuous rather than discrete. Guided observation has advantages and disadvantages. Guided observation allows pre-service teachers to identify and focus on a single aspect of teaching. When pre-service teachers view classrooms through this lens, it provides them opportunities to draw conclusions that result in improved teaching practices. Yet, in viewing classrooms through a single lens, pre-service teachers may not see the larger context which can be a disadvantage (Anderson et al., 2005).

The EFL teacher education program at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University typically includes early field experiences (guided observation and teacher assistantship) before final full-time student teaching (observed teaching) (Table 1).

Table 1. Structure of school experience (Bevz et al., 2020)

Semester	Module		School Experience	
			Stage	Frequency
3	1	Understanding Learners and Learning	Guided Observation	Once a fortnight
4	2	Preparing to Teach 1	Guided Observation	Once a fortnight
5	3	Preparing to Teach 2	Teacher Assistantship	Once a week
6	4	Preparing to Teach 3	Teacher Assistantship	Once a week

| 7 | 5 | Specialised Dimensions | Teacher Assistantship | Once a week |
| 8 | 6 | Professional Development | Observed Teaching | Six weeks full-time |

Guided observation practice takes place in Semesters 3 and 4 once a fortnight (one full day or at least four class hours) throughout Year 2. A regular semester is 16 weeks and pre-service teachers have to attend school 8 times per semester, 16 times per year. Each pre-service teacher is assigned to a school mentor with whom they are in close cooperation. One mentor can be in charge of one to five mentees and their cooperation is developmental in nature lasting for three years and going through the stages of observation, teaching assistantship, and finally full-time supervised teaching practice.

The purpose of observation is to enable pre-service teachers to recognize the theory learned in their methodology course working in practice. This is achieved by exposing them to a wide range of teaching and learning experiences. It is important to note that the goal is not to rate or assess the teaching performance of a mentor. The role of a mentor or cooperating teacher encompasses various responsibilities. These responsibilities include but are not limited to, being observed while teaching primary and secondary school learners, guiding pre-service teachers during their observation experiences, and engaging in discussions about lesson- or observation-related issues. Additionally, at the beginning of the semester, school mentors need to meet with university supervisors to establish agreements on the list of students and their timetables. They should also become familiar with the students assigned to them for observation purposes and review observation tasks in advance. Furthermore, to facilitate a comprehensive classroom observation and ensure effective noticing practices, student teachers must become acquainted with the learners in the grade they intend to observe. This includes understanding their characteristics and needs, as well as their daily timetable, break and lunch times. Student teachers should also gain insights into the regular learning processes at the school, including awareness of any emergency measures implemented by the school administration and mentors.

Within a framework, classroom observation is regarded as a good way to refine teacher professional development by covering a wide range of skills and competencies in a variety of knowledge areas (see Table 2).

Table 2. Focus on guided observation for semesters 3 and 4 (Bevz et al., 2020)

Semester	Module	Unit	Focus of observation
3	1 Understanding Learners and Learning	1.1. Psychological Factors in Language Learning	• Learner types • Motivational strategies • Catering for different learning styles
		1.2. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)	• Opportunities for SLA • SLA boosting activities
		1.3. Developing Learner Autonomy	• Learner in focus • Teacher in focus
4	2 Preparing to Teach 1	2.1. Principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	• Features of CLT • Characteristics of a communicative task
		2.2. Teaching Grammar in Context	• Aspects of teaching grammar
		2.3. Teaching Vocabulary in Context	• Possible difficulties with vocabulary • Techniques for presenting vocabulary
		2.4. Classroom Management	• Seating arrangements for interaction • Interaction • Using the board • Teacher talk • Aspects of classroom management

To foster theory-practice connections once a fortnight for semesters 3 and 4, the students are given compulsory observation tasks based on the topics covered in the module according to the curriculum (Bevz et al., 2020). Each observation task within a module consists of two components: first, the so-called noticing task which focuses on the topic of the module and requires students to observe a lesson or a series of lessons and notice a particular aspect of teaching or learning; second, the observation summary or reflection which is based on what student teachers have learned about an aspect of teaching or learning from this observation and what implications for their professional development they envision (see Table 3). After each observation day at school, they submit a written report documenting their observations. Observation tasks during Modules 1 to 5 feed into continuous assessment.

Table 3. Task focus: Catering for different learning styles

Observe how the teacher caters to different learning styles during several lessons. Tick (✓) the instances that you observe. Make notes if appropriate.

Learning Styles	Techniques the teacher uses	✓	Notes
Visual	Charts, graphs, diagrams, and flow charts		
	Flashcards		
	Pictures and graphics		
	Maps		
	Silent reading		
	Written instructions		
	Videos		
	Other (please specify)		
Auditory	Discussion, dialogue, debate		
	Memorisation techniques		
	Reading aloud		
	Listening to recordings		
	Communication in pairs and groups		
	Other (please specify)		
Kinesthetic	Games		
	Role plays		
	Body language/gestures		
	Mime		
	Drama		
	Memorizing while moving		
	Other (please specify)		

Observation summary

What have you learned from this observation? To what extent did the observed techniques seem to help learners to learn?

Regarding the observation summary, it can play a pivotal role in fostering students' observational and noticing skills throughout the whole course of methodology. Each observation task undergoes assessment by the university instructor, who provides responsive feedback. This feedback not only aids in refining their comprehension of teaching methods but also facilitates a more profound understanding of learners, learning, and teaching practices. Mentees are advised to compile a list of challenges or unique learning contexts encountered during guided observation experiences. These situations are subsequently deliberated within student groups in methodology classes. Group-based activities encourage students to share their observations, collectively brainstorm, and formulate effective strategies. Collaborative engagement enhances their ability to derive optimal solutions or recommendations. Student reflective feedback underscores a prevalent issue though – often, observation summaries lack thoroughness and structured reflection from pre-service teachers. It is often difficult for them to draw connections between what has been observed on the topic in focus and their learning and constructing their knowledge about teaching and learning. Frequently, their reflections merely encompass aspects they found favorable or unfavorable in the observed class. This discrepancy emphasizes the imperative for them to cultivate an encompassing reflective approach as they develop their professional identity. This responsibility partially rests with the university supervisors who gradually help pre-service teachers master the art of reflection and become reflective practitioners supervising and aiding not only guided observation but also guided reflection. Pre-service teachers' reflections become more specified and professional within each stage of their professional development as they notice much more teacher-learner interaction during the teaching and learning process.

Building upon the aforementioned considerations, the practice of guided observation, which involves various aspects and educators, is intrinsically geared towards affording student teachers the chance to delve into the teaching profession during the early stages of their academic journey. This practice enables them to assume the role of an observer within a classroom, viewing it through the lens of a teacher. It also entails interactions with the

classroom teacher to engage in dialogues concerning classroom-related matters. Furthermore, it involves the pivotal step of reflecting upon observed lessons in alignment with assigned observation tasks.

3. Teacher Assistantship

In Semester 5 students start their teacher assistantship practice during which they act as teacher assistants immersing in real teaching though in a limited way and gaining the necessary professional development. This approach supports Bolitho's (2002) idea that teaching is a 'doing' profession where choices are guided by thinking rather than being strictly dictated by theoretical inputs on pre-service courses and where teachers' theories of teaching are naturally developed from years of practice and make it possible to find a balance between theory and practice.

The learning experience of a teacher assistantship is an important strategy tool to enhance professional preparation and significantly contributes to all aspects of future teachers' education. This type of practical preparation is structured around the needs of the curriculum and students' learning outcomes. They can still observe experienced teachers conducting lessons, but the focus is gradually shifting towards teaching: planning lessons together with their school mentors and teaching small parts of lessons, for example, an activity from the lesson plan. At the beginning these lesson fragments can be as short as five minutes, gradually increasing to 20 minutes by the end of this stage in Semester 7. Besides, students get acquainted with school policies and requirements and may also be engaged in some other aspects of classroom work (preparing handouts, supplementing activities to those in the coursebook, checking attendance, marking homework, etc.) and in school life (extracurricular activities, conferences, meetings, etc.). This practice lasts till semester 7, and students spend one day per 2 weeks (and later per week) at schools.

Teacher assistantship practice is closely oriented to the methodology course. The focus of this stage is on such themes as Teaching Language Skills, Planning Teaching, Working with Materials, Error Analysis and Dealing with Errors, Testing and Assessment, Teaching Young Learners, Catering for Special Educational Needs, Developing Intercultural Competence, Classroom Action Research, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in Learning and Teaching English. By the end of this stage, students are supposed to be able to understand the principles of designing effective lesson plans, get experience in planning fragments of lessons in the specific teaching context, select and evaluate materials and resources for the classroom, take into account factors that influence learner behaviour, such as social and family

factors, abilities, special needs and learning styles, cater for individual needs in the planning and conduct of fragments of lessons, provide feedback on learner participation, manage activities accurately and fluently in English as the language of the classroom, give clear instructions, have criteria for using L1 and L2 appropriately in the lesson, be familiar with and understand the specific application of different forms of assessment, use an assessment scale and grade learners' work in the four skills and pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, write simple test exercises, analyse errors and provide feedback on errors to learners, use reflective practices, observe lessons and learn from other teachers.

Successful implementation of teacher assistantship practice requires keeping to the procedure. At the beginning of each theme, students should be provided with the tasks for teacher assistantship and informed about the time and place of their teaching and the way they can get help and advice in lesson planning. Students' fragments of lessons must be observed by the school-based mentor, the latter understanding the importance of non-judgmental and supportive feedback and showing empathy.

After teaching a fragment of a lesson and discussing it with the mentor, students are required to complete a post-teaching reflection task (see Table 4). In this task, students give essential information about the teaching context and their feelings before their teaching and immediately after it, describe what went well in that part of the lesson, what teaching experience they gained, how the discussion with the mentor contributed to their professional development, what aspects of their teaching they should pay attention to next time they plan and conduct their parts of lessons. This form, a copy of the lesson plan, and any handouts or materials should be kept in their School Experience files as evidence of their teaching endeavours. These materials may be useful to them in doing their assignments later, they may become the basis for discussions of students' classroom experience with their university teachers when they return to their methodology classes.

Table 4. Post-teaching reflection task

This form is for you to complete after teaching a part of a lesson and after you have discussed the lesson with your mentor.

Your name		Your mentor	
Date of class		Class name	
Time of class		No. of learners	
Topic			
1. How did you feel before you taught?			
2. How did you feel immediately after your teaching?			
3. What went well in your part of the lesson?			
4. What did you learn from this short teaching experience?			
5. What did you learn from your discussions with your mentor?			
6. What aspects of your teaching will you focus on next time you teach?			

Studies on this type of teacher practice seem to be scarce and this model can be considered innovative. Further, the implementation of this model of practice at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University in Ukraine is observed to give positive results. To ensure it, several conditions should be met. Namely, in teacher assistantship practice, school mentors need specific preparation for this kind of professional activity; otherwise, the interaction between the preservice teachers and school teachers is likely to be influenced by the latter's professional experiences; collaboration of university teachers, school mentors, and student teachers should be provided; it is beneficial if special relationship is built between school teachers and student trainees.

4. Observed Teaching

Observed teaching is the final phase of the pre-service EFL teachers' school experience continuum taking place in semester 8. A total of 9 credits (270 hours) is allocated to this practicum which means student teachers spend 6 weeks at schools having work-related experience under the supervision of school-based mentors and University supervisors. EFL

student teachers are expected to participate in everyday school life and to conduct all English lessons in the assigned primary and secondary classes 8 of which are assessed (6 by the school-based mentor and 2 by the university supervisor). Assessment criteria are shared and explained to student teachers before the practicum in ELT Methodology classes as well as in orientation sessions on day one of observed teaching practice.

Observed teaching requires structured practice in a teaching context where student teachers apply new knowledge, solve challenging tasks, reflect on their teaching, and demonstrate an investigative approach to teaching practice. Prospective teachers are expected to integrate teaching principles and practices that are based on language acquisition research including principles of planning interactive lessons and activities (curricular and extra-curricular, on- and off-line); identify learner needs and shape instruction accordingly, assess achievement of learner outcomes. This observed teaching experience aims to inform pre-service teachers' further professional development.

The objectives for the observed teaching practicum are aligned with the program outcomes. Upon successful completion of the practicum, student teachers will:

> ➤ demonstrate a strong background in the systems, functions, and acquisition of language and apply that knowledge to instruction;
> ➤ transfer theoretical and pedagogical knowledge to practice, use best teaching practices, including technology, in the construction of learning;
> ➤ connect theory to practice by creating lesson plans to respond to particular learner needs and social contexts;
> ➤ choose methods of teaching and develop instruction and assessments to the national curriculum requirements;
> ➤ evaluate and adapt materials to specific educational contexts and learner needs;
> ➤ reflect on evolving beliefs throughout the practicum to improve teaching and identify their beliefs about language teaching and learning to inform their practice;
> ➤ research issues related to educational practice and theory to inform further professional development;
> ➤ actively engage in building communities of teachers and learners.

Assessment is cumulative, i.e., each task is assessed in the three domains of the practicum (subject, pedagogical, psychological). Pre-service teachers are required to complete all the tasks listed and get at least 60% to get their credit. Only grades of "3/satisfactory" or better are

acceptable toward graduation. Assessment evaluation criteria and assignment completion guidelines are provided by supervisors at the orientation session before the practicum.

The six-week observed teaching practicum has three stages. Week 1 is dedicated to completing some organizational (preparatory) tasks such as clarifying assignments and consultation hours with supervisors, meeting mentors at schools and discussing further cooperation, observing the assigned classes and mentors teaching, further familiarizing with the school culture and regulations, planning teaching and extra-curricular activities, starting teaching journal, etc. During Weeks 2-4, student teachers plan and teach lessons in the assigned classes according to the timetable, write a reflective report on one of the lessons, conduct extra-curricular activities, make ongoing retrospective field notes in the teaching journal, complete pedagogical analysis of a critical incident in the classroom as well as a psychological profile of a student. In Week 6 student teachers have to finalize and prepare to submit assignments in an agreed format and to get written feedback and marks from school-based mentors.

To get student teachers' feedback on the practicum they are asked to fill out a survey when their observed teaching is over. These surveys reveal most of the problems and difficulties pre-service teachers face while teaching at school, which in turn helps to improve practice-related organization, content, and interactions. In the 2022-2023 academic year, 29 student-teachers volunteered to fill out the form, 96,6% of which (28 out of 29) recognized the value of pre-practice orientation sessions as a reliable source of information about the practicum. 75% of student teachers found assessment criteria fair and clear though a few students reported a lack of guidelines on writing reports. 69% of pre-service teachers reported having difficulties while teaching, including a lack of some EFL methodology skills, psychological issues, and too much workload. Some students found it difficult to teach both primary and secondary school learners at a time. Frequent air raid alerts frustrated most student teachers as they disrupted the flow of the lesson and teachers often could not meet the aims of the lesson having to resort to plan B. Another big challenge for the pre-service EFL teachers was blended learning when they had to shift off- and online lessons. The latter format appeared to be more difficult in terms of managing student engagement in the lesson especially when it came to young learners. In offline learning, 48.3% of student teachers found classroom management the biggest problem while 27.6% found it difficult to apply all the strategies they were taught in methodology classes into practice. 86.7% of pre-service teachers were completely satisfied with their university supervisor's cooperation as they were given all possible support and help. Only 6,9% of students reported a lack of expected mentor-teacher support. This relatively low percentage is because

mentor teachers take on this important role voluntarily fully recognizing their leading role in the framework of teacher training in NMGSU. They start cooperating with pre-service teachers before observing teaching practice and are well aware of the requirements of the EFL teacher preparation program as well as methods, approaches, and strategies student teachers are taught to use in practice.

In general, pre-service teachers reported positive results of their school practice: 69% admit that observed teaching practice met their expectations; 65,5% of participants acknowledge reinforcing necessary skills for future work at school; 55,2% received the opportunity to put into practice knowledge and skills they obtained at university; 51,7 % believe that the practicum proved that they are capable of working as teachers and for 27,6 % the practicum was another argument in favour of their choice of profession. For 31% of student teachers, school practice revealed some gaps in their preparation, which in turn can inform their further professional development. In the survey there are some open-ended questions, for example, *What would improve the quality of your school practice?* About half of the student teachers would like to have a longer period of school-based practice to be able to experiment with different teaching techniques to use them confidently and effectively. Another reason for this necessity is that pre-service teachers need more time to complete their action research which is not assessed within observed teaching practice but the 'intervention' part of which is done while teaching one of the assigned classes.

Another survey is normally carried out to reveal the problems of the practice as seen by the university supervisors and school-based mentors. In the 2022-2023 academic year, these problems included but were not limited to the following list: lack of skill to differentiate instruction in mixed ability classes, especially in groups with SEN learners; lack of flexibility in using different modes of interaction and keeping a balance between teacher and student talking time; doing activities which are not aligned with lesson objectives; lack of communicative tasks; difficulties in giving instructions and managing time in the lesson, etc. Both university tutors and school mentors emphasize the creativity of student teachers and the way they use different learning aids including ICT and work with materials.

All participants engaged in the practice highly value pre- and post-lesson conferences as potent tools for the professional development of student teachers who receive dedicated teaching-related support and encouragement. Pre-service teachers are both anticipated and actively urged to engage in comprehensive discussions regarding their lesson plans with mentors, enabling them to articulate their ideas and occasionally engage in negotiations about

lesson delivery. However, some of the former occasionally disregard this essential communication process or find themselves time-constrained due to last-minute preparations before the lesson. Nonetheless, the post-lesson conference with peers, mentors, and/or university supervisors remains an indispensable requirement. The post-lesson analysis plays a pivotal role in shaping student teachers' perception of their teaching competence and provides invaluable strategies for enhancing their teaching practice. Mentors are anticipated to assist student teachers encouraging them to envision their potential for success. Nevertheless, they frequently find themselves in contradictory positions, being required to guide while also carrying out evaluative responsibilities. In other words, they are tasked with not only offering support but also delivering critical feedback and constructive assessments of the student teachers' teaching capabilities (Hoffman et al, 2015). Previous research suggests that greater educational progress takes place during lesson conferences when mentors permit student teachers to take the lead in determining the topics to be addressed (Futter & Staub, 2017). Consequently, student teachers need to have an open mindset to actively participate in their professional growth by formulating and presenting their own learning needs during lesson conferences.

5. Conclusions

School experience emerges as a vital and foundational component of EFL teacher education at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Being structured and developmental in nature, it allows pre-service teachers to gradually assume greater responsibility on the way to independent teaching and bridge the gap between theory and practice. Student teachers are presented with the invaluable opportunity to learn both *for* and *from* teaching being involved in a dynamic, interactive process that thrives within the classroom first in the role of an observer, next a teacher assistant, and finally a full-time teacher. The classroom environment introduces lots of variables, from diverse student learning needs, styles, and intelligences to the art of communication and engagement, offering prospective teachers the chance to witness and experience the complex interplay of these factors firsthand.

The school experience at NMGSU is built on the following principles underlying the practice model:

➢ School experience is integrated into an EFL teacher preparation program to bridge theory and practice. This integration is crucial for cultivating flexible and adaptable teachers who can navigate the real challenges of English language instruction in actual classrooms.

- School experience is developmental in nature which allows for gradually increasing student teachers' responsibilities in the classroom, beginning with observing and assisting, then progressing to independently conducting lessons as well as doing action research which can enhance their experiences and expand their perspectives.
- School experience cultivates reflective practice encouraging pre-service teachers to critically analyze classroom techniques, strategies, and approaches to refine them and build a strong foundation for continuous professional development.
- School experience fosters cooperation and collaboration between all stakeholders laying great emphasis on mentoring. School mentors play a leading role in the EFL teacher education program guiding the development of student teachers, highlighting areas for improvement, and evaluating their outcomes. Collaboration between EFL pre-service teachers, their mentors, and university supervisors ensures that the practice aligns with the curriculum, teaching goals, and students' needs.
- School experience is purposeful with clearly defined objectives and expectations for EFL pre-service teachers. This helps them understand what is expected of them and what they should aim to achieve during each phase of practice. Clear objectives doubled with regular constructive feedback, both formative and summative assessments can help inform their progress, build on past experiences, and enhance professional growth.

Student teachers' perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes are built over years of studies and school experiences, the latter having a powerful impact on their professional identity growth. Meanwhile, pre-service teachers are supported and guided in an effort to create the knowledge that can constitute their dominant discourses about teaching and being a full-time teacher.

REFERENCES

Anderson, N.A., Barksdale, M.A., & Hite, C.E. (2005). Preservice teachers' observations of cooperating teachers and peers while participating in an early field experience. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 32*, 97-117.

Arnold, E. (2006). Assessing the quality of mentoring: Sinking or learning to swim? *ELT Journal, 60*, 117–124. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cci098

Arshavskaya, E. (2016). Complexity in mentoring in a pre-service teacher practicum: A case study approach. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education, 5*(1), 2-19. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/IJMCE-07-2015-0021

Atay, D (2007). Beginning teacher efficacy and the practicum in an EFL context. *Teacher Development, 11*(2), 203-219. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530701414720

Bailey, K. M. (2009). Language teacher supervision. In Burns, A. & Richards, J.C. (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 269-278). Cambridge University Press.

Bevz, O., Gembaruk, A., Honcharova, O., Zabolotna, O., Zmiievska, O., Kalinina, L., Kamynin, I., Konovalenko, T., Romanyshyn, I., Samoilukevych, I., Taran, O., Tuchyna, N. & Khudyk, K. (2020). *Typova prohrama "Metodyka navchannia anhliiskoii movy" Osvitnii stupin bakalavra.* [Core Curriculum: English Language Teaching Methodology. Bachelor's Level]. NAIR. 126 p. (in Ukrainian)

Blackmore, J.A. (2005). A critical evaluation of peer review via teaching observation within higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management*, *19*(3), 218-232. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540510591002

Bolitho, R. (2002). Reconceptualising language teacher education for the 21st century. In Nagalingam, M. et al. (Eds.), *English language and development for the 21st century: Selected papers.* IPBA (Institut Perguruan Bahasa Bahasa Antarabangsar).

Boreen, J., Johnson, M.K., Niday, D.M., & Potts, J. (2009). *Mentoring beginning teachers: Guiding, reflecting, coaching* (2nd ed.). Stenhouse Publishers.

Can, D.T., & Baştürk, M. (2018). Qualitative research: the pre-service EFL teachers' opinions on teaching practicum. *Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi 20*(1), 187-212.

Choi, L. J., & Park, M. Y. (2022). Teaching practicum during COVID-19: Pre-service English language teachers' professional identities and motivation. *SAGE open*, *12*(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440221119472

Daresh, J.C. (2002). *Teachers mentoring teachers: A practical approach to helping new and experienced staff*. Corwin Press.

Farrel, T. S.C. (2008). Here's the book, go teach the class: ELT praticum support. *RELC Journal*, *39*(2), 226-241. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688208092186

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(3), 397-417. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588114

Futter, K. & Staub, F.C. (2017). Asymmetries in thematic and interactional control in productive mentoring dialogues. Structured Poster Session an der AERA (American Educational Research Association). San Antonio (Texas; USA): 30. April 2017. [Poster].

Hoffman, J. V., Wetzel, M. M., Maloch, B., Greeter, E., Taylor, L., DeJulio, S. & Vlach S.K. (2015). What can we learn from studying the coaching interactions between cooperating teachers and preservice teachers? A literature review. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 52*, 99-112. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2015.09.004

Kazaz, İ., & Alagözlü, N. (2020). Evaluation of teaching practicum for pre-service English language teachers: A scale development study. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 16*(3), 1562-1593. https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.803902

Li, M., Kuang, F. & Dan, W. (2023) Exploring the characteristics of pre-service EFL teachers'

practicum experiences: a complexity theory-based case study in China. *Asian-Pacific*

Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education, *8*(13).

http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s40862-023-00187-4

Lunsmann, C. J., Beck, J. S., Riddle, D. R., Scott, C. E., & Adkins, A. B. (2019). Extending the

apprenticeship of observation: How mentee experiences shape mentors. *Mentoring &*

Tutoring, *27*(3), 342-363. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2019.1631004

Marav, D. (2022). Mongolian pre-service English teachers' voices about their teaching

practicum experiences. *Education Sciences,*

12(5). https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci12050339

Martin, J.M. (2010). Stigma and student mental health in higher education. *Higher Education*

Research and Development, *29*, 259-274.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07294360903470969

Portner, H. (2008). *Mentoring New Teachers* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications. Retrieved from

https://www.perlego.com/book/1005510/mentoring-new-teachers-pdf (Original work

published 2008)

Reyes, C. D. (2023). Lived experiences of pre-service English teachers in online teaching

internship during COVID 19 pandemic. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*,

14(2), 438-447. https://doi.org/10.47750/jett.2023.14.02.041

Riesky, R. (2013). How English student teachers deal with teaching difficulties in their teaching

practicum. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *2*(2), 250-261.

http://dx.doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v2i2.169

Sarıçoban, A. (2016). Foreign language teaching practicum beliefs of student teachers. *Journal*

of Language and Linguistic Studies, 12(1), 166-176.

Tavil, Z. M. (2014). The effect of self-reflections through electronic journals (e-journals) on the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers. *South African Journal of Education*, *34*(1), 1-20. http://dx.doi.org/10.15700/201412120931

Terzi, C. (2022). From practicum to real classroom: Does experience change perceived self-efficacy beliefs of English language teachers? *Focus on ELT Journal*, *4*(1), 124–141. https://doi.org/10.14744/felt.2022.4.1.9

Ulum, Ö. G. (2020). Pre-service English teachers' practicum expectations and attainments. *Turkish Studies - Education, 15(2)*, 1287-1297. https://dx.doi.org/10.29228/TurkishStudies.41629

Valencia, S. W., Martin, S. D., Place, N. A., & Grossman, P. (2009). Complex interactions in student teaching: Lost opportunities for learning. *Journal of Teacher Education, 60*(3), 304-322. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022487109336543

Yalcin Arslan, F., & Ilin, G. (2018). The effects of teaching practicum on EFL pre-service teachers' concerns. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 14*(2), 265-282.

Zhu, G., Chen, B., Li, C., & Li, D. (2020). Examining preservice teachers' professional learning experience during the international teaching practicums: Insights from complexity theory and boundary-crossing construct. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *46*(5), 701-704. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.1770580

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Assoc. Prof. Olga PONOMARENKO

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0003-3874-7460

ponomarenko.ov@ndu.edu.ua

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

The author holds a PhD in Education. Currently she is an associate professor at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Ukraine. Her areas of interest are EFL teacher training, teacher leadership and CPD. Participant of a number of projects. For example, in 2016-2019 she participated in the New Generation School Teacher project launched by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and British Council and developed demo materials for the new methodology course.

Assoc. Prof. Olena DAVYDENKO

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-7204-1405

olenadavydenko.ndu@gmail.com

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

The author holds a PhD in Education and is an Associate Professor of the Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology Department at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State

University. She is the author of more than 25 scientific publications and 3 course books. She participated in a joint project of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council in Ukraine, 'New Generation School Teacher' in 2015-2019. Her research interests are related to the issues of developing language skills in university students, boosting intercultural awareness in language learners, and teacher training for a new Ukrainian school.

Assoc. Prof. Olena TARAN

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-9462-8146

elenataran62@ gmail.com

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University,
Department of Germanic Philology
and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

The author holds a PhD in Education. Currently she is an associate professor at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Ukraine. Her areas of interest are EFL teacher training, learner autonomy and action research.

CHAPTER 12: FROM CONFUSION TO CLARITY: THE ROLE OF ACADEMIC ADVISING IN SUPPORTING STUDENT ENGAGEMENT AND SUCCESS

Liudmyla ANDRUSCHENKO (ID)

Svitlana TEZİKOVA (ID)

Abstract

Enrolling in a university or higher education institution can be a daunting experience for students, who often need more certainty and clarity about their academic journey. They may require assistance selecting appropriate subjects, courses, plans, and programs based on their professional interests and goals and understanding requirements, tests, and course changes. In this context, academic advising emerges as a crucial service provided by American colleges and universities, allowing students to navigate their educational paths and achieve their academic and career objectives. However, it remains to be seen whether this model can be implemented successfully in non-American universities, particularly those operating under the Bologna Process. This chapter explores the potential for academic advising to become an integral part of higher education institutions in Ukraine, as a possible example, with a particular focus on foreign language teaching study programmes. By examining the benefits of academic advising in promoting student engagement, monitoring academic progress, and fostering personal and professional growth, we argue that academic advisers could play a vital role in providing educational support to students in non-American universities. In doing so, we seek to answer pertinent questions about the feasibility and desirability of academic advising in non-American universities and provide a compelling case for its adoption.

1. Introduction

The beginning of the 21st century marked the growth of society's attention to higher education, the modernisation of which has become an objective necessity. Higher education in the civilised world is not just a means of satisfying an individual's professional needs; it is, to a large extent, a spiritual necessity of society.

At the current stage, education reform is taking place in Ukraine, one of the strategic tasks of which, as stated in the State National Program "Education" (Ukraine of the 21st century), is to raise higher education in Ukraine to the level of achievements of developed countries of the world and its integration into the international scientific and educational community. The latter

recognised the quality of education as the primary goal and priority of the development of society in the 21st century. It should be noted that the quality of education consists of several components, an essential among which is the quality of training of pedagogical personnel with a high level of education and professional competence.

At the stage of formation of the national educational system of Ukraine, a transition was made from the Soviet single-level to a multi-level system of higher education. This process resulted from a compromise between the borrowing of contemporary European schemes for the organisation of higher education and the need to introduce the variability of forms of education in changed conditions.

2. Student Centred Learning

The concept of student-centrism in the last 10-15 years is gaining more and more popularity. It is gradually transforming into one of the main foundations of the Bologna Process due to the growing role of education, the general intellectualisation of social life, and its inclusion in the set of fundamental human rights. It is these circumstances that outline the orientation of education towards openness, cooperation, activity, non-directiveness, and informality in relations, student participation in the formation of educational programs and their improvement, the dominance of local conditions over universal schemes, the priority of healthy pragmatism over administrative scales, the flexibility of educational strategies.

Unfortunately, traditional educational models dominate Ukraine without public pressure regarding transitioning to student-centered education. In most academic institutions, the student continues to be considered a passive acquirer of knowledge, which does not involve his active role in forming the curriculum. Opportunities for students to influence the curriculum are minimal. The curriculum is developed through two models, which preserve the monopoly of higher education institutions on defining the selective part of the education content. The first model excludes the influence of the student on the formation of the content of the curriculum. Institutions of higher education independently determine the list of normative disciplines comprising 75% of compulsory subjects and penalties included in the program's variable component and impose them on students through deans. And this, as we can see, is the choice of the University rather than the choice of the student. This situation is most often related to interests in having a stable schedule and the additional educational load of a specific teacher or group, which causes the appearance of irrelevant or untimely disciplines in the variable component. The second model is more common, which replaces consideration of individual

student requests with a more or less controlled collective choice. For the most part, this involves a specific participation of students in the selection, but only a group one, that is, a joint determination by a group or stream of students of specific elective disciplines from the list proposed by higher education institutions. In rare cases, students can individually form a variable component of their curriculum. To create a system for evaluating progress in implementing a student-centred education model in Ukraine, we will formulate its goals, tasks, and tools.

The goals of the student-centred model of education include the achievement by each graduate of a higher education institution of:

– broad knowledge that provides the possibility of quick adaptation to changes in society and the economy;

– good basic skills and competencies that stimulate the desire for continuous learning;

– proper learning skills developed organisational thinking, which allows one to act successfully in conditions of uncertainty, multivariate decisions, and lack of complete information;

– sufficient experience in using knowledge and competencies to solve unfamiliar problems and tasks;

– the ability and experience to make a choice and exercise the right to use one's voice;

– respect for different identities and general rules of civil behaviour that form the basis of trust and cooperation in society.

Achieving the goals of student-centred education formulated above is possible if the following main problems are solved:

– preparing students for life as active citizens of a democratic society;

– preparing students for professional activities;

– ensuring the personal development of students;

– formation of the need for lifelong learning.

Quantitative and qualitative tools that characterise the success of the implementation of student-centred learning include:

1) the presence of a wide field of possibilities in the formation of students' educational trajectories (various ways of accessing higher education, the possibility of obtaining a second speciality, the right to cross-enrollment to master's and doctoral studies, recognition of

competencies acquired in practical activities, a wide range of options for obtaining postgraduate education programs, etc.);

2) the availability of student education using modern interactive methods (educational partnership instead of teaching, use of intensive and interactive learning technologies, the possibility of choosing a teacher and building communication with him in an electronic environment, etc.);

3) ensuring the active participation of students in the formation of the content of education (guaranteed right to choose disciplines of the variable part of the curriculum and the presence of natural alternatives, the opportunity to independently determine the direction of scientific research work and receive unhindered support in the form of qualified scientific guidance and counselling, a dialogic process of correcting the content of education with the participation of all stakeholders, etc.);

4) resource support for creating a student-centred learning environment (adequacy of financial and personnel support for small-group and individualised learning, availability of modern material and technical base and technical teaching aids, offer of current educational content and access to relevant scientific information, including foreign language, etc.);

5) stimulation of academic mobility and its organisational and financial support (offer of national and international mobility programs on acceptable terms, preparation of applicants for participation in academic mobility and cross-cultural adaptation training, recognition of earned credits, study periods and qualifications, etc.);

6) formation of the need and encouragement of student social activity (participation in the management of the educational institution and the national (regional) education system, involvement in public and political movements, inclusion in volunteer and academic work, etc.);

7) awakening the desire for scientific work and the internal need for research (guaranteed access to laboratories, equipment, and resources, the possibility of participation in international and national scientific projects and forums, support for student startups and innovative initiatives, etc.).

3. Curator or Academic Adviser?

One of the critical tasks of the new edition of the Law of Ukraine, "On Higher Education", is introducing the model of student-centred learning into the national educational practice. It ,finds its reflection in different forms and other parts of the text of the Law. The wording of

students' rights recorded in Article 62 deserves special attention. It is important to emphasise that, for the first time, a document of this level recognises the right of students to "choose academic disciplines within the limits provided by the relevant educational program and work curriculum, in the amount of at least 25% of the total number of ECTS credits (60 credits) provided for this level of higher education. At the same time, students of a certain higher education level have the right to choose academic disciplines offered for other higher education levels, in agreement with the head of the relevant faculty or unit" [Law of Ukraine "On Higher Education"] № 2145-VIII (2017) https://zakon.rada.gov.ua

The elective component begins in the second year, and this choice is up to the student. On the one hand, this allows you to make individual educational plans truly personal and opens the way to building integrated educational programs with the possibility of anticipatory study of specific disciplines of the next cycle. In this way, the student can develop his academic path independently.

On the other hand, the student needs help to independently understand, implement, and correctly take advantage of the new changes and opportunities that appear in the higher education system of Ukraine under the conditions of European integration processes and adapt to them.

The first step to this should be taken from the first days of the student's stay at the higher educational institution. It is then that the adaptation of each individual to the new educational system - the system of higher education - will facilitate and make the learning process more effective. Traditionally, in Ukrainian universities, students are assisted by deputy deans, methodologists, teachers of specialised subjects, and curators of academic groups. With the transition of our educational system to European standards, the issue of student adaptation has acquired a special status. Considering the processes and changes that are taking place in the higher education system of Ukraine today, do we have the right, after providing a variety of opportunities for the student to choose a personal educational trajectory (variety of curricula, programs, courses, disciplines), to leave him alone? Will he have enough experience, motivation, and knowledge regarding the need to study certain subjects that will be useful in his future work? The natural answer is no. Unique options for teachers' actions to support students' choices are needed. Here, an academic adviser will come to the student's aid, whose tasks include all of the above. The academic adviser will help each individual adapt more quickly to the new educational system - the system of higher education- which will facilitate and make the learning process more efficient. An academic adviser's tasks include managing

student affairs (the so-called support of students' studies), providing necessary advice, supporting students' motivation in professional training, and being in constant contact with their students.

In the documents of the Bologna Process, we find the concept of "curator-consultant" and "curator-mentor", which to a certain extent coincides with the idea of "academic adviser" used in US universities. Ukraine's higher education system has a deep tradition of the work of the institute of curators, who are the primary organisers of educational work in academic groups of students, especially in the first years of study. Without dismissing the importance of the idea of collective curatorship and in light of the reforms taking place in the higher education system of Ukraine as a result of our country's accession to the Bologna Process, it is worth paying attention to the shift of emphasis in educational work from the collective and organisational form to individual work with the student.

According to the requirements of ECTS, the curator's functions acquire not so much educational content as consultative, coordinating ones. The curator-consultant helps the student draw up an individual study plan, choose study programs and courses, monitor their implementation, and monitor the student's educational achievements. In the future, we see a problematic but reasonable and practical combination of advisery control and educational functions in the work of the same curator-mentor of a student.

Currently, an academic curator or curator in higher education institutions in Ukraine is a teacher who controls the educational process in the group and helps students adapt to the conditions of study at the University, contributing to the formation of a positive atmosphere in the group.

In Anglo-Saxon countries, for example, a curator is called a tutor. They are a defender, guardian, or educator in an educational institution, the student's supervisor. In the American higher education system, an academic adviser or adviser helps a student from the first days of study. The latter allows the student to make their schedule for each semester of study. With the academic adviser, the student finally decides which speciality to choose, how to rationally make efforts for successful study, which subjects (courses, disciplines), and in what sequence to learn. Academic advisers are usually approached by junior students who find it challenging to adapt to new study conditions, curricula, and student life. As we can see, at the beginning of studies in institutions of higher education, the worldview of the personality of a recent student is formed in a new quality for him - the quality of a student and the role of an academic adviser in this is very important.

Today, our students in general, and first-year students in particular, need such assistants, namely academic advisers, whose role and help in forming a student in Ukraine's higher education system can be invaluable. The academic adviser is a new specialisation of the teacher's professional activity, which is realised in the conditions of Ukraine's accession to Bologna. Therefore, there is a need to create and introduce an institute of academic advisers in higher education institutions in Ukraine.

4. Academic Advising in American Universities: Lessons from History

This is where the experience of working as an academic adviser at US universities will come in handy. And this experience is relevant. After all, the academic adviser is an integral part of an American University, and traditionally, his role in forming a student is significant. This idea is confirmed by Ward, who notes that "one of the primary responsibilities of any institution of higher education involves academic advisement of students" (Ward, 1979, p. 1).

It should be noted that the idea of academic advising gained effective development in the universities of the USA, where in the 60s and 70s of the 20th century, the role of an academic adviser in the life of a student was defined, the rules of its activity, duties, functions, behaviour and even the characteristics of a teacher were prescribed.

In most institutions of higher education of that period, faculty members were required to assume the role of academic advisers (Dressel, 1974); attention was drawn to the fact that the system of academic advising involved hundreds of thousands of students, faculty, and paraprofessionals and was becoming mass in nature (Raskin, 1979); universities allocated special funds to support and conduct the activity known as academic advising (Bonar, 1976) Greater interest in advising has developed because of the growing complexity of higher education institutions, the ever-increasing threat of declining enrollment, and the diversity of the students enrolling in the universities. Once viewed as a set of scheduling procedures, academic advising programs have been established to assist students in developing their human potential (Abel, 1980).

The universal practice in higher education had students assigned to faculty members in the disciplines in which the students were majoring. Too frequently, however, faculty advisers had to work with students who were still deciding about a major. The general assumption was that faculty advisers had to guide their advisees toward each advisee's collegiate goal - to graduate within the average span of four or five academic years (Dressel, 1974).

Academic advising systems utilising the university faculty were based on several assumptions:

1. Faculty members are interested in one-to-one situations with students.

2. Faculty members are the most appropriate to guide students in course selections.

3. Faculty members are knowledgeable enough to help students through a maze of degree requirements.

4. Utilising faculty members is the most financially feasible way of providing academic advising.

5. Students want advice from faculty members concerning each student's specific academic program (Dressel, 1974).

The American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers has stated that an adviser is "A member of the college staff (usually a member of the instructional faculty) assigned to assist a student with academic planning" (Ford, 2003, p. 6).

Labelling the "University Adviser" (faculty adviser), the Committee on Advising and Counseling at Stanford University asserts the University Adviser is the student's principal faculty adviser. His prime concern with the student, and the student's with him, is the identification of the student's aims and plans, his interests and abilities, and the planning of a coherent education that builds upon the student's interest and allows him perspective on and awareness of both his limitations and his strengths. The adviser does not plan for the student but helps the student to plan for himself (Kuh et al., 2006).

The faculty adviser needed to be aware of the general study programs of the institution and, more specifically, the courses within his academic division (Shaffer & Martinson, 1966). However, The Adviser's Handbook of San Jose State University emphasises that "an academic adviser does more than offer advice on academic program planning." It continues that "an academic adviser is that representative of an academic department or program to whom a student can turn for the personal assistance that often accompanies the central activity of the university instruction" (Fasanella, 2014, p. 42)

The definition of faculty adviser at Stephens College indicated that: "…every faculty member and professional administrator...assume counselling responsibilities for a group of eight to twelve students. Each adviser is expected to deal with academic, career, and emotional problems and has training to qualify him to do so" (Mayhew & Ford, 1973, p. 51).

Crockett contended that the faculty adviser serves as a coordinator of the advisee's educational experience. The adviser needs the ability to help students define and develop

realistic goals, perceive their needs accurately, and match these needs with appropriate institutional resources. A caring and trusting relationship is essential (Crockett, 1978).

Hardee and Mayhew (1970) have described the role of the faculty adviser in the following ways:

1. The adviser assists the student in effecting a program of study consonant with the latter's interests and competencies.

2. The adviser assists the student in periodically evaluating his academic progress.

3. The adviser assists the student in the initial exploration of long-range occupational and professional plans, referring him to sources for specialised assistance.

4. The adviser serves as coordinator of the learning experiences of the student, assisting in the integration of the various kinds of assistance rendered - health and psychological aids, remedial work, financial aids, religious counselling - the panoply of all services available to the students (Hardee & Mayhew, 1970).

To facilitate the preceding role descriptions, the adviser had to have considerable knowledge of the institution's combined educational offerings, including the total available classes, extra classes, special topics classes, independent study classes, laboratories, clinics, and field experiences. It was essential for the faculty adviser to have a comprehensive knowledge of the curriculum. In addition, the adviser had to be familiar with the college campus in its many structural parts; to recognise the prevailing learning climate on campus; and should have acquired, or be in the process of acquiring, adequate skills for communicating with various students in authentic, appropriate, and meaningful ways (Hardee & Mayhew, 1970).

Agreeing with Hardee and Mayhew, Higbee (1979) asserted that the role of academic adviser had many facets. Advisers had to be knowledgeable and up-to-date on matters concerning (1) curriculum requirements in the student's majors, as well as general education and graduation requirements of the University; (2) registration procedures; (3) student personnel services - medical, counselling, housing, placement, social, recreational, etc.; (4) financial obligations; and (5) job market and employment information. Higbee (1979) also contended that faculty advisers had to know the mechanics of adding and dropping classes, changing majors; transferring from one University, college, or department to another; evaluating transfer credit or courses, petitioning for grade changes; interpreting grade point average computations; and keeping accurate records of each student's progress (Higbee, 1979).

As described in The Adviser's Handbook of San Jose State University, the adviser's role included being the student's academic navigator. Since the adviser is the advisee's primary link

to the study programs of the University, the adviser should be "...the person to whom the student should want to turn for serious, considered advice on academic questions" (Ford, 2003, p. 9). The adviser and advisee are actually "co-navigators" because the student must make many basic decisions about an academic program, utilising input from the adviser. The role of the academic navigator involves offering suggestions, questions, criticisms, praise, direction, and any other comments that will help each advisee define and achieve educational goals (Ford, 2003).

Another role of the faculty adviser is being the student's advocate. Higbee (1979) referred to this role as "A large order!" because the adviser is "...expected to show a sincere interest in the student, become aware of the student's interests and abilities, and be the student's advocate within the department and the university" (Higbee, 1979, pp. 47-48).

Hardee (1961) has written that the role of faculty advising is a tri-dimensional activity, consisting of (1) discerning the purposes of the institution, (2) perceiving the purposes of the student learner, and (3) postulating the possibilities for the student as a learner and promoting these as means are available. It should be noted that these areas of activity remain relevant today.

The first direction - the vision of the goals of the University - requires the adviser to know the mission and vision of the educational institution, to understand the goals of general and special (professional) education, the content of standard and elective courses, teaching methods, as well as the university infrastructure. It is believed that students' satisfaction with studying at the University is a guarantee of the institution's image and attractiveness to applicants.

The second dimension, understanding the purposes of the student, is closely related to the first dimension when one considers that students of a given nature generally gravitate toward the institution that will fit their needs, abilities, and family and cultural influences.

The third dimension, postulating the possibilities for the student as a learner and promoting these, requires cooperation with and from the student. Hardee (1961, p. 116) stated, "It is the ultimate in the advising role". The wise adviser facilitates the student's growth in wisdom, the appreciation for and exercise of knowledge, and the overall integration of learning (Hardee, 1961). Advisers need to weigh their reactions and approaches to each advisee with one major purpose: to enrich and enhance the advisee's academic pursuits and development. This can be accomplished "...by knowing the student's propensities and responding to them with opinions and help - always when asked, often when not asked" (Ford, 2003, p.11).

Kramer and Gardner (1983) indicate that academic advising is a continuing process with sporadic contact between two individual parties. An analogy may describe the role of the faculty

adviser and the advising process: the student advisee is climbing a ladder called higher education, maturation, or achievement. There are various points on the ladder called landings - places to rest, to review progress, and to plan for subsequent efforts. The landings are probably located at different locations on the ladder according to each student climber's needs, wants, and desires. The adviser's role and responsibility is to be available at each landing to help the climber review, learn from past efforts, and plan for what lies ahead (Kramer & Gardner, 1983).

At the same time, Hardee (1959) and Brown (1972) pointed out that although academic advisers had to take care of each student's educational path for whom they are responsible, their options as counsellors were limited. They associated these limitations with the following views:

1. A faculty adviser cannot make decisions for an advisee but can be a sympathetic listener and even offer possible solutions to the student's problem.

2. A faculty adviser cannot increase the native ability of an advisee, but he can encourage the maximum use of the student's ability.

3. A faculty adviser cannot reduce a floundering advisee's academic or employment load but can recommend such adjustments.

4. A faculty adviser should not criticise a fellow faculty member to a student. Still, he can make a friendly approach to any teacher if that teacher is involved in the student's problem.

5. A faculty adviser should not tell an advisee his raw scores on psychological tests, but he can indicate areas in which the student seems weak or strong by discussing centiles derived from local norms.

6. A faculty adviser should not betray a student's confidence on matters of a personal nature, but he can seek appropriate professional assistance in helping a student with minor personal or social adjustment problems (Brown, 1972).

7. A faculty adviser should only attempt to handle cases of emotional disturbances within the behavioural pattern of students adjudged reasonably regularly. When complex problems arise concerning financial aid, mental or physical health, or personal-social counselling, faculty should refer students to professional personnel through the Dean of Students Office (American College Testing Program, 1979).

Even though counselling was recognised as an urgent and necessary matter, under the influence of internal and external circumstances, the performance of these functions shifted from the duties of teachers to university employees specially trained for this work. According to Hoffman (1965), the reasons for such a transformation are related to the fact that (1) more relevant areas of university activity appeared that could receive budgetary support: teaching

excellence, teacher professional development, and improvement of the material and technical base; (2) most faculty were willing to focus only on teaching and research that brought financial stability and affected their status (Hoffmann, 1965).

Thus, already at this stage, we ascertain the emergence of a contradiction between the need for constant work to find an applicant and the lack of employees who could, and most importantly, wanted to implement this activity in all directions. The solution to this contradiction was the introduction of special training for academic advisers in master's level programs. Therefore, the position of an academic adviser in American universities today requires a master's degree, preferably in fields such as psychology and education, hands-on experience in counselling, or a certificate from the National Board for Certified Counselors.

5. Academic Advising: Sample from Ukrainian Experience

There are no positions of academic advisers in Ukrainian universities. It should be noted that in different educational institutions, there are different views on the scope of the functional responsibilities of the staff in terms of providing students with appropriate assistance in planning an individual educational path.

At Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, ECTS curators are appointed among teachers of specialised disciplines (majors). Yes, in study programs *Secondary Education English Language and Foreign Literature* and *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including translation)* a curator, as a rule, is an English teacher who has 6-8 academic hours in a group every week, which allows her to meet with students regularly, monitor their progress, and provide timely advisery assistance. The ECTS curator monitors the group's educational process, helps students choose disciplines, and acts as a mediator between the faculty administration and students.

However, in connection with the rapid pace of innovation in higher education, such as the expansion of opportunities for choosing disciplines and forming an individual academic path, combining studies in two specialities and obtaining double diplomas, academic mobility programs, re-enrollment of the results of non-formal education, implementation of academic support students without special training is becoming increasingly difficult. The training of ECTS curators is carried out at methodical meetings of departments by conducting briefings on issues that need to be resolved. The volume of this information is constantly increasing. As a rule, teachers prefer teaching and scientific areas of professional activity. Performance of functions of academic support of students under such conditions, unfortunately, is increasingly

becoming formal in fact. In addition, the teacher is often not ready to conduct consultative work with students regarding the prospects of further professional and personal development due to a lack of psychological and managerial knowledge.

Students need such help. Especially now, when rapid and radical changes occur in the higher education system. Let's give just one example - the organisation of registration for selective disciplines (optional subjects), which is the basis of a student's academic path.

In 2020, for the first time, students were invited to familiarise themselves with the University's register of elective subjects, choose what most appeals to them and enrol. Instructions on how to do this work were posted on the University's website, action algorithms were explained, and deadlines were set. The role of the ECTS curator at this stage was to observe and provide assistance if necessary. Unfortunately, enrolling students in selective disciplines became chaotic: students did not choose courses individually but as a group, and preference was given to fields that do not require systematic training work but are of a review nature, taught in Ukrainian. There were problems with completing questionnaires and orientation in study schedules and timetables.

In 2023, the approaches to the organisation of this case were changed after analysing the current situation. Emphasis was placed on explanatory work among students regarding the reflection of one's academic style, the importance of expanding the possibilities of professional training, the formation of one's managerial skills through independent planning of one's studies, decision-making, and readiness to take responsibility for the case results. Carrying out such work was entrusted to the curators of ECTS, who were supposed to hold meetings with students, analyse the individual academic needs of students, and predict possible options for their choice of educational disciplines. In addition, ECTS curators, who are usually English teachers, based on the collected information about students' interests and wishes, had the opportunity to review the department's proposals for elective subjects, bring them closer to the needs of students and propose new courses to the register of elective subjects of the University (http://surl.li/kwihq) - *English made easy: from beginner to expert.*

It should be noted that students of these specialities also chose such disciplines as *German for All Occasions, Communicating in French, Polish Communication, Leadership in Life and Business, Emotional Balance of Personality,* and *Practical Psychology.*

Currently, the work of finding applicants is also relevant for the University. We share that today's student, who is satisfied with the conditions of studying at the University, can be a good helper in the search for future students. Therefore, it is essential to create such conditions, on

the one hand, and on the other hand, to help students conduct career guidance work among schoolchildren. Both directions require a focus on information, proper organisation, and additional training on the part of ECTS curators. Unfortunately, this is not always possible due to busyness with teaching and research, lack of knowledge about counselling, information about the development of educational services at the University, and its infrastructure. Therefore, probably, in the American experience we described above, there was a transformation of these functions from a teacher to a specially trained employee - an academic adviser.

One of the tasks of academic support for students is to help them create a positive emotional background for learning. In our opinion, assigning this function to the ECTS curator is not entirely balanced. The specified line of work requires considerable psychological knowledge, the skills of consulting work, and an understanding of the mechanisms of correctional activity. A teacher who constantly works with the group can notice the student's confusion, decreased capacity in his/her work, and interest in learning and refer him/her to the psychological service or other university employees who can help with time management, introduce rational study techniques, and provide informational assistance. Because of this, the Socio-Humanitarian Department of the University is relevant, which is engaged in creating living conditions for students, supporting student organisations, and holding extracurricular events at the University; Psychological Service, whose employees carry out psychotherapeutic and advisery work; Professional Development Center, where you can get information about models of professional development.

6. Conclusions

Our analysis of the requirements of the student-centred learning model of traditional and innovative approaches to the organisation of academic support for students in Ukrainian universities and the American experience in the development of academic advising allows us to make the following conclusions:

➢ students of modern universities will continue to need particular work on their adaptation to studies, assistance in forming an individual educational path, and creating conditions for full-fledged personal and professional growth;

➢ universities have accumulated a variety of experience in organising academic support for students: ECTS curators (Bologna Process countries), academic advisers (US universities), curators, activities of specially created departments, centres, organisations, etc. (Ukrainian universities);

- in the US universities in the '60s and '70s, there was a broad discussion about the content, forms, and methods of academic advisers' work, whose functions were performed by teachers at that time;
- during the existence of this activity in American universities, it has been transformed from a subject matter teacher to a specially trained specialist - an academic adviser;
- academic support for students is universal, and regardless of the country, it is closely related to the fact that universities should take care of preserving their image by improving the quality of educational services, developing infrastructure, and creating conditions for the realisation of student needs;
- at the current stage of higher education development, the role of academic advisers will be constantly growing. As students combine their studies at several universities in the context of internationalisation, there is a need for re-crediting of academic achievements and confirmation of learning outcomes, which requires qualified support;
- solving these tasks can be successful under constant analysis of accumulated experience (national and international), study of rational activity models, and experimental testing of innovative ideas.

REFERENCES

Abel, J. (1980). Academic advising: Goals and a delivery system. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, XXI, 151-155.

American College Testing Program (ACT) (1979). *National survey of academic advising, Final Report*. Iowa City, Iowa.

Bonar, J. R. (1976). Developing and implementing a systems-design training. Program for Academic Advisers. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, XVII. 190-198.

Brown, W. F. (1972). *Student-to-student counseling: An Approach to Motivating Academic Achievement*. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas Press.

Crockett, D. S. (1978). Academic advising: A cornerstone of student retention. In Lee Noel (Eds.) *Reducing the dropout rate*. Jossey-Bass, Publishers. 29-35.

Dressel, F. B. (1974). The faculty adviser. *Improving College and University Teaching*, XXII. 57

Fasanella, K. P. (2014). *Academic advising handbook*. Felician College.

https://www.montclair.edu/csam/wp-content/uploads/sites/202/2019/01/academic-advising-handbook.pdf

Ford, J. (2003) *Academic advising handbook.* Houston, Texas.

https://nacada.ksu.edu/portals/0/Clearinghouse/AdvisingIssues/Example_Univ_Handbook.pdf

Hardee, M. D. (1961). Faculty Advising in Contemporary Higher Education. *The Educational Record,* XLII. 112-116.

Hardee, M. D., Mayhew, L. B. (1970). Faculty Advising in Colleges and Universities. *Student Personnel Series*, (9).

Higbee, M. T. (1979). Student Advisement Centers: A Timely Idea. *Improving College and University Teaching*, XXVII. 47-48.

Hoffmann, R. W. (1965). Counseling and the College. *Improving College and University Teaching*, XIII. 16-18.

Kramer, H. C., & Gardner, R. E. (1983). *Advising by Faculty*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

Kuh, G., Kinzie, J., Buckley, J., Bridges, B,, & Hayek, J. (2006). *What Matters to Students Success: A Review of the Literature.* National postsecondary Education Cooperative.

https://nces.ed.gov/npec/pdf/kuh_team_report.pdf

Mayhew, L. B., & Ford, P. J. (1973). *Changing the Curriculum.* Washington, DC: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Raskin, M. (1979). Critical Issue: Faculty Advising. *Peabody Journal of Education*, LVI. 99-108.

Shaffer, R. H., & Martinson, W. D. (1966). *Student Personnel Services in Higher Education.* New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc.

Ward, M. (1979). *Academic Advisement on a Shoe String Budget*. National Academic Advising Association. Omaha, Nebraska.

Zakon Ukrainy "Pro Vyshchu Osvitu" [Law of Ukraine "On Higher Education"] № 2145-VIII (2017).

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Asst. Prof. Liudmyla ANDRUSCHENKO

ORCID ID**:** 0009-0002-2683-3249

milaandruschenko@gmail.com

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

Prof. Svitlana TEZİKOVA

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-7094-7505

tezikova@ndu.edu.ua

Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Department of Germanic Philology and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

Assistant Professor at the Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Research interests – methods of teaching foreign languages, comparative education.

Participant and/or (co)manager of international and national projects: "English Language Retreat / GoGlobal Initiative" (US Embassy in Ukraine, 2016), Erasmus+ Project "Teachers Certification Centres: Innovative Approach to Promotion Teaching Excellence" (2020-2023), "Virtual Educator Program" (US Embassy in Ukraine, RELO, 2022-2023). Supervisor of Bachelor students' researches.

PhD in Education, Full Professor at the Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Head of University Professional Competence Development Centre. Research interests – continuing professional development, comparative education. Participant and/or (co)manager of international and national projects "Professional development of rural teachers of English in Chernihiv region" ("Vidrodzhennya" Fund, 1998), "Reform and Renewal in Teacher Education" (US Department of Education, 2000-2003), "University and Leadership" (Warsaw University, 2014-2015), "English Language Retreat / GoGlobal Initiative" (US Embassy in Ukraine, 2016), "Decentralization in Education" project Delegation of European Union in Ukraine as sub granting through the "Ukrainian Regional Platform of Public Initiatives" project, 2017), "English for Universities" (British Council Ukraine, 2015-2018), Erasmus+ Project "Teachers Certification Centres: Innovative Approach to Promotion Teaching Excellence" (2020-2023). Supervisor of Ph.D. students' researches, author of the research, and methodological papers.

CHAPTER 13: EFFECTIVE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES: A PROPOSAL

Oya TUNABOYLU iD

1. Introduction

The current century is characterized by speed and influx of mass information. In the midst of mountains of knowledge constructed, transferred and reached by many with a simple click on any keyboard, nothing stands still. Heraclitus of Ephesus envisioned constancy of ephemeral state of the mundane world ages ago by stating '…the only permanent is change…'. Whether it be a simple change of a bus schedule in a residential area or a curricular innovation initiated by the management in a school, we are facing changes in our daily or professional lives and going through adaptive processes accordingly. To this end, it is not going to be a hypothetical argument if we propose that only the professions and those professionals who stand the test of 'professional development' (PD henceforth) can survive. That being said, regardless of profession, professional development is no longer a luxury, but a must. PD is crucial in all walks of life including English language teaching profession. The chapter will first situate the rationale for PD and mention why PD endeavors fail. The author will then propose a four-step scheme to respond to raising voices with regards to effectiveness of PD activities.

There is consensus among educational scholars that it is the teachers who play a pivotal role in constructing and shaping educational practices at all levels to eventually reach desirable outcomes in the educational arena. Yet it is also evident that in the current century, the teaching professionals are not at ease. In the past, teachers were solely expected to 'transmit' discrete items of knowledge one after other whereas, today, in line with the 21st century skills, teachers are expected to 'transform' their students into active agents who think creatively outside the box, approach any issue critically, solve problems appropriately, take the responsibility of learning process autonomously, choose the most effective instructional technology and exploit it in and out of classrooms effectively, and internalize the accumulated knowledge by communicating with peers collaborotively. Reshaped roles and demanding expectations from the teaching professionals within the current ever-changing world of knowledge necessitate ongoing updates on professional skills. Admittedly, the current scenario is that all teachers including English language teachers should be in a constant process of honing teaching skills and enhancing knowledge bases thereby meeting the educational needs of their students.

2. Rationale for Professional Development: Interdisciplinary Connections and New Trajectories

In the present century, the mainstream penchant in scientific endeavors has evidently proved to be of an interdisciplinary nature. The knowledge bases of some disciplines have been intertwined leading to proliferation of interrelated new disciplines with shared or similar grounds. The sisterhood between diverse disciplines naturally impacts the professionals, and teachers are not immune from this disciplinary partnerships. To elaborate, an American mathematician and meteorologist Edward Lorenz's 'The Chaos/Complexity Theory' (a.k.a. The Butterfly Effect), (introduced in a seminal article titled 'Deterministic Nonperiodic Flow' in 1963) has found its place and interpretation in the language teaching profession. At the turn of the millennial century, a world-known applied linguist Diane Larsen-Freeman (1997), stated that chaos theory, which made its debut in natural sciences, might provide new insights into language teaching profession, in a sense reincarnation. Although it is beyond the foci of this chapter to include a full-fledged argument of the connection between chaos theory and language learning, suffice to say that Freeman simply argued the language classrooms exhibit certain features which are observable in the natural world. More specifically, the natural world is a place of diverse interconnectedness including some features that are dynamic, nonlinear, complex, unpredictable just like a typical language classroom.

Although there is no account of established connection so far to the best of my knowledge, another interdisciplinary marriage could be formed between Moran Cerf's the whole brain synchronization hypothesis (2020) and the theory of motivation in language teaching (Dörnyei, 1990; 1998). Being recognized as one of the 40 leading professors under 40 in the year (2019), Cerf Moran serves as an academician holding degrees in a multidisciplinary manner; BA in philosophy, MA in business management and PhD in neuroscience. Drawn from the scientific experiments realized at a neuroscience laboratory, Cerf claims that individuals tend to synchronize and adapt their behaviors in accordance with the others they spend the most time with. According to Cerf, if someone admires somebody's any talent then they should spend time with this talented person that the admired talent would eventually rob off to admirer. With Cerf's this finding in mind, we can encourage language students to spend time and practice with those whose language skills they admire whether it be fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on. In so doing, we can assume that the theory of motivation which has been receiving unwavering attention from researchers in the subfield of psycholinguistics will have anchored

in a legitimate and tangible harbor. Obviously, Cerf's neurological research finding has potential and promising insights into language classrooms. To illustrate Cerf's finding, teachers can simply encourage those students who have an aspiration to speak English fluently to spend most time with fluent peers in the classroom. In today's world where we witness the fluidy in scientific arena allows transfering findings from a variety of disciplines to our contexts is not surprising. That is, neuroscientist Cerf's finding with regards to the synchronization of behaviors can well be transfered to the language classrooms.

Along with the interdisciplinary nature of the current scientific endeavors, technological advances worldwide have started to reshape the educational practices. Simply put, today's classrooms are nothing but like hardwired labs. Smart boards, tablets, or similar mobile hitech toys have long secured their places in the language classrooms leading to the emergence of new innovative teaching paradigms such as hybrid, blended or flipped classrooms. Today's language learners can benefit visually and aurally from a number of technological innovations varying from videoconferencing, podcasts to Web 2.0 tools both in and out of classroom. Incidental learning experiences through available sources outside the classrooms enable language learners to go way beyond what intentional teaching/learning possibilities could offer inside the classrooms. As mentioned earlier, it is one of the impediments of today's language teachers to transform their students from 'spoonfed passive docile status' into 'autonomous learners' who are able to take the responsibility of their own learning outside the classroom and hold the ownership of their own learning thereby making sound decisions to construct and develop effective learning behaviors.

Admittedly, changing profiles of students who are in Prensky's (2005) words, 'digital natives' who were born into the age of computers impose challenges on today's language teachers. Being another pioneering area of research across the world, Artificial Intelligence (AI) is sure to have a potential impact on language teaching profession. The historian Harari in his bestselling book (2018) interprets the current century as a time characterized by twin revolutions in information technology (infotech) and biotechnology (biotech) and draws our attention to the impending unemployment problems thanks to the emerging applications of artificial intelligence and machine learning technologies in almost every field. With regards to the AI applications in language teaching profession, various online phonetic improvement applications with 'voice recognition' function enable learners to record their voice and obtain immediate accuracy checks. As thus, AI has already started to find a place in language learning and teaching practices. This and similar applications of AI herald a totally new era in

educational arena. All these AI applications, doubtless to say, have a potential to shape and open new avenues in language teaching profession. In 2022, a new application called ChatGPT was launched. This application generates ready-made texts for users based on the web-based corpora. It is already clear that language learners will be able to reach at massive source of input and generated texts at their service.

In light of briefly mentioned, somehow, phenomenal changes in the scientific realms across the world which are likely to continue, contemporary language teaching approaches will constantly be informed and enriched by a variety of disciplines forcing today's language teachers to keep up-to date, and somehow stay as 'learners' throughout their careers prioritizing ongoing PD. Taking all these points into consideration, commonsense suggests that graduating from college with a degree is just a start into a professional life which is presumably pregnant with upcoming technological advances, updates on knowledge bases, new skills and strategies. Within the ever-changing world of today, regardless of the profession, almost every professional is predestined to face various changes in workplaces and has to adapt to new requirements accordingly. Simply put, relying on a diploma granted after formal training of some years is out, but ongoing professional development is in. As thus, it would be true to say that lifelong learning, today's mostly-spelled out mantra, holds true for every profession including language teachers.

3. Reflective Teaching and PD

As far back as 1933, Dewey, while differentiating reflective thought from the clusters of idle, random ideas which visit our minds loosely in general, defined reflection as an "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and further conclusions to which it leads" (p. 6). According to Dewey, reflection is organized sequences of thoughts, rather than loosely-produced and each thought is mutually interrelated being not idle but of an organized nature.

Dewey's ideas regarding 'reflection' led to the emergence of the concept of Reflective Practice which has become an area of research in academic circles in years. Schön (1983) further developed and perfected the concept of reflection and categorized it under two broad titles: reflection-in action and reflection-on action. This categorization made the concept more tangible for any given professional practice. Simply put, while 'reflection-in action' referred to spontaneous analysis of thought 'reflection-on action' required retrospective analysis of past experiences. Although the spark on the concept of 'reflection' was first lit up by Dewey, it

would seem that Schön's conceptualization of reflection has had the most influence in the field of language teacher education (Wallace, 1991; Ur, 1997).

Drawing on the conceptualizations of reflection developed by Schön, Wallace (1991) introduced the concept of reflective practice into the field of foreign language teaching. In an argument as to how 'professional expertise' is acquired, Wallace (1991) proposed three major models of professional training; the craft model, the applied science model and the reflective model. Unlike the other two traditional models where the professional trainee learns from an experienced practitioner by mostly imitating in the craft model, and the applied science model which is informed and nurtured by empirical science, the reflective model, Wallace argues, while both the craft and applied science model serve to obtaining what he calls 'received knowledge' whereas Schön's reflection-in action and reflection-on action can well be encapsulated in what he calls 'experiential knowledge' which is of ever-evolving dynamic nature. According to Wallace, a promising teacher training model should include both 'received' and 'experiential' knowledge which requires the trainees/teachers to get engaged in ongoing practice of reflection. To put simply, Wallace's model of professional competence includes practicing received knowledge and experiential knowledge through ongoing reflection.

According to Wallace's reflective model, in order to reach the ultimate goal of professional competence, trainees and teachers as well must be engaged in ongoing reflective analysis of their teaching practices. The notion of reflective teaching in teacher education is viewed as one of the essential ingredients of what constitutes an effective teacher who is reflecting, critically analyzing her practices in an ongoing format through a variety of procedures of professional development.

Little (1987) defined professional development as "any activity that is intended partly or primarily to prepare paid staff members for improved performance in present or future roles in the school districts" (p. 491). Unlike Professional training, Professional development is an ongoing process serving to longer-term goals. Determined by experts, the content of training is designed to prepare teachers for fulfilling the short-term immediate goals of the teaching profession. However, as argued by Richards and Farrell (2005), it would be unrealistic to assume that any teacher training programs of some duration will be able meet all professional needs of teacher candidates who, in turn, will address the learning needs of their students. While formal training is able to teach the basics the teacher candidates need to survive and execute teaching practices in classroom on daily basis, development secures an ongoing growth on the

part of the teachers to understand, analyze and accommodate their teaching in accordance with the changing contextual needs. To this end, it can be said that while training tends to rely on given knowledge by experts, that is, from an 'outsider' 'development' can and ideally should be triggered by 'insider' drives. That is, teachers themselves should have an awareness of their professional needs in the first place and have a willing to engage in professional development activities. Hence nobody can make us 'develop', it is preferably triggered by teachers themselves.

4. Components of Effective PD Endeavors

PD activities are offered to teachers at all levels around the world. However, the debate over the intended efficacy of those activities reveals that despite the efforts invested into designing effective PD activities the result is not cost-effective. Given that the current century is characterized by speed and influx of information the time invested in designing more effective professional activities needs to be reevaluated for the benefits of both parties; the participants and the designers.

In the related literature, professional development activities designed for teacher learning are criticized as they fail to provide the participants with hands-on experiences (Darling-Hammond & Adamson, 2010). Usually interpreted as a 'patchwork of opportunities' by the participants (Drury & Baer, 2011), PD activities are critiqued by the participating teachers. Of the reasons, mismatch between the needs and the content of the PD opportunity comes fore as the most evident one. In order for those activities to be effective a set of components needs to be put into consideration. Bayar (2014) conducted a qualitative research investigating the opinions about the components of effective PD activities. The data were collected via in-depth interviews with the participation of 16 teachers over a period of 12 months. The findings showed that the first component of effective PD activities is related to the extent that the offered activity addresses the needs of the participants. The participants also mentioned their intention to get involved in the preparation and designing PD activities. The more, the participants stated, they are involved in the decision making and designing these activities, the more motivated they would feel to participate.

With regards to the duration and frequency of PD activities, the participants stated their need for 'long-term engagement' better than one-shot seminars or workshops. Another recommendation was related to the quality of the instructors who are in charge of designing and delivering the content of the activities.

Other studies have provided similar components with regards to effective PD activities; the content or the focus of the PD activity, provision of active learning activities, hands-on experiences, coherence, duration of the activity and the collective participation of all the stakeholders (Hawley & Valli, 1999; Kennedy, 1998; Wilson & Berne, 1999).

As it has been already discussed in the above sections in a world where everything is changing teacher learning can never be limited to a formal education of some duration. Then the question rises as to how to design to-the-point PD activities which serve to the actual needs of the participants; in this case, English language teachers. Based on the extant literature and my personal experiences loaded with observational data and ethnographic research, I here propose a four-step scheme that could be followed when designing PD activities. The following figure shows the steps.

In the rest of the chapter, I will first discuss each component and later will exemplify and thus elaborate the proposed scheme on a PD activity which is action research.

5. Four-step Scheme for Designing Effective PD Activities

In order for human beings to understand the value of something and attach meaning to, above all else, they are supposed to feel the need of that thing. Collective mind suggests that just like the inventions morph into flesh and blood as a result of a necessity, in order to foster people to participate in an organized event, the potential participants must feel a need to participate whether intrinsically or extrinsically. These events should not be organized with one-size-fits-all mentality. Instead, PD activities should be organized in accordance with the needs of the participants.
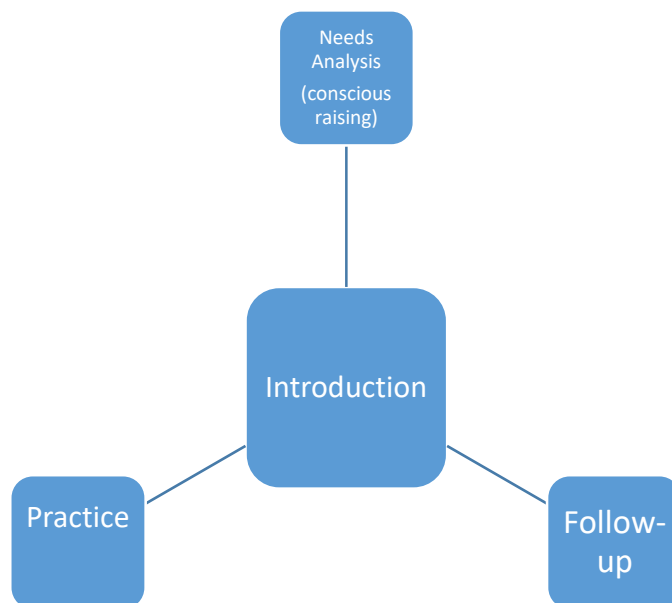
Figure 1. Four-step Scheme for Designing PD Activities

5.1. Needs Analysis and Conscious Raising Stage

In Türkiye, PD activities are typically offered to practicing language teachers in the form of in-service seminars. Ministry of National Education organizes and delivers workshops and seminars across the country. The in-service PD activities are generally executed in big cities addressing to limited number of teachers. Usually mandatory by nature, the topics are decided by the ministry. In order for the PD activities to be effective, the focus of the event needs to be based on the immediate needs of the participants. A general needs analysis survey can be conducted first in the whole country, later in separate regions. As professional needs of teachers practicing at school types, levels, contexts, and locations would be varied, it would be wise to administer first a general needs analysis survey to have a snapshot of the whole landscape across the country. In the survey, clusters of questions could be categorized along a scale to identify teachers immediate professional needs. Based on the findings of the general needs analysis survey, a more specified survey could be administered to the teachers based on the location, region and level. The in-service seminars which are organized based on the specified needs of the practicing language teachers are expected to be more effective than those organized in top-down manner.

In this first part, it is also important to highlight the necessity of PD within the realities of the present time teaching practices. Raising awareness of the participants and drawing their attention to ever-developing nature of the teaching profession is equally important at this stage.

As discussed earlier, in order for teachers to participate in the PD activities, they should first feel the need and internalize it. This can be achieved through questions that are align with the realities of the new teaching context such as digital literacy, higher order thinking skills and similar items mentioned in the 21st century skills.

5.2. Introduction

The second step is to introduce the participants the types of PD activities in accordance with their needs. PD activities range from solo and group activities. Richards and Farrell (2005) list a number of PD activities varying from self-monitoring, keeping a teaching journal, peer observation to action research. This second step is designed to familiarize the participants with available PD activities. To this end, a showcase of activities could be introduced to the teachers in every city across the country. The directorate offices of the national education in the cities would be in charge of designing seminars on PD activities. Within the framework of school-university partnerships these seminars could be delivered by the teaching staff of the English language teaching departments when available. The duration of introductory stage of PD activities might last a week to ten days. At the end of this stage practice teams could be arranged in each school based on teachers' preferred PD activity. At the end of the event, in order to hear the voices of the participating teachers in all senses an evaluation form needs to be delivered. Such an evaluation will both include the teachers in the whole process of building up a learning community and provide insights into future PD events.

5.3. Practice

After the needs of the teachers are identified and the teachers get familiarized with PD activities the third step in the scheme is to transfer the accumulated knowledge into the practice. At this stage, the participating teachers are encouraged to experiment with the obtained knowledge in their immediate teaching contexts. Based on particular professional needs teachers can start to practice a PD activity of their own preference either solo or in groups. At this stage, whenever possible, the teaching staff of the ELT departments can provide guidance. Within the practice stage, pairs can be arranged for team teaching or peer observation. In other cases, teachers might want to keep a teaching journal documenting their own teaching practices in their own teaching milieu. In the same way, a group of teachers from various schools might get together to form a reading community where they can read and discuss some articles they find useful for their professional development. In other cases, teachers might form groups to analyze critical cases

that appear in their particular teaching contexts. What is important at this stage is provide freedom with teachers to choose the PD activity they would love to test out.

5.4. Follow-up

This important stage of follow-up is usually ignored and neglected by the organizers at the expense of potential benefits for the participants. The prevalent idea when designing PD events is usually bombarding the participants with conceptual knowledge during one-shot events. This read-only mentality is unfortunately far from fulfilling the transformative mission of the whole efforts. The fact that the teachers are now knowledgeable about various PD activities and have already started to experiment with them does not guarantee that they are able and lead to realization of theoretical knowledge. Transformative aspect of such PD events requires regular follow-up sessions until the participants come up with intended benefits. That is, a well-organized PD event should examine and check on the outcomes of a specific PD activity teachers are involved. Most of the time, teachers are left to themselves with a bunch of conceptual knowledge. Once the groups are formed among teachers to practice a particular PD activity, follow-ups need to be done on regular basis. This can be organized through seperate meetings with groups of teachers or actual visits to the schools where teachers are involved in PD activities. At this stage, the staff from directorate office of the national education and teaching staff from the ELT departments might work in collaboration.

6. An Examplary PD Activity Through the Proposed Four-Step Scheme

6.1. Action Research Project

In-service seminars of any kind are typical PD activities in Türkiye. Generally organized by the local offices of the Ministry of National Education, these events are top-down and mandatory by nature. As discussed earlier, unlike training, professional development activities are expected to be initiated by individual teachers. Whereas training is provided with trainers outside our will for a certain period of time, professional development is ideally started by self and continues throughout the teaching career. To this end, it is assumed that PD activities should not be obligatory. Instead, teachers should be encouraged to participate in such activities. To extrinsically motivate the teachers and incentivize thereof, some extra points can be added to their professional file of master teachership status.

6.2. Needs Analysis and Conscious Raising Stage

Kumaravadivelu (2005) proposed 3P to describe the post-methods era; particularity, practicality and possibility. Of them, practicality suggests teachers theorize their own teaching practices in

their own particular contexts. Criticizing the one-size-fits all methodologies delineated for teachers so far, Kumaravadivelu argued that each teaching context has its own particularities and the teacher needs to be knowledgeable to draw theories based on individual teaching experiences in their teaching context. Remedial attempts with ready-made methodologies, he argued, could cure the problems that occur in a particular teaching contexts. It is teachers who are expected to produce theories align with the contextual realities. Simply put, if any kind of improvement would take place in language teaching classrooms it would be thanks to the teachers who do not consume ready-made packages of teaching philosophies produced by others, but those teachers who produce their own custom-made pedagogies. Teachers, according to Kumaravadivelu, should not be consumers of knowledge, yet they should produce their own teaching theories. As a matter of fact, this type of perspective is beneficial in two ways; once teachers turn to be theorizers of their own teaching, in the first place, they hold the ownership of their own profession and in so doing they also become empowered. Teacher empowerment is, as is known, an important area of research in the field. One good way of transforming teachers from being mere consumers to producers is to teach them how to conduct classroom research in order to investigate insistent, recurring problems in their classrooms. Therefore, action research needs to be listed in top ten PD activities that are planned to be offered to teachers. Furthermore, the author in a study investigating the PD needs of English language teachers, found action research is the least familiar topic to the participants (2013).

6.3. Action Research as a PD Activity and the Four-Step Scheme

6.3.1. Introduction

The participating teachers are introduced and trained for a week about the action research by teaching staff from the ELT department. At the end of this stage teachers are equipped with necessary knowledge and expertise to conduct an action research in their teaching environments.

6.3.2. Practice

The participating teachers identify a recurrent problem to investigate in their immediate teaching environments. They start practicing what they have obtained through the training. During this period, a professional network has presumably been established among the teachers working at different schools. Collaboration among teachers is expected to yield promising results through collected effort. It is during this stage teachers share ideas and experiences with their colleagues from other schools.

6.3.3. Follow-up

During the follow-up stage of the scheme the participating teachers are visited at their schools by the teaching staff and mini conferences are held. The teachers are asked as to how they have been using the findings of the action research projects. The challenges they have encountered are detailed and recommendations are provided for their next endeavors. The directorate office of the national education might organize meetings with the action researcher teachers in which they can find the opportunity to share their learning experiences with their colleagues. By creating such a learning community, it is assumed that those who are not involved in PD activities are encouraged to participate in following activities.

Darling-Hammond (2010) states that teachers value PD activities based on the extent the activity provides the participants with 'hands-on' experiences and they leave with a take-away that they can utilize in their immediate teaching environment. As is discussed earlier, in today's world of fluidity, PD is a must for every profession including English language teaching profession. However, it is only with those PD activities that are informed by teachers' immediate needs and enhanced by a practical component participating teacher can get most of the benefits.

REFERENCES

Bayar, A. (2014). The components of effective professional development activities in terms of teachers' perspective. *Online Submission*, *6*(2), 319-327.

Büyükyavuz, O. (2013). Professional development for Turkish teachers of English: Is it a must or luxury?. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *89*, 363-367.

Cerf., M. *"A neuroscientist explains why he always picks the 2nd menu item on a list of specials". Business Insider. July 28, 2017.*

Darling-Hammond, L., & Adamson, F. (2010). Professional development in the United States: Trends and challenges. Phase II of a Three-Phase Study. Technical Report. *National Staff Development Council*.

Drury, D., & Baer, J. (2011). *The American public school teacher: Past, present, and future*. Harvard Education Press. 8 Story Street First Floor, Cambridge, MA 02138.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language teaching*, *31*(3), 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign-language learning. *Language learning*, *40*(1), 45-78.

Freeman ., D. L. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquistion. Applied Linguistics, Volume 18, Issue 2, June *1997*, Pages 141–165, https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/18.2.141.

Harari, Y. N. (2018). 21 lessons for 21st century.

Hawley, W. D., & Valli, L. (1999). The essentials of effective professional development: A new consensus. *Teaching as the learning profession: Handbook of policy and practice*, *127*, 150.

Kennedy, M. M. (1999). Form and substance in mathematics and science professional development. *NISE brief*, *3*(2), n2.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL quarterly*, *35*(4), 537-560.

Little, J. W., & Lieberman, A. (1987). Teachers as colleagues. *Report no Pub Date*, *170*.

Lorenz, E. N. (1984). The local structure of a chaotic attractor in four dimensions. *Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena*, *13*(1-2), 90-104.

Prensky, M. (2005). Digital natives, digital immigrants. *Gifted*, (135), 29-31.

Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2005). Professional development for language teachers. Cambridge University Press.

Schon, D. (1983). Donald schon (schön): Learning, reflection and change.

Ur, P. (1997). Teacher training and teacher development: A useful dichotomy. *The language teacher*, *21*(10).

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Wilson, S. M., & Berne, J. (1999). Chapter 6: teacher learning and the acquisition of professional knowledge: an examination of research on contemporary professlonal development. *Review of research in education*, *24*(1), 173-209.

Prof. Dr. Oya TUNABOYLU

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-9926-7973

oyatunaboylu@sdu.edu.tr
Süleyman Demirel University

Oya Tunaboylu holds BA from Atatürk University, MA and PhD degrees from the Ohio State University in TESOL. She also holds an MA in British Theater from Atatürk University. Professor Tunaboylu served as the director of School of Foreign Languages at Süleyman Demirel University. During her managerial post, the school was granted European Language Label Award twice first in 2009 and 2011 for two innovative language teaching projects. Tunaboylu is interested in multidisciplinary approaches to language teaching practices.

Yusuf KASIMİ iD

1. Introduction

Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) has emerged as a promising approach in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction. There is no doubt technological improvements have altered both the pace and the face of language learning in an irreversible way. MALL has become an easy-to-use, cost-effective, adaptable, and fun technology that may be added to traditional language learning techniques or used to offer independent learning chances. From a psychological standpoint, MALL can boost student engagement and motivation in language learning and may inspire students to be more independent, self-reliant, and confident as well as more interested in class activities. MALL can be applied in a variety of ways, including using language learning applications, watching videos or listening to podcasts in the target language, and communicating with native speakers using a language exchange app. This chapter provides an overview of MALL and its application in language learning, highlighting the benefits it offers to learners. The chapter discusses the experimental implementation in the field of MALL (Burston & Athanasiou, 2020), and explore the use of mobile-based affordances and applications in language teaching and learning, both in first language (L1) and second language (L2) contexts.

2. Overview of MALL

Over the last decade, technological advancements have altered the face of language training through Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL). MALL is defined by Kukulska-Hulme (2013) as the use of mobile technology such as smartphones, tablets, or laptops owing to its mobility and capacity to allow unstructured and personalized approaches of language learning. The use of portable technologies such as computers, tablets, and even cell phones opens the door to more broad, feasible, and multi-context learning spontaneously (Huang et al., 2012; Kukulska-Hulme & Shields, 2008). Teachers may now build a comprehensive model of education that allows students to communicate and participate in learning discussions outside

school hours (Hsu et al., 2013; Pachler et al., 2012), and learners can be better prepared for the impending debate if they have access to information (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). In addition, this technology allows for more individualized learning by combining the student's needs with a MALL device tailored to the student's learning methods (Martin & Ertzberger, 2016; Yuniarti, 2014), and it also may enhance current learning practices with freshly discovered innovations via a learning network that supports cooperative, out in the outdoors, and interactive learning methods. MALL comprises various characteristics that are thought to be necessary for meaningful educational endeavors. Several studies have underlined the importance of a combination of practicability and participation in mobile language instruction. Practicality relates to the notion that students are getting more acquainted with the usage of mobile devices, particularly phones (Brooks, 2016). Furthermore, more mobile software for applications that include and integrate ideas from instructors or educators is being created for language learning objectives (Georgiev et al., 2004; Huang et al., 2016; Sandberg et al., 2011). This learning system is always being updated and upgraded in order to provide new elements that enhance its appeal. Mobile learning allows a teacher to establish a venue for students to engage in themed exchanges meant as a complement to classroom meetings. MALL helps students to practice their language and improve their ability in order to actively engage in the socializing process (Delambo et al., 2011). Furthermore, a scientific learning method, it provides students with practical aid in putting what they learn into practice in a real-world situation (Taradi & Taradi, 2016).

2.1. Benefits of Adopting MALL in Language Learning

Mobile-assisted language learning has the potential to revolutionize the way languages are learned as technology becomes more widespread, however, having awareness on the potential benefits of adopting MALL into language learning is of vital importance. Adopting MALL in language acquisition has obvious advantages. MALL can promote student motivation and engagement, enhance learning results, boost student autonomy, offer more individualized learning opportunities, and extend accessibility to language learning. In addition, MALL activities can benefit language learners in a variety of ways, including practicing vocabulary, grammar, and listening and speaking skills; watching educational videos; or even communicating with native speakers. MALL can be utilized both inside and outside of the classroom, as a supplementary to traditional methods of language learning or to provide opportunities for individualized learning.

2.1.1. Greater motivation and engagement

One of the key benefits of adopting MALL in language learning is the increased motivation and engagement it brings to learners. Mobile devices provide a personalized and interactive learning experience, allowing learners to engage with language content in a more meaningful way (Hashim et al., 2017). Research has shown that learners are more motivated to engage in language learning activities when they can use their mobile devices (Hashim et al., 2017). Instructors can create a learning environment that raises students' motivation to a greater degree, but the best learning accomplishment can be attained when the motivation comes from the students themselves (Deci et al., 1999). Several studies show that using MALL improves not only students' learning progress but also favorably influences students' learning motivation. For example, Lai and Bowles (2021) investigated students' experiences using mobile devices as supportive learning instruments outside of the classroom. A questionnaire distributed to of 256 EFL learners in Hong Kong was used to acquire the data. Interviews were done with 18 students chosen from the total number of participants to supplement the findings with additional in-depth data. According to the findings of the study, students used mobile devices for learning primarily as an instrument to assist their learning methods. This tendency resulted in good opinions about the learning experience among students. Furthermore, the findings showed that students' efforts to acquire a foreign language via mobile devices should be heavily emphasized in order to support their own more individualized learning models. Teachers could also explore constructing instructional models in addition to the classroom according to student engagement structures, mobile device usage habits, students' perceptions of MALL, and the lesson arrangement. MALL application may be used as an instrument to encourage students to communicate and so participate in the process of learning. The ability to remain motivated while studying a language is highly critical. Case studies like Warschauer's (2016) examination into the motivating features of MALL have proven that mobile technology's interactive and customized character may boost student motivation. This was demonstrated by the findings that mobile technology was able to improve learner motivation. Many students believe that using MALL applications is more interesting and pleasant, which in turn leads to an increase in their desire to study the target language. In addition, blogging might become an interesting pastime for pupils. Students may actively engage in the writing work through this medium without feeling as overwhelmed as they might in a traditional writing activity (Chang et al., 2017). In other words, this medium has the potential to reduce cognitive burden while increasing students' interest and autonomy in EFL learning. Chang et al. (2017) discovered that the combined

components of interactivity and mobile technology might enhance students' confidence to utilize English in addition to their efficacy in enhancing students' learning successes in another study using a mobile instructional pervasive game (M-IPG). Reynolds and Taylor (2020) discovered an increase in student motivation after MALL was applied using the smartphone app Kahoot! The vast majority of students noticed a change in their class that indicated students' enjoyment of their educational sessions.

2.1.2. Tailored learning experiences

The use of mobile devices to assist in language learning, also known as Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), has emerged as a potent technology that may significantly improve the teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Because of its customized and adaptable nature, MALL has the ability to generate individualized educational experiences that are catered to the specific requirements, preferences, and skill levels of each student. MALL enables tailored learning experiences, as learners can access a wide range of language learning resources and applications that cater to their individual needs and preferences. Learners can choose from various language learning apps, online courses, and multimedia resources that align with their learning goals and interests (Burston & Athanasiou, 2020). This personalized approach to learning enhances the effectiveness of language instruction.

i.   Individualization in MALL

The ability to personalize the learning experience for each student is one of the most important aspects of MALL, which gives teachers the tools they need to do just that. According to Li and Lan (2022), personalization encourages engagement and motivation, which are two essential components of successful language acquisition. MALL applications are able to modify the material, exercises, and assessments in order to fulfill the requirements that are unique to each individual learner since they make use of learner data such as proficiency levels and learning preferences.

ii.   Algorithms for Adaptive Learning Systems

Utilizing adaptive learning algorithms is one approach that may be taken in MALL to realize the goal of providing individualized educational experiences. According to Taylor et al. (2021),

these algorithms continually evaluate the performance of the learner and alter the level of difficulty of the assignments accordingly. For instance, an EFL learner who is having difficulty with vocabulary acquisition may receive more exercises that focus on vocabulary, whereas an EFL learner who is farther along in their studies may engage in more difficult reading comprehension assignments. Learning algorithms that are adaptive make it possible for each individual to advance at their own rate.

iii.   *Learner Autonomy and Self-Regulation*

Learners are given the ability to take charge of their own education when they participate in tailored learning experiences offered by MALL. Learners have the ability to select when and where they will study, as well as which learning resources they will have access to, according to Briones Cedeño (2020), who stress the significance of learner autonomy and self-regulation in MALL. Learners are encouraged to establish their own objectives and keep track of their progress when they are given this level of autonomy, which also fosters a sense of ownership over the learning process.

2.2. Challenges on Adopting MALL in Language Learning

Even while individualized educational opportunities provided by MALL have the potential to provide countless benefits, there are still a few obstacles that must be overcome. To start, considerations surrounding the privacy and security of data are of the utmost importance. According to Kukulska-Hulme et al. (2016), protecting the privacy of learners requires adhering to ethical standards and maintaining complete transparency while collecting and using learner data. Second, ensuring that all students have access to MALL, regardless of the technology resources they have available to them or their level of digital literacy, is a big barrier in many EFL settings (Shin et al., 2017). Last but not least, excellent teacher training is necessary if one wants to maximize the potential of individualized educational opportunities provided by MALL (Metruk, 2020). In order to effectively help their students, teachers need to have a solid understanding of how to make efficient use of the MALL tools and data.

i.   *Adjusting Content Based on Its Cultural Setting*

The cultural backgrounds of EFL students should be taken into account while designing individualized learning experiences in MALL. Studies such as those conducted by Ismaeel and Al Mulhim (2021) highlight the significance of include culturally appropriate information in instructional materials in order to effectively engage students. The learners' cultural origins and interests should be reflected in the learning materials and activities in order to boost their motivation and engagement in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning process.

Because they adapt to the specific requirements and interests of each student, personalized learning experiences in mobile-assisted language learning have the potential to completely transform the way English as a foreign language is taught. Personalized instruction, learning algorithms that adapt to the individual learner's needs, learner autonomy, and cultural relevance are essential elements of successful MALL installations. However, in order to ensure the successful integration of MALL into EFL contexts, obstacles relating to data protection, fair access, and teacher training will need to be surmounted. When it comes to teaching English as a foreign language, future research should concentrate on the creation of concrete solutions for overcoming these obstacles and making the most of the benefits that may be gained from individualized learning experiences provided by MALL.

ii. Possibilities for Real Language Use

Learners are given opportunities for practical language usage through the use of MALL, which gives them the chance to practice and apply their language abilities in real-world scenarios. According to Hashim et al. (2017), mobile devices make it possible for students to interact in conversation with native speakers, have access to genuine language resources, and take part in language exchange platforms. Learners' linguistic competence and cultural awareness both improve as a result of their exposure to language use in real-world contexts.

The use of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education always results in the emergence of specific difficulties and problems that require resolution. The requirement for technical help is one of the most significant difficulties. According to Kwangsawad (2019), the vast majority of MALL operations include the utilization of mobile phones, more specifically smartphones, which have largely superseded the

use of feature phones. However, students have varying perspectives regarding the advantages and disadvantages that come with using cellphones as a tool for educational purposes. According to the findings of a study that was carried out by Kwangsawad (2019), which focused on studying students' perspectives of using smartphones for learning, it was discovered that Japanese EFL students felt more comfortable with the technology of smartphones than with personal computers. This demonstrates the necessity of providing students with enough technological assistance so that they are able to use mobile devices for language study in a manner that is both pleasant and effective.

Another problem that may occur while using MALL is the potential distractions that may be presented by mobile devices. Mobile devices offer a wide variety of learning possibilities; nevertheless, they also bring a number of distractions that might make it more difficult to learn a language. In their research on improving reading abilities with MALL, Keezhatta and Omar (2019) highlight how important it is to solve this issue. They bring to light the fact that on-screen exercises, such as word recognition and decoding drills, may be a very interesting resource for students. However, in order to promote successful language acquisition, it is essential to establish a balance between engaging activities and reducing distractions as much as possible. In addition, the usage of cellphones in the MALL setting might raise issues about the students' ability to focus and engage in the material. Students' evaluations of the usefulness of cellphones in MALL continue to increase, according to the findings of a study on Japanese college students' attitudes about EFL learning via smartphones that was carried out by White and Mills (2014). The survey was done on Japanese college students. They also discovered that pupils were able to work together more easily because to their smartphones. This indicates that even if there is a possibility of diversions, the advantages of utilizing cellphones in MALL, such as enhanced teamwork and involvement, might potentially exceed the possible distractions.

The use of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in educational settings has the potential to confer a variety of advantages on students of foreign languages. Nevertheless, it is essential for educators to make well-informed choices when selecting suitable apps and activities, managing technology in the classroom, and evaluating the effectiveness of MALL-based courses. Several studies provide useful light on these topics and give valuable insights.

Burston (2014) draws attention to the need of conducting statistically accurate assessments of learning outcomes in the study that was carried out as a meta-analysis of the MALL project implementation. According to the findings of the study, only one-fourth of MALL programs were maintained for the duration of a full academic quarter or longer, and many studies failed to disclose objectively verifiable learning outcomes. This highlights how important it is to ensure that initiatives are carried out for a sufficient amount of time and involve an acceptable number of subjects in order to generate significant findings.

Geeraerts et al. (2018) explored the intergenerational advice networks of teachers and found that older instructors were less likely to ask for guidance on creative teaching approaches, subject-matter expertise, or classroom management. On the other hand, younger instructors were more inclined to seek guidance from their colleagues on new teaching approaches and information and communication technology (ICT). This shows that while deciding how to implement MALL in schools, educators should take into consideration the varying tastes and requirements of educators hailing from a variety of generations. Kassem (2018) carried out research to investigate the impact of a recommended in-service teacher training program based on MALL apps on the vocabulary acquisition of students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). According to the findings of the study, MALL has the potential to be a useful tool for enhancing vocabulary learning. As a result of this, it appears that classroom instruction might benefit from the use of MALL apps that have been developed expressly for the purpose of vocabulary acquisition.

In summary, the assistance that these studies offer to educators who are interested in using MALL in their classrooms is quite beneficial. They need to make sure that their MALL initiatives are carried out for appropriate amounts of time and involve a sufficient number of participants in order to collect data on learning outcomes that can be considered statistically reliable. When looking for guidance and information on the implementation of MALL, they should also take into account the unique tastes and requirements of educators who were educated throughout different generations. Last but not least, one way for educators to facilitate better vocabulary acquisition in their language classes is by utilizing MALL programs that have been developed expressly for the purpose of word study.

3. MALL in EFL/ESL Setting

Several case studies and examples can give extremely helpful insights when investigating the efficacy of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. For instance, Stockwell (2019) carried out research on the utilization of WhatsApp, a well-known messaging service, in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. According to the findings of the study, students were able to communicate and work together more easily thanks to WhatsApp, which led to higher levels of engagement and motivation. In a study that was conducted in 2018, Chen and Hsu focused on the utilization of a mobile vocabulary learning application referred to as "Vocabulist" in an EFL classroom setting. According to the findings of their study, using the program helped pupils learn and remember more vocabulary words. In a separate piece of research that Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) conducted, adult students were asked about their experiences using mobile devices for language learning. According to the findings of the study, learners were given the opportunity to engage in self-directed and individualized learning experiences when using mobile devices. This case study highlights the significance of utilizing mobile devices to foster learner autonomy and personalized education.

In addition, Levy and Kennedy (2019) investigated the utilization of mobile devices and applications inside an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. According to the findings of their research, the use of mobile devices to learn a language improved realistic language usage, boosted student motivation, and gave possibilities for real-time feedback. In a study that was quite similar to this one, Kukulska-Hulme et al. (2016) studied the use of a mobile application for language learning called "MobiLearn" in an EFL classroom. According to the findings of their investigation, the application facilitated collaborative learning, boosted student engagement, and offered options for individualized education. In addition, Wang and Vásquez (2018) carried out a case study on the use of a mobile video application known as "VidGrid" in an English as a Foreign Language classroom. According to the findings of their study, the application helped students improve their speaking abilities and gave them more confidence while using English. This case study highlights the potential of mobile video applications for boosting oral skills in the context of language acquisition. In the last study, Thomas and Reinders (2016) investigated the utilization of mobile devices and applications for language learning outside of the traditional classroom setting. According to the findings of their investigation, learners benefited from mobile devices by having access to possibilities for

informal language practice as well as exposure to real language usage. The purpose of this case study is to demonstrate the significance of utilizing mobile devices in settings other than traditional classrooms. These case studies, which were carried out in a variety of years, offer insightful and actionable information on the efficient use of MALL in EFL classes. They highlight the promise of mobile applications for stimulating communication, boosting vocabulary acquisition, promoting learner autonomy, generating genuine language learning experiences, enabling cooperation, strengthening speaking abilities, and facilitating informal language practice.

3.1. MALL in EFL/ESL Context

In the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (EFL), an innovative technology known as Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) has garnered a significant amount of interest as a teaching strategy. The widespread availability of mobile devices and the incorporation of technology into educational settings have positioned mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) as a viable route for EFL students. MALL provides advantages such as ease, accessibility, and the ability to personalize students' educational experiences. MALL, on the other hand, faces a number of obstacles, which, in order for it to be successfully implemented, call for an intensive investigation into their causes and the development of viable solutions to those causes. This literature review explores these difficulties in depth, using ideas from a wide variety of research investigations and points of view.

i.   The Establishment of Technology

Because access to dependable internet and contemporary gadgets may be limited in EFL settings, one of the key challenges that arises in the context of MALL is establishing suitable technical infrastructure. This becomes especially important in settings where English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is taught (Chinnery, 2006). A digital divide can emerge among students as a result of disparities in the availability of mobile devices like as smartphones, tablets, and laptops. This places fair access to learning opportunities in jeopardy. Additionally, the predominance of slow or unreliable internet connections can disrupt MALL activities, which in turn has a significant influence on the overall quality of the learning experience.

ii.   Competence in Digital Media

The second obstacle is to digital literacy, which is an essential component in the achievement of the goal of successfully implementing MALL. According to Stockwell (2010), many people who are learning English as a foreign language as well as educators may discover that they lack the key abilities necessary to navigate and use mobile applications and platforms that have been built specifically for language learning. This problem highlights the urgent need for comprehensive training programs and resources that are focused at enhancing digital literacy among learners as well as instructors.

iii.   Integration of Pedagogy in the Curriculum

According to Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008), incorporating MALL into the EFL curriculum in a natural and seamless manner is a multidimensional problem. It is the responsibility of educators to ensure that mobile learning activities are in line with both stated pedagogical goals and established teaching approaches. To assure the achievement of meaningful learning outcomes, creating a harmonic balance between technology-driven language learning and traditional classroom instruction is the heart of the difficulty. This balance must be struck between traditional classroom instruction and technology-driven language learning.

iv. The Applicability of the Content

One of the difficulties strongly related to MALL centers on determining whether or not material is relevant. According to Kukulska-Hulme and Viberg (2018), it is essential for MALL apps and materials to not only be interesting but also relevant to the language learning objectives of EFL students. Learners may get disinterested in the material if it does not adequately address their needs, which will reduce the usefulness of MALL as a whole. As a consequence of this, the difficulty comes in the production or curation of information that caters to various degrees of linguistic competence as well as various preferences about the learning process.

v. Motivating Learners

According to Godwin-Jones (2011), one of the most difficult challenges in MALL contexts is maintaining learner motivation. The novelty of mobile learning has the potential to initially capture pupils; but, keeping their excitement over time might prove to be a difficult undertaking to do. To effectively address this difficulty, MALL experiences need to be designed in such a way that they combine gamification aspects, interactive features, and the timely giving of constructive feedback. These components all work together to keep learners engaged.

vi. The Protection of Personal Information and Data

According to Kassem (2018), issues over privacy throw a major shadow on MALL apps and platforms, creating a crucial problem that deserves addressing. The need of protecting student information cannot be overstated in light of the fact that mobile devices regularly capture data from their users. In order to effectively address this problem, it is necessary to develop and put into practice stringent data protection policies and practices that will ensure the safe management of personally identifiable information.

vii. Assessment and Feedback

According to Suppasetsereea (2023), determining how to evaluate the development of EFL students in a MALL setting is a difficult obstacle. There is a possibility that traditional techniques of evaluation may not correspond perfectly with the fluid and movable nature of language acquisition. In addition, providing timely and constructive feedback while working in mobile situations can be a difficult logistical challenge. Taking on this task in a way that is both efficient and effective requires the creation of novel assessment methodologies and feedback systems.

viii. The Inevitability of Outdated Technology

The fast speed of technology innovation creates a towering shadow over MALL; mobile devices and apps can quickly become obsolete (Chinnery, 2006). This casts a negative light on the mobile application marketplace. The continuous issue for educational institutions and

organizations is to keep MALL materials up to date so that they are compatible with the most recent versions of computing devices and operating systems.

ix. Professional Development and Assistance for Teachers

According to Alshahrani (2016), in order for MALL to be successfully implemented, it is necessary for EFL teachers to have a strong understanding of both language pedagogy and technology. It is possible that many educators will not have access to the training and assistance they need to properly integrate mobile devices into their teaching methods. In order to find a solution to this problem, it will be necessary to provide teachers with continual chances for professional development.

x. Adaptation of Culture and the Context

The adaptation of MALL materials and procedures to the cultural and contextual demands of EFL learners is the final difficulty that we investigate (Pachler et al., 2010). What works well in one situation might not be appropriate in another, even though it did work well in the first. The task at hand entails meticulously adapting the material and activities so that they are compatible with the cultural norms and linguistic variances that are typical of different EFL learning contexts.

The field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education stands to benefit immensely from the use of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), also known as mobile assisted language learning. However, in order to reap its benefits, educational institutions and organizations will need to face the numerous hurdles that it poses. These problems may be broken down into categories such as pedagogical integration, content relevance, and data privacy. They also include technology infrastructure and digital literacy. It will need a coordinated effort from all parties involved, including those responsible for education policy, technological development, and other stakeholder groups, to overcome these challenges.

In the long run, addressing the issues posed by MALL in EFL contexts will result in language learning experiences that are more inclusive, productive, and interesting to students. Finding

new answers to these difficulties and making the most of the potential that MALL has to offer in EFL teaching will require continual study as well as cooperation in order to take advantage of the rapidly advancing state of technology.

4. Improving Skills in Language Learning through MALL

Within the realm of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), the discipline of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) has emerged as an important educational tool. Learners today have simple access to a vast amount of information and chances for language acquisition that extend beyond the four walls of a conventional classroom thanks to the spread of smartphones and tablets. The purpose of this literature review is to investigate and analyze the conclusions drawn from recent case studies involving MALL in the context of EFL. By doing an analysis of these research, we will be able to acquire insights on the effectiveness of MALL in boosting the outcomes of language learning, as well as into the obstacles and possibilities that it brings.

The usage of mobile devices as a means of acquiring new languages has come a long way over the past several years. The basis for MALL research was initially built by early studies such as Warschauer and Healey's (1998) investigation of the role of email communication in language acquisition (Stockwell, 2010). As technology has improved, academics have begun to investigate the possibility that mobile applications, social media, and multimedia resources may be used to assist in the process of language learning.

i. MALL for Listening and Speaking Skills

Learning English as a foreign language requires developing abilities in both listening and speaking. A study that was carried out by Wu et al. (2021) investigated the usage of mobile applications to increase listening comprehension. According to their findings, learners benefited from having access to interactive multimedia information as well as the capacity to replay audio components. In a similar vein, Wang and Vásquez (2018) carried out a case study on the application of mobile speech recognition technology with the purpose of improving speaking abilities among EFL students. According to the findings, such technology has the potential to offer real-time feedback, which can help improve both pronunciation and fluency.

ii.   Consideration of Culture and the MALL

Integrating target culture into language study is critical because it allows students to gain a better knowledge of the language and foster intercultural communicative competence. As learners of English as a foreign language are frequently required to use the language in a wide variety of cultural situations, cultivating cultural awareness is an essential component of EFL instruction. MALL may enhance cultural awareness and sensitivity by offering chances for learners to connect with speakers of the target language in real-world circumstances. It can also be used to include target culture into language learning by using language learning apps that provide cultural content, through **movies and TV shows in the target language, and** reading articles and blog posts about the target culture.

iii.   Vocabulary Acquisition through MALL

Developing one's vocabulary is an important part of learning English as a second language. MALL can be an effective tool for vocabulary acquisition since it gives learners access to a variety of resources and activities that can assist them in learning and remembering new words. One of the most significant advantages of using MALL for vocabulary learning is that it allows students to learn at their own pace and in their own style. Using language learning apps, reading articles and watching videos in the target language using flashcards are some specific examples of using MALL in learning and improving target vocabulary. Studies such as the one conducted by Chen and Yang (2014) and the one conducted by Ham et al. (2019) have demonstrated that mobile applications specifically created for the purpose of expanding one's vocabulary may be quite beneficial. These applications frequently incorporate elements such as flashcards, quizzes, and pronunciation practice, which enable students to engage with language in a manner that is both more engaging and more personally tailored.

iv.   Gamification in MALL

In recent years, gamification has emerged as a prominent tactic in MALL as a means of boosting motivation and engagement. According to the findings of a research conducted by Subhash and Cudney (2018), the utilization of game mechanics inside mobile language learning applications may result in increased levels of student engagement and accomplishment. Apps that are gamified typically contain elements such as awards, challenges, and leaderboards to motivate users to participate actively in various language-learning activities.

5. Suggestions and Overcoming Barriers in MALL Implementation

The adoption of MALL in teaching English as a foreign language has many apparent benefits, and in order to successfully adopt MALL in language learning, it is important for all stakeholders to play a contributor role. As the first and foremost stakeholders, it is the responsibility of language teachers to incorporate MALL into their curricula and give students opportunity to use MALL in the classroom. Language teachers should encourage students to use MALL in the classroom and bring together MALL-related activities and real life situations into their lesson plans. Language teachers should provide opportunities for pupils to use MALL to collaborate with one another and with native speakers. Students should also be taught how to use MALL apps and resources successfully. As the last step, they should monitor student progress and give feedback on how they are using MALL. As another suggestion to teachers, different degrees of digital literacy that kids have can have an effect on the success of MALL programs. When deciding how to include mobile technology into the educational experience, it is imperative that teachers keep these obstacles in mind. As the second suggestion, the assistance of teachers is an extremely important factor in the overall success of MALL programs. In a study, Yang (2013) carried out a case study that highlighted how important it is for teachers to provide assistance when it comes to enabling MALL, and discovered that students who received instruction from their instructors on how to make efficient use of mobile resources had higher outcomes in terms of their learning. In addition, teachers are able to select and propose particular pieces of content, such as applications or materials, that are in line with the curriculum. As the final suggestion, it is important to assess the effects of MALL on Students' Language Proficiency. The impact of using mobile apps to help in language learning may yield findings on the language competency of EFL students, and this may unveil the considerable gains in reading, writing, listening, and speaking abilities, emphasizing the all-encompassing nature of the advantages provided by MALL. As the second stakeholder, it is the responsibility of language learners to take use of the MALL opportunities that are offered to them. MALL should be used by language learners to practice their language abilities, improve their vocabulary and language use, and connect with native speakers. Learners should also set achievable goals for themselves and keep track of their progress. In addition to two main stakeholders, administrators can offer financial support for MALL resources, including mobile equipment, apps, and training. As another contribution, they might provide training to language teachers on how to include MALL into their curricula, and they

can offer technical assistance to students who use MALL. As another stakeholder of MALL, effective MALL apps and materials that address the needs of language learners and teachers can be developed by technology companies. As the last word, it is important research institutions conduct studies on the effectiveness of MALL and establish best practices for its application, and publishers can create MALL-compatible textbooks and other learning resources.

REFERENCES

Alshahrani, M. (2016). A brief historical perspective of English in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics*, 26, 43-47.

Boix Mansilla, V., & Jackson, A. (2011). *Educating for global competency.* Asia Society.

Briones Cedeño, T. A. (2020). *Facilitating self-regulation with mobile devices to improve spoken interaction* (Master's thesis, Universidad Casa Grande. Departamento de Posgrado).

Brooks, D. C. (2016). *ECAR study of undergraduate students and information technology.* Educause Center for Analysis and Research. Retrieved from https://library.educause.edu/~/media/files/library/2016/10/ers1605.pdf

Burston, J. (2014). Twenty years of mall project implementation: a meta-analysis of learning outcomes. *Recall, 27*(1), 4-20. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0958344014000159

Burston, J. and Athanasiou, A. (2020). Twenty-five years of mall experimental implementation studies. *Recent Tools for Computer- And Mobile-Assisted Foreign Language Learning,* 35-59. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-7998-1097-1.ch002

Chang, C., Shih, J. L., & Chang, C. K. (2017). A mobile instructional pervasive game method for language learning. *Universal Access in the Information Society, 16*, 653-665.

Chen, C. M., & Hsu, C. Y. (2018). The effect of a mobile vocabulary learning application on vocabulary acquisition and retention. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 31*(5-6), 519-540. doi:10.1080/09588221.2017.1410734.

Chen, C. M., & Yang, Y. T. C. (2014). Personalized mobile English vocabulary learning based on item response theory and learning memory cycle. *Educational Technology & Society, 17*(3), 134-148.

Chinnery, G. M. (2006). Emerging technologies: Going to the MALL. In P. Hubbard & M. Levy (Eds.), *Teacher education in CALL* (pp. 111-126). John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. M. (1999). A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychological bulletin, 125*(6), 627.

DeLambo, D. A., Homa, D., Peters, R. H., DeLambo, A. M., & Chandras, K. V. (2011). Facebook and social media: Implications for counseling college students. *American Counseling Association's VISTAS 2011 Annual Electronic Monograph*. Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Geeraerts, K., Vanhoof, J., & Bossche, P. (2018). Teachers' intergenerational advice and information seeking: content matters!. *Journal of Professional Capital and Community, 3*(4), 256-271. https://doi.org/10.1108/jpcc-11-2017-0026

Georgiev, T., Georgieva, E., & Smrikarov, A. (2004). M-learning: A new stage of e-learning. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Computer Systems and Technologies CompSysTech, 4*(28), 1-4.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2011). Mobile apps for language learning. *Language Learning & Technology, 15*(2), 2-11.

Ham, K., Chin, S., Suh, Y. J., Rhee, M., Yu, E. S., Lee, H. J., ... & Chung, K. M. (2019). Preliminary results from a randomized controlled study for an app-based cognitive behavioral therapy program for depression and anxiety in cancer patients. *Frontiers in psychology, 10*, 1592.

Hashim, H., Yunus, M., Embi, M., & Ozir, N. (2017). Mobile-assisted language learning (mall) for ESL learners: a review of affordances and constraints. *Sains Humanika, 9*(1-5). https://doi.org/10.11113/sh.v9n1-5.1175

Hsu, C., Hwang, G., & Chang, C. (2013). A personalized recommendation-based mobile learning approach to improving the reading performance of EFL students. *Computers & Education, 63*(1), 327–336.

Huang, C. S. J., Yang, S. J. H., Chiang, T. H. C., & Su, A. Y. S. (2016). Effects of situated mobile learning approach on learning motivation and performance of EFL students, *Journal of Educational Technology & Society, 19*(1), 263–276.

Huang, Y. M., Huang, S. H., & Lin, Y. T. (2012). A ubiquitous English vocabulary learning system: Evidence of active/passive attitudes vs. usefulness/ease-of-use. *Computers and Education, 58*(1), 273-282. doi:10.1016/j.compedu.2011.08.008

Ismaeel, D., & Al Mulhim, E. (2021). The influence of interactive and static infographics on the academic achievement of reflective and impulsive students. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 37*(1), 147-162.

Joo, Y. J., Park, S., & Lim, E. (2018). Factors influencing preservice teachers' intention to use technology: TPACK, teacher self-efficacy, and technology acceptance model. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society, 21*(3), 48-59.

Kassem, M. (2018). The effect of a suggested in-service teacher training program based on mall applications on developing EFL students' vocabulary acquisition. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 9*(2), 250. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0902.05

Keezhatta, M. & Omar, A. (2019). Enhancing reading skills for Saudi secondary school students through mobile assisted language learning (mall): An experimental study. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 9*(1), 437. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v9n1p437

Kukulska-Hulme, A. (2013). Mobile-assisted language learning. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 3701–3709). Wiley.

Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Shield, L. (2008). An overview of mobile assisted language learning: From content delivery to supported collaboration and interaction. *ReCALL, 20*(03), 271–289.

Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Viberg, O. (2018). Mobile collaborative language learning: State of the art. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 49*(2), 207-218.

Kukulska-Hulme, A., Norris, L., & Donohue, J. (2016). *Mobile pedagogy for English language teaching: A guide for teachers.* British Council.

Kwangsawad, T. (2019). University students' perceptions of mall in EFL classes. *Studies in English Language Teaching, 7*(1), 75. https://doi.org/10.22158/selt.v7n1p75

Levy, M., & Kennedy, C. (2019). Mobile devices and language learning. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Contemporary Computer-Assisted Language Learning* (pp. 139-154). Bloomsbury Academic.

Li, P., & Lan, Y. J. (2022). Digital language learning (DLL): Insights from behavior, cognition, and the brain. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 25*(3), 361-378.

Martin, F., & Ertzberger, J. (2016). Effects of reflection type in the here and now mobile learning environment: Here and now mobile learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 47*(5), 932-944. doi:10.1111/bjet.12327

Metruk, R. (2020). Confronting the challenges of MALL: Distraction, cheating, and teacher readiness. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET), 15*(2), 4-14.

Pachler, N., Bachmair, B., & Cook, J. (2010). *Mobile learning: Structures, agency, practices.* Springer.

Pachler, N., Ranieri, M., Manca, S., & Cook, J. (2012). Editorial: Social networking and mobile learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 43*(5), 707–710. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8535.2012.01365.x

Reynolds, E. D., & Taylor, B. (2020). Kahoot!: EFL instructors' implementation experiences and impacts on students' vocabulary knowledge. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal, 21*(2), 70-92.

Sandberg, J., Maris, M., & de Geus, K. (2011). Mobile English learning: An evidence based study with fifth graders. *Computers & Education, 57*(1), 1334-1347.

Shin, S., Lee, J. K., & Ha, M. (2017). Influence of career motivation on science learning in Korean high-school students. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education, 13*(5), 1517-1538.

Stockwell, G. (2010). Using mobile phones for vocabulary activities: Examining the effect of the platform. *Language Learning & Technology, 14*(2), 95-110.

Stockwell, G. (2019). Using whatsapp in the EFL classroom: A case study. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Contemporary Computer-Assisted Language Learning* (pp. 123-138). Bloomsbury Academic.

Subhash, S., & Cudney, E. A. (2018). Gamified learning in higher education: A systematic review of the literature. *Computers in human behavior, 87*, 192-206.

Suppasetsereea, S., Kumdeeb, S., & Minhc, T. H. (2023). Supporting student engagement with technology: Findings from a study of an online personal learning environment for extensive listening. *Language, 16*(2).

Taradi, S. K., & Taradi, M. (2016). Making physiology learning memorable: A mobile phone-assisted case-based instructional strategy. *Advances Physiology Education, 40*(3), 383–387. https://doi.org/10.1152/advan.00187.2015

Taylor, D. L., Yeung, M., & Bashet, A. Z. (2021). Personalized and adaptive learning. *Innovative Learning Environments in STEM Higher Education: Opportunities, Challenges, and Looking Forward*, 17-34.

Thomas, M., & Reinders, H. (2016). *Mobile learning in language learning: A practical guide.* TESOL International Association.

Wang, Y., & Vásquez, C. (2018). Enhancing speaking skills through mobile video application: A case study in an EFL classroom. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 1*(7), 1-23. doi:10.1080/09588221.2018.1440576

Warschauer, M. (2016). *Learning in the cloud: How (and why) to transform schools with digital media.* Teachers College Press.

Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning: An overview. *Language Teaching, 31*(02), 57-71.

White, J., & Mills, D. J. (2014). Examining attitudes towards and usage of smartphone technology among Japanese university students studying EFL. *CALL-EJ, 15*(2), 1-15.

Wu, W. C. V., Lin, I. T. D., Marek, M. W., & Ou Yang, F. C. (2021). Analysis of English idiomatic learning behaviors of an audio-visual mobile application. *SAGE Open, 11*(2), 21582440211016899.

Yang, J. (2013). Mobile assisted language learning: review of the recent applications of emerging mobile technologies. *English Language Teaching, 6*(7), 19-25.

Yuniarti, W. D. (2014). Utilizing learning platform for paperless classroom. Vision: *Journal for Language and Foreign Language Learning, 3*(2), 105–124. doi:10.21580/vjv3i2295

Zain, D. S. M., & Bowles, F. A. (2021). Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) for higher education instructional practices in EFL/ESL contexts: A recent review of literature. *Computer Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal, 22*(1), 282-307.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Asst. Prof. Yusuf KASIMİ

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-0766-5588

yusuf_kasımi@yahoo.com

Düzce University, Faculty of Education, Dept. of Foreign Language Education

Dr. Yusuf KASIMİ currently is an assistant professor in the Department of Foreign Language Education at Düzce University, Turkiye. Dr. Kasımi holds a Ph.D. from Hacettepe University, and his research interests are teacher education, intercultural communication, and educational psychology.

Devrim HÖL

Şerife FİDAN

1. Introduction

As the globe continues to become more interconnected through globalization, the ability to communicate in more than one language is becoming increasingly important. Accordingly, it is especially important to evaluate the language skills of young students because this is a pivotal time in the development of their language skills (Shaaban, 2000), and they also serve an important role in education, language acquisition, and cognitive development (Cameron, 2001). This evaluation is crucial not only for effective instruction but also for monitoring the progress in language teaching and learning process. In this domain, learners between the ages of 6 and 12 can be typically classified as the target audience for language competency exams that have been devised specifically for young learners (Brown, 1997). Reading, writing, listening, and speaking are all components of the language skills that are being evaluated using these examinations, which have been developed specifically for that purpose. When we consider that linguistic competence acts as a cornerstone for all other academic topics (Cummins, 2000), the value of these kinds of evaluations becomes readily apparent. When young students first start out on their educational path, the degree to which they are able to comprehend and communicate in both their first language and any extra languages that they may be learning is a crucial factor in determining how well they will ultimately do in school (Nunan, 2016). Language proficiency exams for young learners have a number of purposes, one of the most important of which is to give teachers a thorough grasp of the pupils' language skills in their classrooms. Teachers are able to cater their instructional tactics to match the varied requirements of their pupils if they first assess their students' ability across a variety of language-related domains (Genesee, 2006). For instance, if a young student demonstrates good reading skills but has difficulty with oral communication, teachers are able to apply focused interventions to enhance the development of the student's speaking and listening abilities. In addition, these exams make it possible for teachers to recognize pupils who could benefit from further linguistic assistance, such as English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESL) classes or

bilingual education (Baker, 2011). Stakeholders are able to examine the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in language learning, and this may give a chance to identify challenges in learning the target language in an effective way, hence, preventing potential academic issues in the future.

Another backwash effect of language proficiency exams for young learners is that they are not only beneficial for teachers, because they have a number of benefits to the learners themselves as evaluating a child's linguistic abilities at a young age can have a beneficial effect on the child's later language development (Genesee, 2006). When young students are aware of both the positive and negative aspects of their language abilities, they become more interested in the process of learning the language, creating their own personal language objectives, and working actively toward progress. In addition, as they highlight the students' language achievements, these evaluations can help pupils feel better about themselves (Genesee, 2006). For instance, when a young learner achieves a favorable result on a language proficiency test, it can create a sense of motivation, pride and drive them to continue improve and polish their language abilities. Language proficiency examinations for young learners have repercussions for society at large, in addition to the effects they have on the pupils who take them individually. Early language assessment can assist nurture a generation of fluent multilingual persons who can participate effectively in cross-cultural interactions (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). As a consequence, the results of these assessments help to the development of a society that is both more interconnected and culturally diverse.

2. Definition of Young Learners of English (YLE)

Young learners tend to be active, which is one of the most important characteristics of this demographic; however, some of them are more active than others (Cahyati et al., 2019). The teacher ought to be worried about the conduct of youngsters who are either excessively energetic or incredibly passive. Youngsters also tend to have a high degree of energy and interest, which is another trait that is virtually always visible in youngsters. According to Penny McKay's research (2008), young people who are learning a foreign language are capable of making certain judgments about their own learning, and they have clear ideas about the activities that they enjoy and do not enjoy performing. As a result of the fact that children are known to pick up additional languages faster than adults, early instruction in these languages is frequently encouraged for children. According to Ellis (2013), in the education system, young learners are defined as children who are in primary or elementary school. Children are only able

to focus on one thing for around 15 to 20 minutes at a time, in contrast to adult students who are able to pay attention to one thing for a number of hours without becoming distracted. This very short attention span has significant ramifications for how classroom instruction should be carried out.

3. Assessment and Evaluation in Education

The educational practice of assessment is an essential part of the whole process of teaching and learning. Educational assessment is the systematic process of gathering and examining evidence about student learning in order to support educational decisions (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005), and it is a crucial component of any good educational system because it helps ensure learners learn what they need to know and that schools provide them with the support they require to succeed (Nevo, 2006). It also entails the methodical gathering of information about the students' knowledge, skills, and talents, as well as any other pertinent characteristics, in order to make educated decisions about their progression and achievement. In the field of education, assessment is used for a variety of goals, all of which contribute to the improvement of teaching and learning. In their article, Black and Wiliam (1998) highlight the fact that assessment can serve both formative and summative purposes. Formative assessment, which occurs during the process of learning and attempts to provide feedback to students and teachers to enhance learning outcomes, takes place throughout the learning process and is often referred to as assessment for learning. On the other hand, summative assessment is used to evaluate student performance after the conclusion of a learning session in order to ascertain the level of achievement that the student has attained (Sadler, 1989).

According to Hattie and Timperley (2007), formative assessment helps teachers identify students' areas of strength and weakness, which enables them to adjust education to match the unique requirements of individual students. According to Dweck (2006), students who take this sort of assessment are more likely to view their mistakes as opportunities for learning rather than as indications that they have failed.

Traditional evaluations in education include things like quizzes, tests, and exams; alternative assessments in education include things like portfolios, projects, and presentations (Popham, 2008). The sort of assessment that is used should be selected so that it is compatible with the learning outcomes that are desired as well as the educational setting. Standardized tests with high stakes, such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or state-mandated examinations, have garnered a significant amount of interest in the academic writing community. There are

many who believe that these kinds of examinations do not adequately capture the breadth and depth of student capabilities and can result in an excessive emphasis on test preparation at the expense of a well-rounded education (Koretz, 2008). On the other hand, supporters of standardized testing contend that these exams offer a trustworthy and objective method for gauging the level of academic success attained by students, which helps with accountability and ensures consistency across all educational institutions (Cizek & Bunch, 2007).

The assessment has a tremendous impact not only on students but also on teachers and professors. According to Harlen and Deakin Crick (2003), the results of an assessment can have an effect on a student's sense of self-worth, motivation, and future chances. For instance, high-stakes examinations are likely to induce feelings of tension and anxiety (Popham, 2001). Assessment, on the other hand, has the potential to empower students to take ownership of their own learning and to promote a feeling of self-regulation if it is used in a formative manner (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Assessment techniques have an impact not just on students and parents, but also on educators. According to Guskey (2003), the outcomes of student evaluations can be used to help guide instructional decisions, which in turn help teachers change their teaching techniques and resources to better suit the requirements of their students. However, the stress that comes along with high-stakes testing can result in "teaching to the test," which narrows the scope of the curriculum and hinders the growth of critical thinking abilities (Darling-Hammond, 2004).

Assessment in education is a multi-faceted component that is necessary to the overall process of teaching and learning. It comprises a wide variety of assessment types and serves multiple functions, including both formative and summative roles in the learning process. The assessment process has a significant influence, not only on students and teachers, but also on the whole educational experience and the results. It is absolutely necessary for educators and politicians to find a middle ground between the requirement for accountability and the push to provide kids with learning opportunities that are both relevant and comprehensive. In the ever-shifting landscape of education, future research should continue to investigate novel assessment methods and the impact these methods have on both the teaching and learning processes. According to Scriven (1991), educational assessment is a comprehensive process that is vital in education. It encompasses the systematic collection of data, analysis, and interpretation in order to make educated decisions regarding educational practices and programs. Its functions range from evaluating the academic progress of students and enhancing instructional strategies

to ensuring that responsible parties are held accountable and directing the formulation of policy (Stufflebeam, 2003).

To summarize, educational assessment has a significant impact on the quality of education since it identifies opportunities for improvement in curriculum design, teaching practices, and student results (Scriven, 1991). In addition, it fulfills the purpose of accountability by demonstrating the effectiveness of the program and the efficient allocation of resources (Stufflebeam, 2003). In addition to this, it helps with decision-making that is evidence-based, identifies effective solutions that may be expanded for wider advantages (Borg & Gall, 2003), and contributes to the solution of equity problems in education (Scriven, 1991).

When it comes to evaluation, it handles and uses of a diverse range of research methodologies, including but not limited to surveys, interviews, observations, standardized testing, and content analysis; these approaches are selected with regard to particular objectives and contexts (Borg & Gall, 2003). There are two primary categories of evaluation used in education, namely formative and summative. While formative takes place while a program is being developed or implemented, its main goal is to enhance the program as it moves forward. In contrast, summative evaluation occurs after the program has been completed and evaluates its overall usefulness and results (Scriven, 1967). Perspectives from a variety of stakeholders— including students, teachers, administrators, and policymakers—should be taken into account during the evaluation process (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). This is an extremely important factor.

In conclusion, educational evaluation is an essential and varied process within the field of education. It plays an essential role in enhancing educational quality, assuring accountability, supporting evidence-based decision-making, and promoting equity in the classroom. As a result of the persistent difficulties and shifts that are taking place in the educational system, its continuous significance is readily apparent.

4. Assessing Young Learners

Assessing young language learners presents a number of difficult challenges. The evaluation of young people who are learning English brings its own set of special issues. To begin, it is possible that younger children may not yet have the level of cognitive development

required for more conventional testing procedures (Nikolov, 2016). Furthermore, language development in young learners is characterized by high individual diversity (O'Grady, 2019), which makes it difficult to create standard criteria for the development of language skills. According to Csizér and Dornyei (2005), while evaluating young students, it is important to take into account both their emotional health and their level of motivation. In the subject of language education, a great amount of focus has recently been placed on the evaluation of young language learners of the English language. Early language acquisition has been a priority for many educational systems as a result of the continued prevalence of English as a lingua franca around the world.

Methods of Evaluation for Children and Teens Who Are Learning a Second Language

Authentic Assessment: Authentic assessments, such as portfolio assessment and project-based evaluations, have recently acquired favor among young students (Brindley, 1991). These evaluations give students the opportunity to exhibit their language abilities in circumstances that are relevant to the real world, which boosts their motivation and engagement.

Observation: According to Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000), observational assessment, which includes both teacher observations and peer evaluations, is a good tool for gaining valuable insights into the language development of young learners. Students' ability to communicate verbally, their capacity for social interaction, and their level of participation in class can all be gleaned from observations.

Language Portfolios: Language portfolios, which feature samples of students' work across time, provide a comprehensive view of language development (Cummins & Davison, 2007). Language portfolios can be found online at www.languageportfolios.com. The ability to conduct an all-encompassing evaluation is made possible by portfolios, which may include written assignments, recordings of spoken language, and self-reflections.

Formative Assessment: The procedures used in formative assessment, such as think-aloud protocols and exit tickets, provide real-time feedback to both the teachers and the students (Harlen & James, 1997). These assessments are helpful in customizing instruction and catering to the unique requirements of each student.

Age-Appropriate Assessment: Assessment instruments should be developmentally suitable, taking into consideration the cognitive and emotional capacity of young learners. Both the tasks and the questions ought to be understandable and uncomplicated (Moss & Cameron, 2008).

Cultural Sensitivity: According to Gottlieb (2006), in order to promote fairness and inclusivity, assessment materials ought to be culturally sensitive and relevant to the backgrounds of the students taking the tests.

Multimodal Assessment: Assessments that incorporate many modalities of communication (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are known as multimodal assessments. According to Garcia and Pearson (2014), multimodal tests help measure overall language ability while also catering to a variety of learning styles.

Feedback and Reflection: According to Dornyei (2007), providing students with constructive feedback and encouraging them to engage in self-reflection can boost both learning and motivation. Understanding their development and working toward their goals is beneficial for younger students.

Evaluating young people who are learning English as a second language is a challenging and involved process. Cognitive limitations, individual variance, and emotional variables are all elements that contribute to the difficulties. Authenticity, observation, and formative assessment are the three pillars upon which effective assessment procedures for young learners are built. The provision of chances for feedback and reflection, as well as the use of age-appropriate materials, cultural sensitivity, and multimodal assessment, are all emphasized by best practices as being of critical relevance. As long as teaching people to speak English remains a top priority around the world, it is essential that educators and researchers keep working to improve evaluation procedures so that they can cater to the specific requirements of young language students. In the future, research should center on the creation of assessment instruments that are relevant to their respective contexts as well as the incorporation of technology in order to improve assessment procedures in early language instruction.

5. Historical Development of YLE Exams

Early Beginnings

The beginnings of YLE exams may be traced back to the middle of the 20th century when there was a rising realization of the value of English language proficiency for children. During this time, there was also a growing interest in testing children's English language proficiency. The "Preliminary English Test for Schools," often known as the initial iteration of what would later be known as the YLE examinations, was first administered by the University of Cambridge in the year 1953. The purpose of these early examinations was to determine the level of proficiency that young students had in the English language; yet, their structure and scope were not particularly advanced (Cambridge English, 2021).

Expansion and Standardization:

The demand for English language instruction for young learners all over the world expanded throughout the 1960s and 1970s. This resulted in an expansion of the field. In order to satisfy this demand, Cambridge English increased the number of its exams geared for young learners and standardized them. 1979 saw the official rebranding of these examinations as "Young Learners English" (YLE) examinations, and that same year also saw the introduction of three distinct levels: Starters, Movers, and Flyers (Cambridge English, 2021). Because of this restructure, a more in-depth evaluation of the language skills possessed by young learners was made possible.

CEFR Alignment

In the 21st century, the Young Learner Examinations (YLE) went through considerable adjustments in order to match them with the CEFR. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which was published by the Council of Europe in 2001, the purpose of this alignment was to establish a method that was transparent and uniform for evaluating the English language skills of young students.

Digital Transformation

The YLE examinations have also been updated to reflect the digital nature of the world we live in. A computer-based version of the tests was developed by Cambridge English in 2018 in order to better reflect the technological improvements that have occurred in education and evaluation (Cambridge English, 2021). The transition from paper-based to computerized testing enabled more adaptability as well as accessibility.

Research and Validation

In order to assure the YLE tests' reliability and validity, over the course of their existence, the YLE exams have been the focus of continuous research and validation investigations. These research contributed to the improvement of the assessment instruments, making it possible to establish the YLE exams as a reliable measurement of the English language ability of young learners (Höl, 2023).

Global Impact

Because the YLE examinations have received recognition on a global scale and are given in a variety of countries, they have become the gold standard for determining the level of English proficiency possessed by young students. According to Chik and Besser (2011), the examinations have also had an impact on the creation of English language instructional resources and curriculums that are geared specifically toward younger students.

Continuous Adaptation

The young learners and educator examinations go through a process of continuous adaptation in order to meet the ever-evolving requirements of young students and teachers. This adaptability guarantees that the examinations continue to stay relevant and successful in measuring English language skills in the contemporary educational setting (Cambridge English, 2021).

In conclusion, the historical evolution of YLE tests is reflective of a dedication to testing and increasing English language ability among young learners. Exams for young language learners (YLE) have developed over time to adapt to the ever-shifting requirements of English language instruction for young learners. They began as fundamental assessments, but have since aligned with CEFR, undergone digital transformation, and made an influence on a worldwide scale.

6. Globally Recognized YLE Exams

Due to the increasing need from stakeholders in countries where English is not the primary language, specifically children and parents who aim to demonstrate a child's proficiency in English, for reasons like school admissions, and the limited availability of reliable language assessment tools on a national scale, there has been significant growth in the popularity and prevalence of internationally recognized English language tests. These tests have effectively bridged the gap between the supply and demand for such assessments (Alderson & Banerjee, 2001; Bailey, 2005; McKay, 2006).

i. Cambridge YLE Exams

Pre A1 Starters

The Pre-A1 Starters Cambridge English Language Qualification is the first of three Cambridge English Language Qualifications for young learners. These assessments expose students to everyday written and spoken English and offer them an excellent opportunity to develop their confidence and language abilities. The tests include well-known themes and place a premium on the competencies required for effective English communication via listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Test format

Listening (about 20 minutes)	**4** parts/ **20** questions	a maximum of five shields

Reading and Writing	**5** parts/ **25** questions	a maximum of five shields
(20 minutes)		

Speaking	**4** parts	a maximum of five shields
(3–5 minutes)		

A1 Movers

The A1 Movers qualification is the second of three Cambridge English Qualifications for young learners. These examinations expose children to common written and spoken English and provide a wonderful opportunity for them to build confidence and enhance their language skills. The examinations are based on known subjects and emphasize the abilities necessary for effective English communication through listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Test format

Listening	**5** parts/ **25** questions	a maximum of five shields
(about 25 minutes)		

Reading **and** **Writing**	**6** parts/ **35** questions	a maximum of five shields
(30 minutes)		

Speaking	**4** parts	a maximum of five shields
(5–7 minutes)		

A2 Flyers

The A2 Flyers qualification is the third in a series of three Cambridge English Qualifications for young learners. These examinations expose children to common written and spoken English and provide a wonderful opportunity for them to build confidence and enhance their language skills.

The examinations are based on known subjects and emphasize the abilities necessary for effective English communication through listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Listening (about 25 minutes)	**5** parts/ **25** questions	a maximum of five shields
Reading and Writing (40 minutes)	**7** parts/ **44** questions	a maximum of five shields
Speaking (7–9 minutes)	**4** parts	a maximum of five shields

ii. TOEFL Junior Tests

TOEFL Junior Standard Test

The TOEFL Junior® Standard Test is an evaluation that determines the extent to which middle school pupils who are learning English as a second language have achieved proficiency in the academic and social English abilities that are typical of education in an English-medium context. The evaluation examines the skills of applicants in three distinct domains: reading comprehension, listening comprehension, and language form and meaning.

Number of Items: This test typically consists of 42 Listening Comprehension, 42 Reading Comprehension, and 42 Language Form and Meaning which makes is a total of 160 items.

Score Range: The scores for each section range from 200 to 300 points. Total scores range from 600 to 900 points

Testing Time: The TOEFL Junior Standard Test takes 1 hour and 55 minutes to complete.

TOEFL Junior Speaking Test

The TOEFL Junior Speaking test is designed to assess the skills required to successfully communicate verbally in English. It consists of the following components:

Number of Items: This test typically consists of 4 questions.

Score Range: The scores range from 0 to 16.

Testing Time: The TOEFL Junior Speaking Test takes 18 minutes to complete.

TOEFL Junior Writing Test

The TOEFL Junior Speaking test is designed to assess the skills required to successfully communicate verbally in English. It consists of the following components:

Number of Items: This test typically consists of 5 questions.

Score Range: The scores range from 0 to 16.

Testing Time: The TOEFL Junior Speaking Test takes 40 minutes to complete.

iii. International Certificate Young Learners (PTE YL)

Firstwords (Level 1), Springboard (Level 2), Quickmarch (Level 3) and Breakthrough (Level 4) are the four different levels of English language competency that are covered by the Pearson English International Certificate - Young Learners (PTE Young Learners) assessment solution. These quizzes are intended to be entertaining and engaging for the youngsters who take them. In addition to this, they want their first experiences of learning English to be extremely memorable and inspiring to them.

Pearson Edexcel, which is the largest awarding organisation in the UK for academic and vocational credentials, is the company that is responsible for administering the assessments.

The International Certificate for Young Learners is officially bestowed upon students by Pearson Edexcel, the certifying organization.

The capacity to communicate effectively in English is the key focus of the examinations, which have been designed with young students in mind. The mastery of specific language objects and terminology is not emphasized as much as the ability to apply one's knowledge to actual life situations. The test will be given in British English; however, responses written in American English will also be accepted. At every stage, familiarity with the English alphabet is treated as a given.

Exams for the International Certificate for Young Learners are designed for students between the ages of six and thirteen who are already fluent in other languages. Listening, reading, speaking, and writing are the four abilities that are evaluated in the International Certificate - Young Learners program. It is divided into two parts: a written exam that evaluates the candidate's listening, reading, and writing skills, and a test of their oral communication skills. Both the oral portion of the examination and the written portion are graded independently. Because of the communicative focus of the International Certificate - Young Learners (IC-YL), the duration of the examinations can be reduced without affecting the accuracy of the results.

Firstwords (Level 1)

This exam is designed for those who can comprehend the English alphabet and identify simple phrases and words in spoken and written English, as well as grasp and discuss basic facts about their own lives and environs. The emphasis is on real-life circumstances that students will face, rather than how well they memorize language and structures.

The exam includes both a written paper and a spoken examination. At this level, the written portion of the International Certificate Young Learners lasts 60 minutes and consists of six assignments. It assesses listening, reading, and writing abilities. The spoken portion of the exam lasts 20 minutes and consists of two assignments that candidates complete alongside an examiner and four other test takers. The entire exam period lasts 80 minutes. The written and spoken components of the Firstwords test are each worth 100 points; 80 for the written component and 20 for the spoken component. There are 40 total listening, reading, and writing

items, each with a two-point weighted. There are two speaking assignments, each worth 10 points.

Springboard (Level 2)

This exam is designed for those who are able to speak about their emotions, routines, likes, and dislikes; create questions to gather the previously mentioned data from others; listen to and read with a knowledge of crucial material; and write a short piece about their own lifestyles to a standard that conveys meaning.

The exam includes both a written paper and a spoken examination. At this level, the written portion of the International Certificate Young Learners lasts 60 minutes and consists of six assignments. It assesses listening, reading, and writing abilities. The spoken portion of the exam lasts 20 minutes and consists of two assignments that candidates complete alongside an examiner and four other test takers. The exam lasts 80 minutes in total. The written and spoken components of the Springboard test are each worth 100 points; 80 for the written component and 20 for the spoken component. There are 40 total listening, reading, and writing activities, each with a weighting of 1.5 to 3 score points depending on the job. There are two speaking assignments, each worth 10 points.

Quickmarch (Level 3)

This test is for those who can read texts and comprehend the main points and essential details in acquainted listening situations; speak about their personal lives through the lens of routines, likes, dislikes, plans for the future, and past instances; and write a brief piece about their personal lives or an environment that is familiar to an average that anyone can comprehend.

The exam includes both a written paper and a spoken examination. At this level, the written portion of the International Certificate Young Learners lasts 60 minutes and consists of six assignments. It assesses listening, reading, and writing abilities. The spoken portion of the exam lasts 20 minutes and consists of two assignments that candidates complete alongside an examiner and four other test takers. The exam lasts a total of 80 minutes. The written and spoken components of the Quickmarch test are each worth 100 points; 80 for the written component

and 20 for the spoken component. There are 40 total listening, reading, and writing tasks, each with a weighting of 1.5 to 3 marks depending on the activity. There are two speaking assignments, each worth 10 points.

Breakthrough (Level 4)

This exam is designed for those who can explain feelings, offer directions and explanations, convey purpose, express ideas and choices, and address fictitious situations.

The exam includes both a written paper and a spoken examination. At this level, the written portion of the International Certificate Young Learners lasts for 1 hour and 15 minutes and consists of six tasks. It assesses listening, reading, and writing abilities. The spoken portion of the test lasts 20 minutes and consists of two activities. Test takers participate in two types of tasks with an examiner and four other test takers. The written and spoken components of the Breakthrough test are each worth 100 points; 80 for the written component and 20 for the spoken component. Each of the 36 hearing, reading, and writing elements in Tasks One through Five is worth between 1 and 3 points. Task Six, which asks applicants to write a brief article, is worth 20 points. There are two speaking assignments, each worth up to ten points.

iv. Oxford Placement Test for Young Learners

The Oxford Placement Test for Young Learners gives an outstanding testing experience every time by providing the proper balance of challenge and joy (Oxford University Press, 2021).

➢ 100% online with a user-friendly sign-in mechanism for children.

➢ Marked automatically with immediate results.

➢ The Learning Management System makes it simple to create exams and manage their outcomes.

➢ Traditional placement tests are outperformed by computer adaptive technology in terms of precision.

➢ The results provide a CEFR level (Pre-A1 to B1), a score out of 80, and the amount of time required.

➢ Child-friendly report cards offer section results, a scoring guide, and learner ability information.

The Oxford Placement Test for Young Learners is divided into two parts: Language Use and Listening. The part on Language Use assesses vocabulary, functional language, and grammar. The questions emphasize language usage rather than language knowledge, mirroring the communicative language experience that young learners have in class. Language Use is an 18-question exam that assesses students' understanding of vocabulary, functions, and grammar.

The Listening segment employs short and longer listening activities to assess listening for detail and gist. The audio is automatically repeated twice. The Listening segment uses short and longer listening tasks across 12 questions to assess listening for detail and gist. Both parts put British English to the test.

7. Future Directions and Implications for Teachers

When it comes to determining a child's degree of language acquisition as well as their level of language proficiency, standardized language proficiency exams for young learners play an extremely important role. When looking into the future, it is vital that we address two key factors that will influence the future of these tests: the assessment of teachers and the incorporation of technology. Not only will the accuracy of evaluations be improved thanks to these facets, but the whole educational experience for younger students will also be enhanced.

7.1. Teacher Assessment

Customized Assessments

In the not-too-distant future, standardized assessments for younger students may include an increased number of assessment components blended with technological assessment tools driven by teachers. Teachers have a one-of-a-kind awareness of the capabilities of their pupils, and the insights they provide can be extremely helpful when it comes to adapting exams to the requirements of individual students. This strategy is consistent with the idea of formative assessment, according to which teachers continually evaluate their pupils in order to improve their teaching (Black & Williamson, 1998).

Performance-Based Assessment

In the future, traditional multiple-choice examinations might be phased out in favor of more performance-based tasks being included in standardized tests. These activities could incorporate real-world situations in which young students demonstrate their language skills through practical applications. Some examples of these activities include role-playing, multimedia projects, and even internet collaborative activities.

Portfolio Assessment

The usage of digital portfolios as part of the evaluation process for language skills is becoming increasingly common. Young students should keep portfolios displaying their progress in language acquisition over time. These portfolios could include written work, audio recordings, and video recordings. The teachers will subsequently be able to evaluate these portfolios, which will give a more comprehensive picture of the student's level of language ability (Cambridge English, 2020).

7.2. Technology and Assessment

Adaptive Testing

The potential of adaptive technology could be utilized in the future for standardized language competency exams administered to young students. These examinations are able to respond in real time to a student's performance by presenting questions that are individualized to their level of expertise. According to Bachman (2004), adaptive exams are able to lessen test anxiety while also providing more precise evaluations of skill.

Online Assessment Platforms

It is necessary, given the development of technology, to design effective online assessment tools that are user-friendly for both young students and their instructors. According to Bachman (2001), in order to effectively engage young learners, these platforms ought to have capabilities such as speech recognition, automated scoring, and interactive multimedia content.

Data Analytics

Utilizing data analytics, future examinations may be able to provide more in-depth insights into the language learning experience of an individual student. According to Pardo and Kloos (2016), doing an analysis of the patterns that emerge in student performance can assist

educators in locating specific areas in which students could benefit from receiving individualized training.

8. Conclusion

Multilingualism is being increasingly appreciated in a world that is becoming more globalized. With the growing globalization of academic, governmental, and economic affairs, as well as the associated rise in the global profile of English as a lingua franca, it is important that children who are of school age today learn English (Wolf & Butler, 2017). This is true not only because of the potential for personal enrichment that comes with learning any foreign language, but also because of the rising global profile of English as a lingua franca. In addition, several nations have begun to include instruction in English as part of the standard primary school curriculum (Rea-Dickins, 2000). This is being done in recognition of the many advantages associated with beginning language study at a younger age. Students whose native language or the language spoken at home is not English are often expected to take part in English as a Second Language (ESL) classes in primary and secondary schools in nations where English is used as the language of everyday communication (Snow, 1990).

For school-aged children, the acquisition of English language proficiency (ELP) is crucial not only to achieve academic achievement but also to participate in social activities. This is especially true in the context of English as a second language (ESL) (Genesee, 1994). Because there is a growing demand for young students to acquire English language skills, there is also a growing demand for acceptable methods that may notify important stakeholders (such as students, parents, and teachers) about the students' current levels of English language proficiency. At the institutional level, having English language proficiency tests that are of a high quality may be helpful in both the process of developing curriculum and instruction as well as the process of placing students in the proper programs (Gultom & Oktaviani, 2022). ELP exams can also be helpful at the individual level, where they can support students, parents, and instructors in improving their English language learning and teaching. In spite of the fact that there is a growing demand for standardized ELP assessments as an objective measure to gauge each student's level of English language development, additional caution must be exercised in the development and use of standardized ELP assessments for young school-age children because of the distinct characteristics that they possess in comparison to adult learners

REFERENCES

Alderson, J. C., & Banerjee, J. (2001). Language testing and assessment (Part 1). *Language Teaching, 34*, 213–236.

Bachman, L. F. (2001). *Designing and developing useful language tests. Experimenting with uncertainty: Essays in honour of Alan Davies*, 109-116.

Bachman, L. F. (2004). *Statistical analyses for language assessment book.* Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, A. L. (2005). Test review: Cambridge Young Learners English (YLE) Tests. *Language Testing, 22*, 242–252.

Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism.* Multilingual Matters.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: principles, policy & practice, 5*(1), 7-74.

Borg, W. R., & Gall, M. D. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction (7th ed.).* Pearson Education.

Brindley, G. (1991). The role of needs analysis in adult ESL program design. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), Teaching English as a second or foreign language (2nd ed., pp. 155-166). Heinle & Heinle.

Brown, A. L. (1997). Transforming schools into communities of thinking and learning about serious matters. *American psychologist, 52*(4), 399.

Cahyati, S. S., Parmawati, A., & Atmawidjaja, N. S. (2019). Optimizing English teaching and learning process to young learners (a Case Study in Cimahi). *Journal Of Educational Experts (JEE), 2*(2), 107-114.

Cambridge English, C. E. (2020). *Cambridge English.* https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-tests/starters/preparation/

Cambridge English. (2021). *Young Learners English (YLE).* Retrieved from https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-tests/young-learners-english/

Cameron, C., & Moss, P. (2011). Social pedagogy: Current understandings and opportunities. *Social pedagogy and working with children and young people: where care and education meet*, 7-32.

Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners.* Cambridge university press.

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2011). Focus on multilingualism: A study of trilingual writing. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(3), 356-369.

Chik, A., & Besser, S. (2011). International language test taking among young learners: A Hong Kong case study. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 8*(1), 73-91.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K. M. (Eds.). (2005). Studying teacher education: The report of the Panel on Research and Teacher Education. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association/Mahwah Erlbaum.

Council of Europe. Council for Cultural Co-operation. Education Committee. Modern Languages Division. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment.* Cambridge University Press.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research.* Sage Publications.

Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *The Modern Language Journal, 89*(1), 19-36.

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire* (Vol. 23). Multilingual matters.

Cummins, J., & Davison, C. (2007). *International Handbook of English Language Teaching.* Springer.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2004). Standards, accountability, and school reform. *Teachers College Record, 106*(6), 1047-1085.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies.* Oxford University Press.

Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset: The new psychology of success.* Random House.

Ellis, G. (2013). „Young learners": clarifying our terms. *ELT Journal, 6*8(1), 75–78.

García, G. E., & Pearson, P. D. (1994). Chapter 8: Assessment and diversity. *Review of research in education, 20*(1), 337-391.

Genesee, F. (2006). *Educating English language learners: A synthesis of research evidence.* Cambridge University Press.

Genesee, F. (Ed.). (1994). *Educating second language children: The whole child, the whole curriculum, the whole community.* Cambridge University Press.

Gottlieb, M. (2006). *Assessing English language learners: Bridges to educational equity.* Corwin Press.

Gultom, S., & Oktaviani, L. (2022). The correlation between students' self-esteem and their English proficiency test result. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning, 3*(2), 52-57.

Guskey, T. R. (2003). How classroom assessments improve learning. *Educational Leadership, 60*(5), 6-11.

Harlen, W., & Deakin Crick, R. (2003). Testing and motivation for learning. *Assessment in Education, 10*(2), 169-207.

Harlen, W., & James, M. (1997). Assessment and learning: Differences and relationships between formative and summative assessment. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 4*(3), 365-379.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(1), 81-112.

Höl, D. (2023). Standardized testing in Turkey: EFL teachers' perceptions and experiences on Cambridge YLE exams: Standardized testing in Turkey. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction, 15*(2), 984-1007.

Koretz, D. (2008). *Measuring up: What educational testing really tells us.* Harvard University Press.

McKay, P. (2006). *Assessing young language learners.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Nevo, D. (2006). Evaluation in Education. In Ian F. Shaw, Jennifer C. Greene & Melvin M. Mark (Eds.), The Sage Handbook of Evaluation (pp. 441–460). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Nikolov, M. (2016). Trends, issues, and challenges in assessing young language learners. *Assessing young learners of English: Global and local perspectives,* 1-17.

Nunan, D. (2016). Teaching English to young learners. In *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 68-81). Routledge.

O'Grady, W. (2019). *How children learn language.* Cambridge University Press.

Oxford University Press. (2021). *Oxford Placement Test for young learners: Oxford University Press.* English Language Teaching Home Page. https://elt.oup.com/feature/global/young-learners-placement/?cc=tr&selLanguage=en

Pardo, A., & Kloos, C. D. (2011, February). Stepping out of the box: towards analytics outside the learning management system. In *Proceedings of the 1st international conference on learning analytics and knowledge* (pp. 163-167).

Pearson, P. (n.d.). *International Certificate Young Learners (PTE YL).* International Certificate Young Learners | Pearson qualifications. https://qualifications.pearson.com/en/qualifications/international-certificate/young-learners.html

Penny McKay. (2008). *Assessing Young Language Learners.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Popham, W. J. (2001). Teaching to the test? *Educational Leadership, 58*(6), 16-20.

Popham, W. J. (2008). *Transformative assessment.* ASCD.

Rea-Dickins, P. (2000). Assessment in early years language learning contexts. *Language Testing, 17*(2), 115–122.

Rea-Dickins, P., & Gardner, S. (2000). Snares and silver bullets: Disentangling the construct of formative assessment. *Language Testing, 17(*2), 215-243.

Sadler, D. R. (1989). Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems. *Instructional Science, 18*(2), 119-144.

Saville, N., & Hawkey, R. (2010). The English Profile Programme–the first three years. *English Profile Journal, 1,* e7.

Scriven, M. (1967). The methodology of evaluation. In: Tyler RW, Gagne RM, Scriven M (eds) *Perspectives of curriculum evaluation.* Rand McNally, Chicago, IL, pp 39–83.

Scriven, M. (1991). Evaluation thesaurus (4th ed.). Sage Publications.

Shaaban, K. (2000). Assessment of young learners' achievement in ESL classes in the Lebanon. *Language Culture and Curriculum, 13*(3), 306-317.

Snow, C. E. (1990). Rationales for native language instruction. *Bilingual education: Issues and strategies,* 60-74.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (2003). The CIPP model for program evaluation. In D. L. Stufflebeam, G. F. Madaus, & T. Kellaghan (Eds.), *Evaluation models: Viewpoints on educational and human services evaluation* (2nd ed., pp. 279-317). Springer.

Wolf, M. K., & Butler, Y. G. (2017). An overview of English language proficiency assessments for young learners. *English language proficiency assessments for young learners,* 3-21.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Asst. Prof. Devrim HÖL

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0001-5151-2581

devrimh@pau.edu.tr

Denizli Pamukkale University, Department of English Language Teaching

Dr. Devrim HOL is currently an assistant professor in the Department of Foreign Language Education at Pamukkale University, Turkey. He holds his master's degree in English Language Teaching (ELT) from Pamukkale University, and a Ph.D. in ELT from Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. His research interests are Assessment, Evaluation, and Testing English as a Second Language, National and International Standardized English Language Proficiency Tests. Dr. HOL has been a researcher, language teacher and language test developer and administrator since 2000. He worked in different levels of schools as an English teacher, and was the head of department at Pamukkale University, School of Foreign Languages, Turkey between 2007 and 2017. He also worked as a National and International Testing Coordinator, Testing and Evaluation Unit Coordinator in the same university. He is still a full-time member of Foreign Language Teaching Department.

Şerife FİDAN

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-8262-6650

serifefidan1717@gmail.com

Denizli Pamukkale University, Department of English Language Teaching

Şerife Fidan is an English teacher working in a language center of young learners. She is currently pursuing her master's degree in English Language Teaching at Pamukkale University. Her research interests are teaching to young learners, technology in education, bibliometric analysis, artificial intelligence in language teaching, machine learning, mobile-assisted language learning, and educational psychology.

Yusuf Emre YEŞİLYURT (iD)

Abstract

The chapter delves deep into the transformative impact of artificial intelligence (AI) on the domain of foreign language education. With AI's rapid advancements, particularly in large language models, its implications for language learning have been profound. The chapter explores AI-driven innovations, such as virtual conversational agents, automated writing evaluations, speech recognition technologies, and adaptive learning systems, spotlighting their potential to personalize and enrich language education. While emphasizing the importance of human-centric integration, the chapter underscores the necessity of using AI to complement human teaching. Furthermore, it provides insights into major applications, aligns discussions with pertinent learning theories, and offers real-world implementation examples. The chapter also addresses the ethical dimensions of data use and AI technology, emphasizing responsible integration. In essence, the chapter aims to equip language teaching professionals with comprehensive insights into AI's current and future role in enhancing language education.

1. Introduction

The field of artificial intelligence (AI) has seen rapid advancements in recent years particularly with the introduction and adoption of large language models. With improved capabilities in areas like machine learning and natural language processing, AI has permeated diverse sectors including healthcare, business, and significantly - education (Brynjolfsson & McAfee, 2014). In the realm of language learning, AI holds unique promise to transform key aspects of teaching and student experience (Reiss, 2021).

AI-driven innovations are already emerging to assist with critical facets of language instruction and acquisition. Virtual conversational agents provide interactive dialogue practice (Fryer et al., 2017). Automated writing evaluation programs give personalized feedback on student writing (Dikli & Bleyle, 2014). Speech recognition technology enables pronunciation assessment (Wang & Zhao, 2020), and adaptive learning systems tailor instruction to individual learner needs and abilities (Vincent-Ruz & Boase, 2022).

As such tools continue maturing, AI stands to make language learning more personalized, engaging, and accessible overall (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). However, thoughtfully integrating AI remains an evolving, complex endeavor. Simply inserting new technologies into classrooms is insufficient. For AI to truly enrich language education, we must utilize it in ways that enhance - not replace - human teaching and uphold core educational values (Xu, 2020).

This chapter aims to provide language teaching professionals and researchers an in-depth look at the intersection of AI and language education. It examines major AI applications and trends, ground discussions in relevant learning theories, and spotlight real-world implementations through some examples. Since successful integration rests on human adoption, this chapter also explores AI's impacts on both learners and teachers. Lastly, as ethical use of data and emerging technologies is imperative, it discusses critical considerations and standards to guide responsible AI integration.

While AI carries inherent challenges, this chapter focuses on its immense potential value. This chapter's exploration spotlights opportunities to thoughtfully make the best use of AI in service of enriched language teaching and learning. With the guidance of teacher proficiency, the revolutionary potential of AI can be utilized to provide accessible, high-quality, and engaging language education to everyone. This chapter seeks to provide key perspectives to help professionals evaluate and shape the role of AI in language teaching - both presently and in the future.

2. The Landscape of AI in Language Education

Artificial intelligence is reshaping language education through major trends like personalized and adaptive learning, immersive technologies, and automated assessment and feedback. This section provides an overview of the AI landscape and its impacts on pedagogy.

2.1. Personalized and Adaptive Learning

Personalized learning has been an evolving focus in education, as students have diverse needs and skills (Walkington, 2013). AI enhances personalization through data-driven adaptivity (Ouyang & Jiao, 2021). Algorithms analyze individual learner patterns to tailor content sequencing, difficulty levels, prompts, and feedback unique to each student. For example, Duolingo and Rosetta Stone use AI to continuously track learner performance and adjust lesson pacing and activities to ability level (Vesselinov et al., 2019). Such adaptive learning curricula promote efficient progress by keeping students stimulated and supported in

their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). Intelligent tutoring systems also model student knowledge to provide personalized guidance and practice (Graesser et al., 2018).

2.2. Immersive Learning Environments

Immersive technologies like virtual reality and augmented reality are transforming learning experiences through interactive 3D environments (Bower et al., 2014). AI makes these environments more adaptive, responding contextually to user actions and speech. OpenAI's ChatGPT and Anthropic's conversational AI assistant Claude can tailor language lessons to learner needs although they address reading and writing skills for now (Anthropic, 2023; OpenAI, 2023). Mondly's VR places students in realistic scenarios to practice conversation skills using speech recognition (Pellet & Zaidi, 2019). Such immersive simulations increase engagement and lower anxiety for language learners.

2.3. Automated Assessment and Feedback

For writing development, AI programs analyze text to provide personalized feedback on grammar, style, organization and other aspects of quality (Warschauer & Ware). Automated speech scoring also evaluates pronunciation, fluency and more. Duolingo and other platforms benefit such AI scoring to give real-time formative feedback during practice (Settles & Meeder, 2016). By automating rote assessment tasks, AI enables teachers to focus on higher-level instruction.

3. Theoretical Frameworks

The thoughtful integration of AI in language teaching should be guided by learning theories and frameworks that align with AI capabilities. This section elucidates key theoretical grounding for integration of AI applications into language teaching and learning. By incorporating evidence-based methodologies and aligning with learner-centered pedagogies, the proper utilization of AI can foster a more personalized and engaging learning experience.

3.1. Constructivism

Constructivism posits that learning is an active process of constructing knowledge rather than passively receiving it (Jonassen, 1994). Learners build understanding by interacting with content and relating it to prior knowledge. AI's adaptivity aligns with constructivist principles by allowing self-paced exploration and providing personalized guidance (Chen et al., 2021). For example, intelligent tutoring systems present tasks and feedback tailored to each learner's evolving needs and responses (Grenander et al., 2021). Such AI tools create constructive learning environments.

3.2. Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK)

The TPACK framework emphasizes the interplay between technology, pedagogy and content knowledge in teaching (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Educators must develop fluency in all three domains to effectively integrate technology like AI. Language teachers need appropriate technological know-how along with pedagogical skills to incorporate AI in ways that enhance language acquisition (Yang & Kyun, 2022). AI should not be viewed merely as an add-on tool, but an integral part of the teaching process.

3.3. Community of Inquiry (CoI)

The CoI model describes how online learning develops through social, cognitive and teaching presence (Garrison et al., 2017). AI has the potential to cultivate these presences, for instance, by providing adaptive instruction (teaching presence) and engaging content (cognitive presence) suited to the learner's level. However, care should be taken to balance simulated AI interactions with sufficient human social connections.

3.4. Connectivism

Connectivism posits that learning occurs by forming connections across networks of people, information and tools (Siemens, 2005). This framework recognizes AI's potential to provide greater access to data and information flows to enhance language learning. However, learners need guidance in ethically navigating and evaluating these emerging tool networks.

4. Practical Applications of AI in Language Teaching

AI can be exploited in varied ways to enhance language instruction and learning experiences. This section highlights key technologies along with examples of their implementation. It demonstrates how educators can utilize these tools to foster innovation and efficiency in language education.

4.1. Intelligent Tutoring Systems

Intelligent tutoring systems (ITS) employ AI to simulate personalized human tutoring and guidance. They provide conversational practice by comprehending student responses and generating feedback on grammar, word choice, and phrasing (Alshaikh & Hewahi, 2021). Studies show ITS also improve learning outcomes in areas like vocabulary acquisition (Najmi & Ebrahimi, 2017). ELSA Speak is an intelligent tutoring system that helps learners improve their English pronunciation and fluency by using speech recognition technology to analyze their speech and provide personalized feedback. It also offers a curriculum that covers various topics and scenarios, such as greetings, travel, and business (ELSA Corp., 2021). Another example is FluentU, which is an intelligent tutoring system that helps learners improve their English

comprehension and vocabulary by using real-world videos, such as movie trailers, music videos, and news clips. It also provides interactive captions that show the meaning and pronunciation of any word, and quizzes that test the learners' understanding of the video content (FluentU, 2021). These are some of the widely used AI-supported tools that provide conversational practice for English learners.

4.2. Adaptive Learning Platforms

Adaptive platforms like Duolingo track individual progress to adjust the sequencing and difficulty of reading, writing, listening and speaking activities based on learner proficiency (Vesselinov & Grego, 2016). For instance, the platform may introduce new vocabulary or grammar concepts to students who demonstrate mastery, while remediating struggling students with more practice on foundational concepts. This data-driven adaptivity caters to diverse needs and abilities. Evidence indicates adaptive platforms can enhance engagement and language gains (Cumbal & Skantze, 2022).

4.3. Speech Recognition Tools

Voice-enabled assistants allow conversational language and pronunciation practice using automatic speech recognition (ASR) (Dizon, 2017; Tejedor-García, Cardeñoso-Payo, & Escudero-Mancebo, 2021). Apps like ELSA benefit from ASR to provide feedback on pronunciation by detecting mistakes in learners' speech and providing correct models. Studies confirm such tools assist in developing stronger speaking skills and confidence (Liakin et al., 2017). Recently, Meta's Project CAIRaoke demonstrated ASR for karaoke-style singing practice to improve prosody (Meta AI, 2022).

4.4. Machine Translation Software

Machine translation tools like Google Translate provide quick translations of texts and conversations, enabling comprehension. Some alternatives to Google Translate include DeepL, SYSTRAN, Baidu, Papago, Reverso, and SDL Free Translation. Although imperfect yet, when carefully used, such softwares can aid reading growth and communication. Features like simplified text help adapt content to different proficiency levels. Research shows translation tools combined with instruction can assist vocabulary learning. Newer neural machine translation models produce more fluent and accurate translations. Using a variety of tools can help students gain exposure to diverse translation styles and language varieties.

5. The Impact of AI on Language Learners

AI is transforming how students learn languages. It provides benefits like personalized learning, increased engagement, and reduced barriers. This section explores specific impacts with examples.

5.1. Personalized Learning Experiences

AI's impact on language learners extends to providing highly personalized learning experiences. Unlike traditional classroom settings where teaching methods are often one-size-fits-all, AI technologies enable tailored approaches that cater to each student's individual learning style, pace, and needs.

Through the analysis of learner data, AI algorithms can identify areas of strength and weakness in a student's language skills (Szügyi et al., 2019). This information is then utilized to design customized learning paths that focus on addressing specific challenges and reinforcing existing competencies. For instance, AI-powered language learning platforms like Babbel and Memrise adapt the content difficulty based on user performance. This ensures that learners are consistently challenged without becoming overwhelmed (Liu et al., 2021).

Moreover, AI enables adaptive assessments that dynamically adjust question difficulty based on a student's previous responses (Jadhav et al., 2018). This adaptability ensures that learners are consistently challenged at an appropriate level by preventing them from getting stuck on overly easy or overly difficult tasks. This personalized approach not only enhances the learning experience but also fosters a sense of accomplishment and progression.

Furthermore, AI-driven platforms can integrate real-time monitoring of a student's progress and behavior. These insights empower educators and learners alike. They enable both parties to make data-driven decisions to optimize learning strategies. For example, adaptive learning systems utilize algorithms to analyze students' learning patterns. Doing so, they adapt the content, pace, and difficulty accordingly to cater to individual needs, and thereby enhance the overall learning experience (Sottilare et al., 2013).

AI is revolutionizing language education by catering to the unique needs and preferences of each learner. By providing personalized learning experiences, it is able to adapt to individual strengths and weaknesses, ensuring a more tailored approach to language instruction. Ultimately, this personalized methodology leads to more effective and efficient language acquisition.

5.2. Enhanced Learner Engagement

In the realm of language education, engaging learners consistently is a paramount challenge. The integration of AI and gamification techniques has emerged as a potent solution to this challenge, promising to reshape learner engagement in the digital age. This section will explore how AI-fueled applications utilize machine learning and other advanced technologies to create stimulating, personalized, and motivating learning experiences.

Gamified apps like Duolingo utilize AI techniques such as machine learning and speech recognition to provide engaging, interactive language practice (Settles & Meeder, 2016). The varied activities and instant feedback driven by AI not only enhance the learner's motivation but also create an environment that promotes sustained focus and commitment to tasks. The use of gamification elements, like badges, points, and levels, creates an incentive system that keeps students engaged and motivated to progress (Saleem et al., 2021). The competition and collaboration features of such apps enable learners to challenge themselves and others, fostering a sense of community and making learning more enjoyable.

AI's ability to adapt exercises to the learner's level also ensures a personalized and stimulating experience. By recognizing where a student is excelling or struggling, the AI can adjust in real-time, providing tasks that are neither too easy nor too hard (Khan et al., 2021). This dynamic adaptability promotes a sense of achievement and keeps learners committed to their language learning goals.

Research shows that the immediate rewards and progression inherent in these programs can build and promote consistent learning habits (Ibáñez et al., 2011). AI-driven conversation bots add to this by allowing engaging chat-based practice that mimics real conversations, further enhancing the immersive learning experience.

5.3. Meaningful Personalized Feedback

In the contemporary educational landscape, personalized and meaningful feedback has become a cornerstone in the development of comprehensive language skills, not merely writing. AI technologies, with the help of natural language processing and other analytical tools, are enabling precise and immediate feedback across various aspects of language learning, including speaking, listening, reading, and writing. These potential AI-powered automated evaluation programs can analyze both oral and text drafts to provide customized insights into vocabulary use, grammar, style, organization, and more (Nadan et al., 2023). Such systems free teachers to concentrate on higher-order concerns, like critical thinking, creativity, and personalized mentorship, while ensuring consistency and promptness in responses (Wang et al., 2023).

Moreover, these tools can lead to a more unbiased evaluation of language skills by giving comprehensive insights into areas for enhancement. This fosters greater learner autonomy, encouraging students to actively participate in the iterative process of honing their language capabilities. The introduction of AI in language feedback not only adds efficiency but also lends a more nuanced, individualized approach. Its extended reach allows for targeted interventions that might otherwise be overlooked, contributing to accelerated skill development across various linguistic domains.

6. The Impact of AI on Language Teachers

While AI stands to benefit learners, it also profoundly affects language teachers. From automated grading systems to intelligent tutoring assistants, various AI innovations are changing how educators approach core tasks like assessment, instructional planning, and pedagogical adaptation. As I discuss below, AI is transforming key aspects of language teaching roles and experiences through automation, data analytics, and supplemental support.

6.1. Assisting with Personalized Instruction

AI learning analytics systems allow teachers to make use of data-driven insights about each student's strengths, weaknesses, and progress to provide highly personalized instruction (Deshpande et al., 2023). Dashboards synthesize performance data from activities, assessments, and student feedback surveys, identifying knowledge gaps. This helps teachers pinpoint students struggling with certain grammar principles or vocabulary. Teachers can then develop targeted one-on-one mentoring plans, modifying teaching strategies to suit each learner. For example, a teacher may provide more visual demonstrations for visually-oriented learners or hands-on activities for kinesthetic learners based on the AI insights.

AI tutoring systems continuously assess students to identify knowledge gaps, tailor content, and provide adaptive feedback. This data-driven approach enables more personalized teaching (Walton, 2023). For example, Duolingo tracks student progress to adjust lesson pacing and difficulty level based on proficiency (Vesselinov & Grego, 2016). Such adaptivity promotes more efficient, targeted instruction catered to individuals. Studies confirm the benefits of these AI systems for differentiation (Najmi & Ebrahimi, 2017).

6.2. Automating Assessment

AI reduces teachers' grading workload by automatically assessing student assignments, exercises, tests, and even essays (Martínez & Gómez, 2023; Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). With autograding systems, teachers simply need to review and override grades as needed, rather than

manually evaluate submissions. This frees up time for higher-order instructional planning and development of creative assessments like projects and portfolios that assess critical thinking.

Automated writing evaluation and speech recognition tools further contribute to providing instant formative feedback, freeing up teachers for more advanced instructional activities (Demszky et al., 2023). Additionally, machine translation helps teachers adapt texts and assignments for varying proficiency levels (Taşdemir et al., 2023). The integration of these tools not only reduces time spent on repetitive assessment tasks but also enhances teaching efficiency when appropriately applied (Mallik & Gangopadhyay, 2023).

6.3. Enriching Pedagogy

AI creates new pedagogical possibilities for teachers. Simulated conversations with chatbots allow safe, personalized language practice (Zou et al., 2023). Immersive virtual environments provide contextualized learning. Such technology facilitates more engaging, student-centered approaches aligned with communicative teaching methods. However, care should be taken to balance automated assessment and instruction with sufficient human interaction and guidance. Consequently, AI stands to enrich language teaching but teachers must thoughtfully leverage its potential.

7. Ethical Considerations and Challenges

Implementing AI ethically in language education remains an evolving, complex process that necessitates a nuanced understanding of diverse factors. Critical issues around data privacy, potential biases in algorithms, and the defining of human roles within the AI-enhanced educational landscape are central to this ethical implementation. These multifaceted considerations require ongoing analysis and dialogue among educators, technologists, and policymakers to ensure responsible integration of AI into the language education field.

The first major consideration is protecting learner data privacy and security. AI systems collect vast amounts of student data, raising concerns around confidentiality (Slimi & Carballido, 2023). Policies and measures must be established to enforce encrypted data storage, multi-factor access controls, transparency in data practices, and students' rights to erase their data. Several studies emphasize the need for thoughtful data governance principles and frameworks specifically for education AI systems (Hillman, 2023; Kazimzade & Miceli, 2020).

Another key concern is the potential for biases in AI algorithms and training data to lead to issues like cultural stereotyping in natural language processing systems (Reyero Lobo et al., 2022). Regular auditing of datasets and machine outputs is imperative to detect any skewed representations or unfair biases, which can then be mitigated through better design practices

(Pagano et al., 2022). It is understood that ongoing evaluation of language education AI systems for fairness, accountability and transparency is needed.

Overdependence on AI risks dehumanizing education and neglecting socioemotional elements that are crucial for healthy child development (Bu, 2022). Reasonable limits on automated teaching time and policies fostering human interaction and emotional intelligence can help maintain balance. Here attention should be paid to keep learners' wellbeing central when integrating AI into education.

Many advanced AI applications remain prohibitively expensive for underfunded schools across the world. Digital literacy barriers and lack of internet access also lead to inequities in AI adoption. Progress in education AI must prioritize enhancing equity of access and outcomes. It may be proposed that measures to bridge the AI divide through public-private partnerships should be taken immediately (Shah et al., 2020).

Addressing these multidimensional ethical considerations through research, policies, and thoughtful design will be imperative as language educators continue embracing emerging AI innovations. Maintaining critical perspectives on AI can guide responsible, learner-centric innovation in the field.

8. Conclusion

The advent of AI technologies is ushering in an era of transformation for language teaching and learning. As discussed, AI holds immense potential to enhance key facets of instruction and student experience. From adaptive learning platforms to immersive simulations, AI-driven innovations are making language education more personalized, engaging, accessible and effective overall.

However, successfully integrating AI requires a nuanced, thoughtful approach. Educators must leverage AI tools in ways that supplement - not supplant - human teachers. Grounding implementations in sound learning theories and pedagogies is essential, along with ensuring sufficient teacher oversight and guidance. Additionally, critical ethical issues around data privacy, algorithmic bias, and maintaining human connection must be addressed through thoughtful policies and design.

While AI integration brings multifaceted challenges, this chapter illuminates the abundant opportunities it presents if harnessed responsibly. There is a need for expanded dialogue and research to guide optimal, ethical AI adoption. With care, diligence and human wisdom guiding the way, AI's potential can be realized to benefit all learners equitably. This pivotal moment calls not for resistance against AI, but embracing its possibilities with caution

and care. In partnership with devoted educators, AI can help unlock a future of enriched, highly-personalized and engaging language learning for students worldwide.

REFERENCES

Arnold, K. E., & Pistilli, M. D. (2012, April). Course signals at Purdue: Using learning analytics to increase student success. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Learning Analytics and Knowledge* (pp. 267-270).

Alshaikh, A. H., & Hewahi, N. M. (2021). AI and machine learning techniques in the development of intelligent tutoring system: A review. *2021 International Conference on Innovation and Intelligence for Informatics, Computing, and Technologies (3ICT)*, Zallaq, Bahrain, 2021, pp. 403-410. https://doi.org/10.1109/3ICT53449.2021.9582029

Anthropic. (2023, July 11). *Claude 2*. Anthropics. https://www.anthropic.com/index/claude-2

Bower, M., Howe, C., McCredie, N., Robinson, A., & Grover, D. (2014). Augmented reality in education–cases, places, and potentials. *Educational Media International, 51*(1), 1-15.

Brynjolfsson, E., & McAfee, A. (2014). *The second machine age: Work, progress, and prosperity in a time of brilliant technologies*. W.W. Norton & Company.

Chen, X., Zou, D., Cheng, G., & Xie, H. (2021, July). Artificial intelligence-assisted personalized language learning: Systematic review and co-citation analysis. In *2021 International Conference on Advanced Learning Technologies (ICALT)* (pp. 241-245). IEEE.

Cumbal, R., & Skantze, G. (2022). Adaptive robot discourse for language acquisition in adulthood. In *Proceedings of the 2022 ACM/IEEE International Conference on Human-Robot Interaction* (pp. 1158-1160). https://doi.org/10.5555/3523760.3523957

Dikli, S., & Bleyle, S. (2014). Automated essay scoring feedback for second language writers: How does it compare to instructor feedback?. *Assessing writing*, 22, 1-17.

Dizon, G. (2017). Using intelligent personal assistants for second language learning: A case study of Alexa. Tesol Journal, 8(4), 811-830.

ELSA Corp. (2021). ELSA speak: English accent coach. https://elsaspeak.com/

FluentU. (2021). FluentU: Learn a language with real-world videos. https://www.fluentu.com/

Fryer, L. K., Coniam, D., Carpenter, R., & Lăpuşneanu, D. (2017). Bots for language learning now: Current and future directions. *Language Learning & Technology, 21*(2), 8–22. https://doi.org/10125/44575

Garrison, D. R. (2017). *E-learning in the 21st century: A community of inquiry framework for research and practice*. Taylor & Francis.

Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer, W. (1999). Critical inquiry in a text-based environment: Computer conferencing in higher education. *The internet and higher education, 2*(2-3), 87-105.

Graesser, A. C., Hu, X., & Sottilare, R. (2018). *Intelligent tutoring systems*. In F. Fischer, C. E. Hmelo-Silver, S. R. Goldman, & P. Reimann (Eds.), International handbook of the learning sciences (pp. 246-255). Routledge.

Grenander, M., Belfer, R., Kochmar, E., Serban, I. V., St-Hilaire, F., & Cheung, J. C. (2021, May). *Deep discourse analysis for generating personalized feedback in intelligent tutor systems*. In Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence (Vol. 35, No. 17, pp. 15534-15544).

Ibáñez, M. B., Di-Serio, Á., & Delgado-Kloos, C. (2011). Gamification for engaging computer science students in learning activities: A case study. *IEEE Transactions on learning technologies, 5*(3), 291-301. https://doi.org/10.1109/TLT.2011.11

Jadhav, S. V., Jain, P., Bhansali, Y., Jain, S., & Jain, D. (2018, August). *Adaptive and automated assessment system to decide the difficulty level of questions*. In 2018 Fourth International Conference.

Jonassen, D. H., Howland, J., Marra, R. M., & Crismond, D. (2007). *Meaningful learning with technology (3rd ed.)*. Pearson.

Kai, S., Paquette, L., Baker, R. S., Bosch, N., D'Mello, S. K., Ocumpaugh, J., ... & Moore, A. (2018). *A comparison of video-based and interaction-based affect detectors in physics playground*. In International Conference on Artificial Intelligence in Education (pp. 484-496).

Khalifa, H., & Fayed, M. (2016). Automated Essay Scoring with E-rater v. 2. *Journal of Technology Learning and Assessment, 5*(2).

Kim, S., Wei, Q., Xu, B., Ko, Y., & Glass, J. (2018). *Mind the gap: A generative approach to interpretable feature selection and extraction*. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 31 (pp. 2234-2243).

Kloos, C. D., Alario-Hoyos, C., Estévez-Ayres, I., Fernández-Panadero, C., Blasco, J., Pastrana, S., ... & Almenares, F. (2018). *Experiences running MOOCs and SPOCs at UC3M*. In Proceedings of the Fourth (2017) ACM Conference on Learning @ Scale (pp. 1-10). https://doi.org/10.1145/3051457.3053991

Li, Z., Wang, R., Chen, F., & Li, H. (2017). *Text classification based on integration of word embeddings and character embeddings*. In 2017 IEEE 19th International Conference on e-Health Networking, Applications and Services (Healthcom) (pp. 1-6). https://doi.org/10.1109/HealthCom.2017.8210790

Lin, L., Atkinson, R. K., Christopherson, R. M., Joseph, S. S., & Harrison, C. J. (2013). Animated agents and learning: Does the type of verbal feedback they provide matter? *Computers & Education*, 67, 239-249. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2013.04.017

Lin, P., Ma, X., Susarla, N., & Chan, K. (2017). Learning through engagement: MOOC design and motivational strategies. *Interactive Technology and Smart Education, 14*(4), 269-285.

Luan, H., & Chao, L. (2018). *Natural language understanding and intelligent applications*: 5th CCF Conference on Natural Language Processing and Chinese Computing, NLPCC

2016, and 24th International Conference on Computer Processing of Oriental Languages, ICCPOL 2016, Kunming, China, December 2-6, 2016, Proceedings.

Mayer, R. E. (2008). Applying the science of learning: Evidence-based principles for the design of multimedia instruction. *American Psychologist, 63*(8), 760-769.

Nawroth, C., Weidner, R., Borlinghaus, K., & Hammer, B. (2020). Towards Intelligent Tutoring Systems with Automatic Feedback Assignment. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education, 30*(2), 250-280. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40593-019-00195-5

Pérez-Marín, D., Pascual-Nieto, I., & Rodríguez, P. (2009). Computer-based assessment of handwritten student answers. *Journal of Universal Computer Science, 15*(8), 1535-1554.

Ran, M., Qiao, C., Xu, F., & Xun, G. (2020). *Recurrent neural network-based automatic summary assessment for intelligent tutoring systems*. In Proceedings of the 34th IEEE International Conference on Advanced Information Networking and Applications (pp. 680-687).

Richmond, V. P., McCroskey, J. C., & Hickson, M. (2008). *Nonverbal behavior in interpersonal relations (7th ed.)*. Pearson.

Russell, M., Shermis, M. D., & Burstein, J. (2010). *Automated essay scoring: Applications to educational technology*. In Proceedings of the World Conference on E-Learning in Corporate, Government, Healthcare, and Higher Education (ELEARN 2010), 2221-2226.

Saed, A., & Idrees, A. M. (2016). Artificial intelligence and language learning: An overview. *English Language Teaching, 9*(5), 58.

Sahami, M., Koushanfar, F., De Micheli, G., & Wong, W. (2010). *Artificial intelligence in the 21st century*. In 2010 25th International Conference on Computer Design (ICCD) (pp. 402-407).

Schwartz, D. L., & Arena, D. (2013). *Measuring what matters most: Choice-based assessments for the digital age*. MIT Press.

Sebastiani, F. (2002). Machine learning in automated text categorization. *ACM computing surveys (CSUR), 34*(1), 1-47.

Squire, K., & Jenkins, H. (2011). *Video games and learning: Teaching and participatory culture in the digital age*. Technology, education--connections (the TEC series). Teachers College Press.

Tandalla, R., Chinnakotla, M. K., Sharma, M., & Galley, M. (2021). *Towards global-aware models for abstractive summarization*. arXiv preprint arXiv:2105.00588.

Vanderbilt, T. (2015). The Science of Artificial Intelligence. HarperCollins.

Wang, L., Sun, C., Hu, Y., Zhang, Z., & Wu, Y. (2019). *Social attentive personalized E-learning with collaborative filtering*. In Proceedings of the 2019 ACM International Conference on Information and Knowledge Management (pp. 1999-2002). https://doi.org/10.1145/3357384.3358030

Warschauer, M., & Liaw, M. (2011). Emerging technologies for autonomous language learning. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal, 2*(3), 107-118.

Warschauer, M., & Ware, P. (2006). Automated writing evaluation: Defining the classroom research agenda. *Language teaching research*, *10*(2), 157-180.

Yannakoudakis, H., Briscoe, T., & Medlock, B. (2011). *A new dataset and method for automatically grading ESOL texts*. In Proceedings of the 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Vol. 1, pp. 180-189).

Yoon, S. O., O'Dwyer, L., Briggs, J., Borgman, J., & Scharber, C. (2017). *Teacher practices, technological resources, and links to student outcomes in blended high school biology classrooms*. In Education and Information Technologies (Vol. 22, No. 5, pp. 2315–2333). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-016-9549-2

Zhao, R., Li, X., Yan, R., & Song, Y. (2020). *C-Rank: A link prediction method for community discovery by preference ranking*. In Proceedings of the 43rd International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval (pp. 1349-1358). https://doi.org/10.1145/3397271.3401062

Zhou, M., Wen, M., Cheng, J., & Xiong, H. (2019). A review of recent advances in teacher education from the perspective of computational thinking and computer science. *Journal of Computer Science Education, 8*(2), 1-25. https://doi.org/10.5555/3199104.3199111

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Dr. Yusuf Emre YEŞİLYURT

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-8520-1359

yeyesilyurt@mehmetakif.edu.tr

Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Faculty of Education, Dept. of Foreign Language Education

Dr. Yusuf Emre Yeşilyurt is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Foreign Languages Education at Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Türkiye. He completed his undergraduate studies in English Language Teaching at Gazi University, Türkiye, in 2009. Following a year of teaching English at a state high school in İstanbul, Dr. Yeşilyurt pursued an MA in TESOL from the University of Bristol, UK, graduating in 2013. He began his academic career as a Research Assistant at Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, later joining Gazi University to complete his Ph.D. Returning to Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University in 2021, he now specializes in academic writing, teaching and researching writing, writing assessment, and conversation analysis in language education.

Dilara SOMUNCU ⓘD

Mehmet BARDAKÇI ⓘD

1. Introduction

Pragmatic knowledge is knowing how to adapt one's language use to other people, and pragmatics is viewed as the study of language in use with consideration of contextual factors such as the physical setting, the relationship between interlocutors in terms of power relations, social distance and status, the degree of imposition involved in a communicative act, topics of conversation, and shared knowledge regarding social rules and norms (Roever, 2012). This field of study focuses on the use of language within a social context with a focus on meaning-in-context (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014) including intended meanings, assumptions, and actions performed when speaking. It extends analyses beyond linguistic form, and concerns itself with situated language function. This is all captured in a well-known formal definition by Crystal (1997), who defines pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (p. 301).

The fact that the relationship influences how we talk might be obvious to native speakers and high-proficiency speakers, but it is difficult for lower-level learners to know this. How do learners know how to talk to people depending on their relationship with the person and the situation? The stakes are high here: talking to someone in a way that is culturally inappropriate can make speakers appear rude even though they do not mean to be. However, as Taguchi and Roever (2017) and Roever (2005; 2013) put forward, how to use language with people appropriately is not systematically taught in most language courses, not systematically developed in most language textbooks, not included in most language tests, and quite scattered even in such an influential document as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2001, 2020).

Traditional language teaching, which is still overwhelmingly used in Turkish EFL context, primarily consists of structural aspects of language such as grammar and vocabulary.

However, recently-shaped language teaching pedagogy indicates that grammar and vocabulary knowledge does not lead to successful communication (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014; Kim, 2014; Roever & Dai, 2021; Taguchi, 2015). This paradigm shift incorporated social, cultural and contextual factors together with main language skills, and pragmatic competence became a criterion for high language proficiency. Welcoming a communicative and functional perspective recognizes the importance of context, discourse strategies, and cultural awareness in communicating meaning appropriately and interpreting the intentions of other speakers. As a result, pragmatics teaching has become an integral part of language education, emphasizing the importance of context, cultural factors and functional language use by utilizing authentic materials, explicit/implicit teaching, and cultural awareness (Taguchi, 2013).

To facilitate the acquisition of pragmatic competence, educators use a variety of teaching practices. One approach is to use authentic materials such as videos, dialogues and real-life situations that expose students to real language use in different communicative contexts. Role plays and simulations are also utilized to create interactive and meaningful opportunities for students to practice their pragmatic skills in a controlled environment. Explicit instruction methods play a vital role in pragmatics teaching as it provides students with the necessary knowledge and strategies to navigate social interactions effectively. This includes teaching the speech acts, implicatures, pragmatic rules, formulaic expressions, routines, and discourse markers necessary for proper communication. By explicitly addressing pragmatic conventions, students can develop a deeper understanding of how to express politeness, make requests, apologize, and deal with other social functions (Can, 2022; Can Daşkın & Can, 2022).

However, pragmatics teaching also carries its own challenges. Pragmatics is a complex and context-dependent aspect of language, making it difficult to define and teach. Assessing students' pragmatic competence poses a significant challenge, as traditional assessment methods often focus more on grammar and vocabulary than on pragmatic competence (Roever, 2005). Additionally, the ongoing debate between explicit instruction and implicit instruction raises questions about the most effective pedagogical methods for developing pragmatic skills. While pragmatics is part of all the major constructs of communicative competence (e.g., Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Canale & Swain, 1980), which situate language teaching under the communicative paradigm, and it is represented in major policy documents like the CEFR, very little systematic pragmatics teaching happens in classrooms. Several factors probably conspire to bring about this underrepresentation. Most pivotally, many teachers have limited awareness of pragmatics as an aspect of language competence that needs to be treated systematically as

part of the curriculum. Most language teacher training courses do not explicitly cover pragmatics, and textbooks and syllabi do not include it as a skill to be learned. This means that there are few incentives and little support for teachers to teach pragmatics, even if they want to. In addition, most language tests do not specifically assess pragmatics so there is no positive washback from the test to the classroom (Roever & Dai, 2021).

While challenges remain in pragmatics teaching, such as assessing pragmatic competence and identifying the most appropriate teaching methods, educators can develop their pedagogical strategies to equip students with the pragmatic skills necessary for successful communication in a variety of linguistic and cultural contexts. Considering these current views and practices, the present chapter aims to focus on pragmatics and its areas (e.g. speech acts, implicature, and formulae), teaching materials and tests for pragmatics, and teaching pragmatics and its importance.

2. Pragmatics and Language Teaching

Pragmatics emerges as a linguistic subfield that deals with the use of language and examines how language functions in real-world communication contexts. Pragmatics explores how the meaning of language is shaped not only by word and sentence structures, but also by factors such as speakers' intentions, social context, and communication status. Therefore, understanding the practical use of language is one of the cornerstones of effective communication. This field of linguistics offers a broadened perspective to understand how people make and understand meanings in their daily communication. Analyzing subtexts and implicatures in communication means going beyond the superficial level of language. Pragmatics shows that the same sentence can have different meanings in different contexts, so language is not limited to grammar and vocabulary (Taguchi, 2015).

The importance of pragmatics goes beyond providing effective meaning transfer in communication. It plays a big role in areas such as understanding the relationships between people, resolving cultural differences, understanding the intentions of the interlocutors, and minimizing possible ambiguities in communication. Understanding and applying pragmatic rules is a fundamental requirement for peaceful communication and cooperation, especially in multilingual and multicultural societies (Shively, 2011). If we think the role of English language as the world language, then it makes pragmatic competence as important as ever before for English language learners. As a result, pragmatics emerges as an important linguistic area that helps language learners understand the role of language in real-world communication. It offers

the key to functional, effective communication that deals with the meaning of language not only with structural elements but also with social, cultural and communicative context.

Language learning and teaching is a steep slope for individuals to gain language skills and improve their communication skills. Practices on the role of gestures, intonation, and eye contact in communication contribute to language learners' development of nonverbal communication skills. It also supports language learners to gain cultural awareness and adapt to different language usage contexts. Language learners' understanding of the pragmatic aspects of language can reduce misunderstandings, increase their cultural sensitivity, and help them communicate more fluently. Therefore, incorporating pragmatic principles into the teaching and learning process makes language education more effective and comprehensive so that language learners improve their communication skills and understand the real-world communication context (Taguchi, 2013; Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

To put it briefly, pragmatics deals with the social use of language. It explores why language users speak differently in different social settings, for example, in a casual conversation at a bar, in a formal job interview, or when purchasing a service at a store. It is also interested in how people understand each other when they talk in a non-literal way ("I've asked you a thousand times to clean your room") (Kasper & Rose, 2002). In addition to these, it deals with the way people use chunks during interaction ("Don't worry.", "Can I get you something else?") and how they manage to establish long conversations effortlessly and without thinking about it. Unlike syntax, which deals with the accuracy of language, the field of pragmatics deals with the appropriate and conventional use of language. Based on these frameworks, pragmatics is interested in conducting research in the following areas:

Research in the field of speech acts and politeness try to answer how language users know that they need to speak differently with their bosses and spouses and how they decide what to say. Understanding what the other speaker means is another critical issue. For example, when person A casually asks, "Where's your phone?" "Mine's out of battery," most language users will understand that this does not mean that Person A just wants to know where it is, but Person A wants to use the phone. This question has been addressed in the studies conducted on implicature. People often use the same phrases such as "no worries" to express a certain meaning in a situation, and this is also explained by pragmatics. Research on routine formulae has shed light on this point.

Leech (1983) identified two areas of pragmatic competence that interactants should have: sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence, as demonstrated in Figure 1.
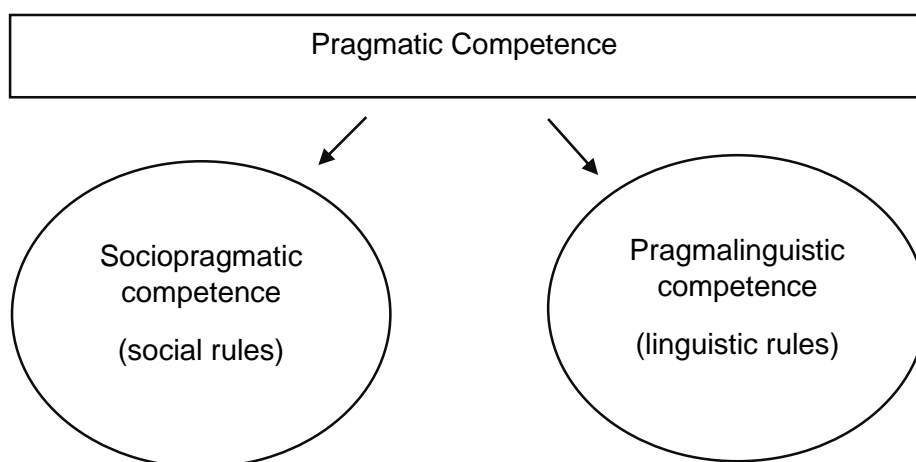
Figure 1. Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence

The sociopragmatic competence of a language user is his knowledge of the social rules and norms governing the use of language. What is normal and acceptable? Who deserves respect and who is considered your equal? How do gender and age affect the way you talk to someone? What is considered a small favour and what is a large imposition on the interlocutor? (Leech, 1983). According to Fraser et al. (1980), sociopragmatic knowledge is about how social relationships affect speech. This knowledge also includes knowing that you can comfortably talk to people who are very close, such as a spouse, but you need to be more polite to people who are less close, such as an acquaintance. Sociopragmatic knowledge is largely implicit: language users usually do not need to think about what their relationship with another person is and whether they should be casual or polite. Although those who have grown up in the target speech community intuitively know what it is, second language (henceforth L2) users may have difficulty with sociopragmatics (Siegal, 1996). Since they are not socialized in the target culture, they may not have an intuitive understanding of how people relate to each other and what is 'normal', and for example, they may unintentionally offend the other person by misinterpreting an official situation as a casual situation, or they can treat a person who needs to be respected as a close friend.

The second and equally important component of pragmatic competence is pragma-linguistic competence. Pragma-linguistic competence includes knowledge of the linguistic tools for saying what you want to say while being guided and limited by sociopragmatic rules and norms (Leech, 1983). Pragma-linguistic knowledge is essentially linguistic knowledge, but

more importantly it is the knowledge of how language can be used for pragmatic purposes. How do you formulate a request or suggestion? How to start a story-telling in a conversation? More generally, what are the conventional linguistic means used to express certain intentions? A person learning a second language may be pragmalinguistically deficient due to low overall language proficiency. For example, an ordinary phone request from Person A ("Where is your phone?") does not require a very complex language, but low-level students may still have difficulty formulating a question. However, neutral and polite requests are linguistically much more complex: in addition to question formation, they require modals, if-clauses, and expressions such as "I was wondering". Being able to produce these language features requires more than a basic level of language competence. If the learner's proficiency is low and they have not yet acquired English modals (can, might, want, etc.), their linguistic toolkit for making requests in English will be limited. Having sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge is important but not sufficient for successful language use. Both types of knowledge need to be matched, i.e. language users need to be able to use the right kind of linguistic tools given social rules (Taguchi, 2012; Taguchi & Yamaguchi, 2019). For example, it is useful to know what linguistic options are available for making requests and for softening or strengthening them, but this knowledge needs to be linked to sociopragmatic knowledge of how to speak to a particular interlocutor under particular circumstances. Language users also need to be able to access their knowledge quickly and effortlessly so that they can comprehend and produce language under the time pressure of real-time speech. Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge are useful concepts, but they are not detailed enough to explain how language users adjust their language to the other speaker/s and the situation. There are other factors like speech acts, politeness, implicatures, etc. to have a broader understanding of what and how to speak.

2.1. Speech Acts

There are some basic concepts included in the content of pragmatics, and these concepts help us understand the revolving wheels in this subfield of linguistics. Speech act theory is one of them, and it argues that language includes more than just the semantic structure of words and sentences. This theory examines the use of language by considering the action and intention dimensions of speech (Searle, 1969). Sentences in communication not only mean something, but also have the purpose of performing certain actions. Therefore, the term "speech act" emphasizes the operational aspect of language use (Can, 2022).

Linguists like John Searle and J. L. Austin laid the foundation for the Speech Act Theory. In his book "How to Do Things with Words", Austin (1962) argued that language not

only has an explanatory function, but a function of making what he calls "acts of speech" or "acts of language". For example, in a sentence we not only mean something, but also make a contract, make a request or make an offer. Speech Act Theory is mainly based on three main categories:

➢ Illocutionary Act: This refers to the action taken by the speaker to achieve a particular intention or purpose. For example, by saying "I'm sorry" we express an apology.

➢ Locutionary Act: Expresses the basic grammatical and semantic components of speech. In other words, it is the grammatical and semantic structure of a sentence.

➢ Perlocutionary Act: It expresses the effect of speech on the listeners. That is, it includes the changes that occur in the thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of the listeners as a result of communication (Searle, 1969).

Speech Act Theory helps us understand the complexity of communication and evaluate intentions, motives and interaction in language use. It is a means of analysis not only for the surface level but also the deep layers of communication, allowing us to understand how effective communication takes place.

People modify their way of speaking to match the recipient primarily in order to preserve social concord. This adaptation takes place whenever communication occurs with another individual, yet it has been extensively scrutinized within the context of speech acts (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1976). A speech act involves utilizing language to achieve a certain outcome in the real world, or as defined by Austin (1962), "how to accomplish things using word" (p. 1). These speech acts encompass various linguistic functions like making requests, offering apologies, expressing refusals, presenting suggestions, voicing complaints, delivering criticisms, expressing gratitude, offering compliments, extending congratulations, exchanging greetings, and others.

Speakers also incorporate mitigated language, known as hedges, to temper the request's impact and lessen the pressure placed on the listener. All these strategies collectively work to enhance the politeness of the request, diminishing the insistence and thereby heightening the chance of approval. Nevertheless, the query remains: what sociopragmatic benchmarks do speakers utilize to gauge the appropriate level of politeness? Brown and Levinson (1987) pinpointed three pivotal factors that speakers use when gauging their relationship with the listener to determine the tone of their speech acts:

Power: Refers to the power dynamic between speaker and hearer. High Power indicates hearer's superiority, Equal Power denotes balanced control, and Low Power implies speaker's dominance. Interaction with higher-power individuals requires more politeness.

Social Distance: Reflects closeness between speaker and hearer, encompassing familiarity and shared group membership. High Social Distance applies to strangers, Medium Social Distance suggests some commonality, and Low Social Distance pertains to close relations.

Degree of Imposition: Measures imposition on the hearer. High Imposition requests impose significant burden, while Low Imposition entails minimal inconvenience.

These contextual factors vary across cultures. Notably, Brown and Levinson's (1987) approach has faced criticism for being overly strategic. Nonetheless, some politeness aspects are culturally required. Additionally, factors like age, entitlement, and relative cultural norms influence speech (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014; Bella, 2014). Research into sociopragmatic rules is ongoing, offering a partial explanation rather than a strict system.

Language teaching is a complex process that is not only limited to teaching the structures and rules of the language, but also aims to improve communication skills. At this point, "Speech Act Theory" plays an important role in language teaching. This theory provides teachers and students with a framework for explaining not only the semantic aspect of language, but also how language works in the real world and how it is used in communication. With the operational dimension of language, Speech Act Theory emphasizes that language is not only about the ordering of words and sentences, but also has the purpose of performing certain actions. Teaching students how much of a sentence expresses "what is meant to be done" helps them understand the intent and purpose in communication. With this guidance, students communicate more effectively and fluently in real life (Taguchi, 2013). The application of Speech Act Theory in language teaching involves teaching students how language is used for different purposes. Teaching students different speaking purposes, such as making offers, begging, apologizing, making suggestions, and language patterns that express these goals helps them develop pragmatic competence for real-life communication skills. This approach focuses on students' understanding of intentions and subtexts in communication, in addition to grammar and vocabulary (Roever et al, 2014; Taguchi, 2015).

The research covering pragmatics primarily focuses on the investigation of learner performance with speech acts in L2 pragmatics. The most extensively studied speech acts are requests, refusals, and apologies, while others have received less attention. In terms of developmental progression, learners evolve from simple, minimally tailored speech acts to

more intricate and context-sensitive productions. Kasper and Rose (2002) outline five stages of speech act development:

Pre-basic stage: Learners with limited L2 competence employ linguistic and non-linguistic means to convey intentions, without adapting to interlocutors.

Formulaic stage: Learners use basic linguistic forms, like frequent phrases or simple verbs, displaying simplicity and lacking variation in politeness.

Unpacking stage: Learners acquire a broader range of pragmalinguistic tools, using conventional indirectness in requests. Utterances become longer with some situational adaptation, although full mapping of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics is not achieved.

Pragmatic expansion: Proficiency growth widens pragmalinguistic choices. Speech act complexity increases, attaining higher politeness levels. Mismatches between sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge might occur due to excessive speech content.

Fine-tuning: Learners master various pragmalinguistic tools, accurately aligning them with sociopragmatic rules. Their speech adapts to different situations and interlocutors.

Kasper and Rose's (2002) sequence indicates that early-stage learners' pragmatic abilities are limited by overall proficiency. Their linguistic toolbox and processing load impact complex speech act formulation. With increased pragmalinguistic resources and streamlined language production, learners craft longer, more intricate speech acts. Less experienced learners tend to be concise and direct, while higher competence results in extended, nuanced pragmatic production.

Much like other facets of acquiring a second language, the phenomenon of transferring skills from one's first language (henceforth L1) is also evident in L2 pragmatics. Sociopragmatic transfer is challenging to evade for (adult) learners since they possess fully developed knowledge of sociopragmatics rooted in their L1, which they initially resort to when navigating the L2 context. Pragmalinguistic transfer, however, presents a distinct scenario. Initial-stage learners have such a limited array of pragmalinguistic tools that transfer becomes impractical (Kasper & Rose, 2002). As proficiency grows, learners might apply L1 sociopragmatic-pragmalinguistic mappings, as seen in Shivel's (2011) investigation. For instance, learners utilized U.S.-style greetings and requests in a Spanish service setting, whereas the local preference favored swift and direct task completion.

Similar to broader second language acquisition trends, progress in L2 pragmatics does not invariably follow a linear trajectory from limited competence to nearly native-like proficiency. In an analysis involving learners of L2 Modern Greek, Bella (2014) identified that

even advanced learners at CEFR C1 level exhibited noticeable disparities in their use of refusal strategies compared to native Greek speakers. Notably, some strategies were underutilized while others were overused. Moreover, pragmatics is closely intertwined with individuals' self-presentation and desired image projection. This can lead learners to intentionally deviate from target language pragmatic norms due to discomfort. An illustrative study by Siegal (1996) on Western women learning L2 Japanese revealed instances where participants chose not to adopt the conventional female Japanese speech style, deeming it incongruent with their identity as equals to men. Kim (2014) recounted the challenges Korean ESL learners faced in employing first names when addressing professors in a Western academic context where such informality was standard. Some learners deliberately avoided this due to personal discomfort, intentionally importing their L1 norm while flouting the local sociopragmatic norm.

Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge constitute the fundamental components of pragmatic proficiency, linking language to societal conventions. Language users assess social dynamics and modify their expressions accordingly. This process can be challenging for second language learners due to their evolving sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic skills. This may result in deviations from the desired target language norm, potentially causing them to be perceived as impolite or generally unconventional in their second language interactions (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Shively, 2011; Taguchi, 2015). While extensive research has been conducted on speech acts and politeness, not all aspects revolve around politeness. Beyond the realm of politeness, language users employ alternative methods to convey indirectness, such as hinting, and adopt various strategies to convey meanings that are not strictly literal.

2.2. Non-literal Speech: Implicature

The study area of pragmatics also concerns with the importance of interactants' speaking appropriately and understanding indirect language in communication. People often use non-literal language to convey underlying meanings. This is known as conversational implicature, a concept introduced by philosopher Grice (1975). According to Grice's (1975) conversational maxims, people generally assume that communication is cooperative, truthful, relevant, and clear. However, implicature occurs when these maxims are intentionally disregarded, implying additional meanings. For instance, when a parent claims to have asked their child "a thousand times," they are flouting the Maxim of Quality, suggesting they have had to ask more often than expected. The listener's role is to infer these implied meanings. Violating the Maxim of Quantity in communication leads to intriguing implicatures. For

instance, when B is asked about their thoughts on dinner at a new restaurant and responds by saying, "The waiters were friendly," they are not providing sufficient information. By emphasizing only one aspect of the experience and omitting other important details, B indirectly criticizes the other aspects, implying dissatisfaction with the rest of the dining experience. Likewise, violating the Maxim of Relation results in implicature. When one person responds with an apparently unrelated statement, it is the listener's task to deduce the implied meanings. For instance, replying to the question "How do you like my new dress?" with "I can't believe how cold it's been." appears irrelevant, but a skilled communicator can understand that this intentional shift of topic reflects a reluctance to discuss the suggested subject and probably indicates a negative view of the new dress. Lastly, flouting the Maxim of Manner involves responding indirectly. For instance, when one peer asks another to proofread a final project task and receives the response, "I need to sleep early because I have an important exam in the morning," the question is not directly addressed. Yet, a skilled communicator would understand the implied negative response due to the abundance of reasons given for not complying. As could be seen in these examples, conversational implicature is prevalent in communication, making it crucial for learners to interpret instances of non-literal language and grasp the implied meanings effectively.

Taguchi and Yamaguchi (2019) present a comprehensive review of research on second language implicature. Notable findings include the significance of implicature comprehension proficiency and the supportive role of conventional responses. A crucial determinant of implicature comprehension is the learner's proficiency level. Research by Roever et al. (2014) revealed that high-proficiency learners possessed five times the implicature comprehension ability of beginners. Proficiency was observed to have a stronger impact on implicature comprehension compared to producing speech acts and recognizing routine phrases. Though proficiency aids in processing implicature, Taguchi and colleagues (Taguchi, 2011; 2012; Taguchi et al., 2013) identified additional factors influencing implicature difficulty. They demonstrated that implicature comprehension is easier when the implied meaning aligns with the propositional meaning and when the implied meaning is conventionally expressed. For instance, conventional implicatures in refusals (e.g., "Do you want to come shopping with me?" – "I have to wash the dishes.") were better understood than less conventional ones involving opinions (e.g., "How was the weather during your trip?" – "I'm glad I had an umbrella.").

The researchers argue that more conventional implicatures are simpler to interpret due to listeners implicitly recognizing that responding to an invitation with a statement typically

indicates a refusal. In contrast, non-conventional responses require activating background knowledge, such as associating umbrella with rainy weather during a trip. Shared conventionality between a learner's first language and second language also significantly affects comprehension. Unconventional patterns, like indirect criticism through praise ("What did you think of his school?" – "The meeting room was nice."), can be challenging in some languages but can be taught effectively, as shown by Bouton (1999). Overall, L2 implicature research indicates that learners must employ diverse resources, including their grasp of discourse norms, background knowledge, and language skills, to decipher implied meanings. The greater the disparity between propositional and implied meanings and the less conventional the implicature, the harder it is to interpret.

2.3. Routine Formulae

Pragmatic competence also involves familiarity with set phrases linked to specific situations and social roles, termed routine formulae or conventional expressions. These phrases recur consistently in similar contexts and forms. Examples like "how are you?," "thank you for having me," and "can I get you anything else?" are associated with particular situations: greeting, expressing gratitude for hospitality, and serving in food encounters. Routine formulae can closely align with distinct social roles and situations. For instance, "no, thanks, I'm full" is strictly used to decline food offers during meals. In contrast, "how are you doing?" is limited only by its role as a greeting, adaptable to various settings. The fixed nature of routine formulae varies. "Thanks a lot" is unalterable, while "I'm full" allows slight modifications (pretty/quite/really full). Some formulae are highly flexible, potentially challenging their status as formulae, like "I am/was wondering if…," which can have countless completions (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Routine formulae present a dual advantage and challenge for language learners due to their fixed nature. They serve as both a helpful tool and a potential stumbling block. These formulae allow learners to exceed their current language proficiency. Even beginners, unfamiliar with most aspects of a language, can quickly use expressions like "how are you?" as greetings. This is because learners acquire routine formulae as whole chunks, allowing them to store and recall them efficiently. The clear link between the chunk and its meaning, along with its high frequency of use, makes it easy to use (Roever, 2012). Dechert (1983) likens these formulae to "safety islands" that provide learners refuge amidst unfamiliar language. However, the rigidity of these formulae leaves little room for errors. Bardovi-Harlig (2014) has demonstrated that learners can make mistakes in producing longer or more complex formulae,

potentially due to memory limitations. Proficiency does influence routine knowledge, though less so than with implicature and speech acts. Advanced learners outperformed beginners in recognizing routine formulae, while the advantage in implicature and speech acts was more substantial. Interestingly, Roever (2012) found that short-term exposure, even just three months, significantly enhances learners' recognition of routine formulae. This is likely due to the high frequency and utility of these expressions in the target language context.

3. Teaching Materials and Tests for Pragmatics

There are various tools that are applicable for designing activities aimed at instructing and evaluating L2 pragmatics. Most of these tools were initially designed for research in pragmatics but can equally serve educational and evaluative purposes. These instruments can be categorized into two main types: receptive tools, which evaluate learners' comprehension of pragmatic meaning, and productive tools, which encourage learners to practice generating pragmatic meaning (Taguchi, 2013; 2015). Examples of receptive tools encompass tasks involving metapragmatic judgment and multiple-choice questions, while productive tools include activities such as discourse completion tasks, role plays, and elicited conversations, as depicted in Figure 2.
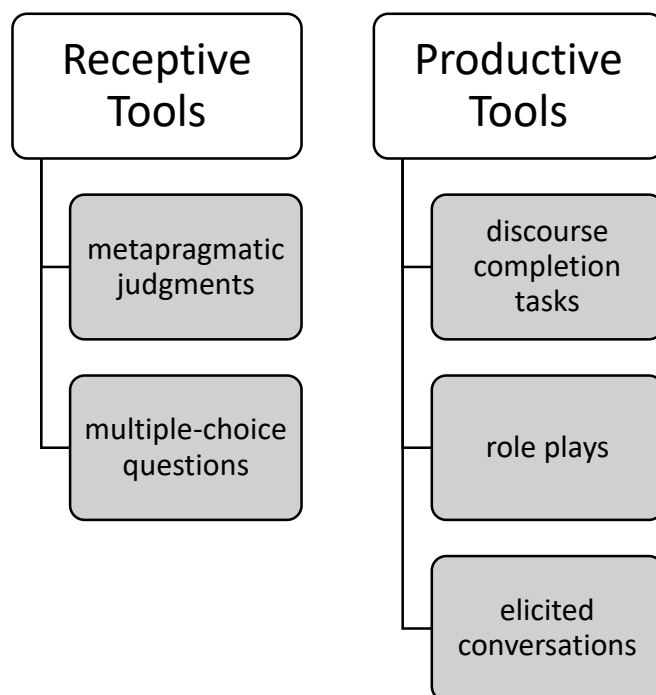

Figure 2. Tools for teaching and testing L2 pragmatics

Teaching materials and test exercises for L2 pragmatics and interactional competence must fulfill a fundamental and essential criterion: they must establish a contextual framework. The essence of pragmatics revolves around the utilization of language within a specific context,

as the primary concept of pragmatics is how context shapes our speech patterns (Roever 2005; Taguchi, 2012; 2013). Our way of speaking varies when interacting with friends versus acquaintances, during social gatherings versus business meetings, face-to-face or online conversations, and based on the topic and communication goal. Consequently, any activities or tasks in pragmatics must consider these elements, much like grammar tasks need to indicate the necessity of using plurals or simple past tense. As educators, we need to involve there main aspects of context into our designs: the physical context (where – when – how); the social context (who to whom); and the goal of the interaction (why or for what purpose) (Taguchi, 2012).

In the context of effective teaching of L2 pragmatics, the physical setting plays a significant role. This encompasses where the communication occurs (like an office, hospital, living room), communication channels (face to face, phone, online, email), and potentially the timing. The way one approaches seeking help from a friend's door at 3 am versus 3 pm involves different pragmatic considerations. The social context also holds importance and involves clarifying the roles of the conversational participants (e.g., student-professor, housemates, father-son). Additionally, it is crucial to define the aspects of social context based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) framework: Power, (Social) Distance, and Imposition. Power is often implied in the social relationship (e.g., a manager holds more power than an employee, a teacher over a student), while peers like housemates, friends, or colleagues are typically equal in power. On the other hand, Social Distance is not inherently clear from individuals' roles and necessitates explanation within the task. For instance, strangers and individuals who have not met before carry a high social distance, whereas those with significant social interaction (friends, housemates, family members) have low social distance. People who share some commonality but lack deep familiarity (like new co-workers, classmates who haven't spoken, distant cousins seen infrequently) have medium social distance.

The level of imposition significantly impacts the politeness level of an utterance and should be evident from the context. As discussed previously, high imposition implies a substantial "cost" to the listener in terms of money, effort, time, or social standing. Generally, the more the listener must deviate from their usual activities, the higher the imposition. Borrowing a friend's laptop for an hour, for example, is moderately imposing as it inconveniences them but not excessively. However, this imposition can escalate to high if the friend urgently needs the laptop, or become low if they do not require it immediately. Clearly stating this information in task prompts empowers teachers, testers, and researchers to

manipulate the imposition level. Particularly in research and testing contexts, ensuring that test-takers or participants perceive social context settings the same way as the researcher is essential, as cultural variations can lead to misinterpretations. Consequently, piloting with representatives from the target community is recommended. Lastly, it is crucial to define the purpose of the interaction. What is the speaker attempting to accomplish? In everyday conversations, individuals understand their intentions, but in pragmatics tasks, it is necessary to inform learners/participants about the objective of communication (Roever, 2005; Taguchi; 2013; Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Incorporating these three main aspects might appear to make the task overly lengthy, but the aim is to maintain conciseness. This is less difficult than it seems, as not every aspect requires extensive elaboration. The subsequent example illustrates a scenario for a discourse completion task created to prompt a request:

Request item (adapted from Roever, 2005)
Jack is employed as a restaurant server. Although his shift is scheduled for this afternoon, he has been unwell and intends to visit a doctor. As his co-worker Kate is not assigned to work during the same period, Jack intends to request her to cover his shift. During their morning break, Jack is seated beside Kate.
What would Jack probably say?

In general, the depiction of the communication context should span approximately one paragraph. If it extends beyond this, there is a risk of transforming it into a reading comprehension test, which respondents are unlikely to read carefully. While it is possible to augment the description with images or videos, for everyday classroom situations or cost-effective assessments, a concise, lucid, yet comprehensive written explanation suffices. To ensure respondents can visualize the scenario and engage with their response, it is generally advisable to incorporate both male and female names in the scenarios. Most scenarios can include a mix of genders, with some involving same-gender interactions. Lastly, it is highly recommended to pre-test scenarios with a small group of individuals, ideally resembling the research learners, participants or test takers. This step ensures that the tasks are coherent and free from ambiguity or oddness communication (Roever, 2005; Taguchi; 2013; 2015; Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

4. Conclusion

Pragmatics research has long examined the incorporation of L2 pragmatics into language instruction, accumulating substantial insights. Yet, these findings have not

significantly influenced teaching materials and classroom practice. Despite being an integral component of communicative competence and being acknowledged in significant frameworks like the CEFR, pragmatic instruction is scarcely implemented in educational settings (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014; Kim, 2014; Taguchi, 2013; 2015). Several factors contribute to this deficiency. Primarily, many teachers lack awareness of pragmatics as a systematic element of language competence within the curriculum. Teacher training rarely covers pragmatics, and instructional materials do not incorporate it as a teachable skill. Consequently, there is inadequate encouragement and support for teachers to impart pragmatics, even if they are inclined to do so. Furthermore, most language assessments do not specifically evaluate pragmatics, leading to a lack of positive washback from assessments to the classroom (Roever & Dai, 2021).

The current research undeniably demonstrates that pragmatics can be effectively taught, leading to enhanced pragmatic understanding among learners. Taguchi (2015) conducted an analysis of 58 instructional investigations utilizing pre-post designs, measuring learners' pragmatic proficiency before and after instruction to calculate progress. In her review, she reveals that 57 out of these studies exhibited improved learning outcomes as a consequence of the instruction. By looking at the results of recent studies (e.g. Plonsky & Oswald, 2014; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015), it can be claimed that sparing instructional time on pragmatics helps learners become pragmatically competent language learners.

As pragmatics brings a social and contextual dimension to the study of language, pragmatics teaching has an important role in the field of language education. With the globalized communication opportunities, language learners feel the urge to communicate effectively in diverse interpersonal situations, and this increases the importance of appropriate use of pragmatic aspects of language. Therefore, researchers, teachers, educators, and curriculum designers need to look for alternative ways of teaching language pragma-friendly.

REFERENCES

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (2010). *Language assessment in practice: Developing language tests and justifying their use the real world*. Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2014). Awareness of meaning of conventional expressions in second language pragmatics. *Language Awareness*, *23*(1–2), 41–56. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2013.863894

Bella, S. (2014). Developing the ability to refuse: A cross-sectional study of Greek FL refusals. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *61*, 35–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2013.11.015

Bouton, L. F. (1999). Developing non-native speaker skills in interpreting conversational implicatures in English: Explicit teaching can ease the process. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 47–70). University of Cambridge.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. D. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511813085

Can Daşkın, N., & Can, H. (2022). Pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics. In S. Şahin (Ed), Pragmatics and Foreign Language Teaching (pp. 1-27). Eğiten. https://www.egitenkitap.com/urun/pragmatics-and-foreign-language-teaching.

Can, H. (2022). Speech act theory and language teaching. In S. Şahin (Ed), Pragmatics and foreign language teaching (pp. 29-62). Eğiten. https://www.egitenkitap.com/urun/pragmatics-and-foreign-language-teaching.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*, 1–47. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors*. Council of Europe. www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages

Crystal, D. (1997). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics.* Blackwell.

Dechert, H. W. (1983). How a story is done in a second language. In G. Kasper & C. Færch (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 175–195). Longman Publishing Group.

Fraser, B., Rintell, E., &Walters, J. (1980). An approach to conducting research on the acquisition of pragmatic competence in a second language. In D. Larsen-Freeman (Ed.), *Discourse analysis in second language research* (pp. 75–91). Newbury House.

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics 3: Speech acts* (pp. 41–58). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004368811_003

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language.* Blackwell.

Kim, H. Y. (2014). Learner investment, identity, and resistance to second language pragmatic norms. *System*, *45*, 92–102. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.05.002

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. Longman

Plonsky, L., & Oswald, F. L. (2014). How big is 'big'? Interpreting effect sizes in L2 research. *Language Learning*, *64*(4), 878–912. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12079

Plonsky, L., & Zhuang, J. (2019). A meta-analysis of L2 pragmatics instruction. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics* (pp. 287–307). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351164085-19

Roever, C. (2005). *Testing ESL pragmatics.* Peter Lang. https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-653-04780-6

Roever, C. (2012). What learners get for free (and when): Learning of routine formulae in ESL and EFL environments. *ELT Journal*, *66*(1), 10–21. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq090

Roever, C. (2013). Technology and tests of L2 pragmatics. In N. Taguchi & J. Sykes (Eds.), Technology and interlanguage pragmatics (pp. 215–233). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.36.11roe

Roever, C., Wang, S., & Brophy, S. (2014). Learner background factors and learning of second language pragmatics. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, *52*(4), 377–401. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2014-0016

Roever, C., & Dai, D. W. (2021). Reconceptualizing interactional competence for language testing. In R. Salaberry & R. Burch (Eds.), Assessing speaking in context: Expanding the construct and its applications (pp. 23–49). Multilingual Matters.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in Society*, *5*, 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500006837

Shively, R. L. (2011). L2 pragmatic development in study abroad: A longitudinal study of Spanish service encounters. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*(6), 1818–1835. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.10.030

Siegal, M. (1996). The role of learner subjectivity in second language sociolinguistic competency: Western women learning Japanese.*Applied Linguistics*, *17*, 356–382. https://doi. org/10.1093/applin/17.3.356

Taguchi, N. (2011). The effect of L2 proficiency and study-abroad experience on pragmatic comprehension. *Language Learning*, *61*(3), 904–939. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00633.x

Taguchi, N. (2012). *Context, individual differences, and pragmatic competence*. Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847696106

Taguchi, N. (2013). Teaching Pragmatics. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing.

Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, *48*(1), 1–50. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444814000263

Taguchi, N., & Yamaguchi, S. (2019). Implicature comprehension in L2 pragmatics research. *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics*, 31–46. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351164085-3

Taguchi, N., Li, S., & Liu, Y. (2013). Comprehension of conversational implicature in L2 Chinese. *Pragmatics & Cognition*, *21*(1), 139-157. https://doi.org/10.1075/pc.21.1.06tag

Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). Second language pragmatics. Oxford University Press.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Dr. Dilara SOMUNCU

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-2770-3318

dilarasomuncu2@gmail.com

Gaziantep University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

Dr. Dilara Somuncu holds her PhD in English Language Teaching from Hacettepe University, Turkey. She now works as an Assistant Professor at the Department of Foreign Language Education at Gaziantep University, Turkey. Her research interests primarily include language teacher education, teacher cognition, classroom discourse, L2 interaction, and formative assessment.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet BARDAKÇI

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-0071-0059

mbardakci@gantep.edu.tr / mbardakci@gmail.com

Gaziantep University, Faculty of Education, Dept. of English Language Teaching

Mehmet Bardakçı holds an MA and a PhD in English Language Teaching, and currently works as an associate professor of English Language Teaching at Gaziantep University, Faculty of Education. His work focuses specifically on teacher training, teaching English to young learners, critical reading and reasoning fallacies.

CHAPTER 18: MULTIMEDIA, HUMOR AND LANGUAGE LEARNING: CHANGING ROLES AND PERSPECTIVES

İhsan ÜNALDI [iD]

Mehmet BARDAKÇI [iD]

1. Introduction

The question of providing comprehensible input in L2 instruction has been discussed for a long time. The main idea is that as long as the target language input is understood by the learner, language learning takes care of itself. The idea was developed by Stephen Krashen and his assumption is that the learner does not have to fully understand every word or phrase in the input. If the target language is provided in a meaningful context and is rich enough, acquisition will take its course. Although it might sound clear and straightforward, the idea of comprehensible input is not without criticism, which is outside the scope of the current chapter. Nevertheless, no one would argue against the merits of providing L2 learners with meaningful and rich contexts.

Since its emergence in the 1980s, the idea of comprehensible input has evolved, and today there are other issues to be discussed. Back in those days, particularly in the foreign language instruction context, the main source of comprehensible input was regarded as the language teacher. The fast and global digitalization has made authentic language available for L2 learners all around the world. With reference to L2 instruction, concepts and roles have been changing deeply. A short chat with any teenager about where he or she is exposed to English will reveal that films, sitcoms (situation comedies), digital games, and TV shows are the main sources of input. With regard to providing comprehensible input, English language teachers have been outperformed by Hollywood films, sitcoms, and TV shows.

2. Some of the factors affecting L2 acquisition

There are many aspects of L2 acquisition, and the effectiveness of the process is affected by many factors. The intersection of multimedia (a generic term for media, such as films, TV shows, music, digital games, and the internet) and L2 acquisition is not a new topic of discussion but has started to attract more and more attention. However, while trying to integrate multimedia into L2 acquisition process, there are many things to consider. In this section of the

current chapter, these two concepts will be considered under the topics of authenticity, audio-visuality, motivation, intercultural competence, pragmatic competence, and social aspects.

Using authentic materials in language teaching has been common sense among theoreticians and practitioners as well (Gilmore, 2007). Authentic materials are produced in order to fulfil some social purpose in the language community. The producer of the material does not have a specific learner group in mind during the process of creation. Through the use of authentic materials, learner motivation can be improved by exposing them to real language and cultural aspects of the target language; moreover, such materials relate more closely to learners' needs in addition to providing the instructor with a more creative approach to teaching (Peacock, 1997). Some claim that it is actually not the material itself that should be authentic but what is done with it. However, one thing is sure that made-up language with no communicative purpose does not help L2 learners in any way. We can discuss that multimedia provide language learners with authentic language samples because the language used in multimedia is real to certain extents. At this point, this assumption needs to be taken with a grain of salt. Normally, language samples in multimedia cannot be regarded as spontaneous. They are drafted, written, and rewritten by teams before they meet the audience. The natural course of language works with false starts, hesitations, interruptions, slips of tongues and occasional mispronunciations. However, film scripts are written in perfect English with perfect dialogues. They might provide L2 learners with accurate models of phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon, but when it comes to the most important layer of language, pragmatics, the authenticity of multimedia becomes questionable.

The audio-visual nature of multimedia also acts as a facilitator in the L2 acquisition process. It is common sense that learning begins through our five senses. Upon hearing, seeing, tasting, touching, or smelling, we consciously or unconsciously start the learning process. At its very basic level, learning is actually connecting the new sensory inputs with the already available ones. It makes sense to suppose that the more senses are involved in the process, the deeper and longer-lasting learning will become. Therefore, many experienced L2 instructors try to involve as many sensory inputs as they can while trying to teach a subject. In this respect, audio-visuality is inherent in multimedia, which means you can see and hear what is going on in most cases. More than only one sense being at work, the learner is more likely to be more involved. In addition, multisensory inputs are more likely to provide the learner with a meaningful context, which will facilitate learning both in the long and short term. Any kind of learning related to L2 is sure to be more effective if it takes place in a meaningful context. The core

principle of learning, the connection process of the unknown or new with the already available, is at work at this point. The context where the conversations are taking place actually provides what is needed to understand the individuals involved in these conversations.

Apart from the points related to multisensory input provided by multimedia as mentioned above, there is another issue which is also important in L2 instruction. The suprasegmental features of languages especially that of the English, which is known to be a stress-timed language, are among the parameters that have to be dealt with by the learners of that specific language. Compared to other languages, English is more sensitive in this aspect. The analysis of the following sentence with regards to intonation and stress will make the point clear.

>*-They don't want to join us this evening.*

Depending on the intonation, this sentence will have different meanings. For example, if we emphasize the word *they*, it might mean that we are the ones wanting to come together, but they do not want to do so. If the word *want* is emphasized with a couple of further remarks, we might understand that they do more than wanting, they are actually eager to see us. If the emphasis shifts even further from the word *they* to the phrase *this evening*, it might mean that they will probably join us another time. The only way to comprehend what is meant in such an utterance is to hear and see the speaker; otherwise, ambiguity might set in.

One of the most important aspects of any kind of learning is actually motivation. It is also the real driving force behind L2 acquisition. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is often mentioned in related literature. Extrinsic motivation is related to what others want while intrinsic motivation is about what the learner wants. If the learner is acting on an expectation of a reward at the end of an achievement, it means that the learner is extrinsically motivated. On the other hand, if the learner is involved in learning without an expectation of an external reward, then we can talk about intrinsic motivation. Most of the time, intrinsic motivation is regarded as superior to extrinsic motivation because as soon as the reward at the end of learning is removed, the learner is likely to be frustrated. As long as the learner is actively involved in the learning process and has a say about the learning process, intrinsic motivation starts budding. Moreover, if the material that is being used in the process is interesting and uplifting, this kind of motivation becomes even more decisive over the learning outcomes. When we consider multimedia within the framework of intrinsic motivation in the L2 context, there seems to be a clear overlap between the two. Generally speaking, multimedia deals with the aspects of human nature in relation to society, which makes it interesting enough for any

individual. Trying to create connections between the story and the characters in a film and one's own personality and his or her life is likely to yield intrinsic motivation.

The next point to be mentioned in the current framework of the discussion is intercultural competence. People might consider themselves as somehow open-minded when it comes to interacting with cultures other than their own. However, intercultural competence, or intercultural communication skills, is not as simple as it sounds as knowing and doing are different things at their cores. It is almost always possible to create mental images of other cultures through reading, but the spice of reality only comes in through real people who belong to those cultures. After all, actors and actresses in films are real people with real cultural backgrounds. Even when they are pretending to be 'other selves', they cannot strip down all their cultural identity and become a culture-free self. No matter what situation he is in, Brad Pitt will unconsciously laugh, cry, look or fall in love like an American. There should be some level of individual intuition that makes people living in different cultures act differently. It remains just an intuition until the language learner starts developing intercultural competence through certain means. Multimedia, one of these means, have the potential to create a sense of the target culture as they involve countless situations full of cultural references that belong to the target language. For example, it is very rare to find language teaching materials that expose L2 learners to colloquialism, which refers to ordinary or familiar conversations which are sometimes unacceptably informal. Whether we accept it or not, socially unacceptable utterances are core parts of daily conversations. The L2 acquisition process could be deemed incomplete without enough exposition to some level of colloquialism. Multimedia is teeming with colloquialisms, even with too much of it, one could claim.

Another concern about L2 instruction is pragmatics. The concept of pragmatics, which is often contrasted with semantics, basically deals with pre-existing knowledge in natural conversations. In the course of languaging, we make decisions and choices. Why we choose one word or phrase over another, or why we say something the way we do and discard other options of saying it are all parts of pragmatic knowledge. Most of the time, when people are conversing, there is much more going on than meets the eye. For example, terrorist attacks hit the headlines frequently, and it is a topic of discussion among people. However, in these conversations it is very unlikely to hear people giving definitions of terrorism or trying to persuade other people about how bad attacking other people is. This is inherent in human nature and is somehow related to the *theory of mind*. In this theory, it is presupposed that individuals are aware that other individuals have their own minds, and they act on similar principles. It

might seem rather straightforward, but this is actually like one of the human skills that we have to acquire and develop. For example, imagine that a mother brings home some chocolate to make a cake. Her son sees her put the chocolate into a blue cup and he goes out to play. While she is making the cake, the mother takes the chocolate and puts it into a green cup this time. The boy comes back and wants to eat the chocolate. The simple question here to be asked is which cup the boy is going to look for the chocolate. The answer would be *the blue cup*. However, until the ages of four or five children cannot acquire this skill and separate their own minds from the others' and believe that the boy is going to look for the chocolate in the green cup (Wimmer, 1983). Only after this certain period can pragmatic development start in children, and this is the case for the native language. As for the L2 acquisition process, this kind of development seems to be much more complex and is a topic of concern. Pragmatics, in this respect, studies non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (Kasper, 2001). Generally, L2 learners experience *pragmatic failures* which is defined as "the inability to understand *what is meant by what is said*" (Thomas, 1983, p. 91). Take the following natural conversation between a father and his son as an example:

Boy: *Daddy, I can't get this thing open!*
Dad: *Didn't we have a screwdriver laying around somewhere?*
Boy: *I'll get it!*

The father's utterance looks like a question but actually is not. Fueled with too much grammatical or semantic orientation, EFL learners might get confused with this kind of conversing because most of the course books impose a pragmatic-free understanding of English grammar. Suppose that this is a gap filling activity in a language learning class, and the learners are supposed to fill in the part of the conversation where the boy says *I'll get it*. If it is a learning environment where pragmatic concerns are missing, the learners would most probably come up with answers like *No we didn't* or *Yes we did.*

Last, but of course, not least, the social aspects of language learning have been a prominent topic of concern since the late 1990's. It has been suggested that language is better learned when learners try to negotiate over concepts and meaning (Ellis, 2010). In order for the L2 acquisition process to be complete, some level of socializing is more than necessary. In this respect, the common ground between the language instructor and the learners on which teaching and learning is to be placed is also worth mentioning. It is reasonable to assume that the more the learners feel alienated from a subject, the less they will learn. Let alone L2 learners, it is sometimes difficult, even for native speakers of English, to find common topics to talk about.

At this point, as the main parts of popular culture, films, sitcoms, and TV shows are likely to assist L2 instructors as they have become far more than just a common interest for people from various social groups.

As multimedia becomes more affordable and accessible, more and more people are beginning to enjoy what modern popular culture has to offer. We believe that, among the elements that form this culture, sitcoms hold a distinct place in the context of L2 acquisition process as they involve humor, one of the universal features of the human nature.

3. Theoretical Considerations about Humor

Providing an exact definition of humor is difficult; however, it can be shortly defined as anything that is funny, comical, or amusing. Bell (2012) defines humor as a "specific communicative mode in which something is uttered with the intent to amuse" (p. 238). It has both psychological and physiological effects on human beings. Referring to psychophysiological research Berk (2001, p. 324) states that the process of humor has "three elements: (1) the stimulus (humor), (2) the emotional response (mirth), and (3) the physical response or behavior (laughter)". And also referring to quantitative and qualitative research evidence, he lists eight psychological benefits of humor, (a) reduces anxiety, (b) reduces tension, (c) reduces stress (d) reduces depression (e) reduces loneliness (f) improves self-esteem (g) restores hope and energy (h) provides a sense of empowerment and control.

Many researchers, either in psychology or in education, have studied humor and have concluded that humor does have beneficial aspects as it protects people from sadness and boredom, and put them in an optimistic mood. Humor theory dates back to ancient times; philosophers like Aristoteles and Plato discussed the concept of humor and its effects on human behavior. However, the first theory emerged in the 18th century known as the Superiority Theory. Later, with the development of positive psychology, Release or Relief Theory of Humor came to the scene. Then, contemporary humor theories incorporated different fields such as psychology, linguistics, sociology, and cognitive science. The Incongruity Theory shifted the perspective to a cognitive view of humor and its analysis (Larkin-Galiñanes, 2017). Theory of Humor has evolved over time as scholars from different fields have studied and contributed to our understanding of humor; why we laugh, why we find things funny, and they have tried to understand its functions in cognition, social interactions, and communication. There are three main theories that try to explain the functions of humor:

Superiority theory: Although it was named in the 18th century, this theory is attributed to Plato, Aristoteles, and Hobbs (Kulka, 2007). According to this theory, humor arises from a sense of superiority, that is the feeling of being intellectually or morally superior to others. Jokes often involve the ridicule or absurdity of others, making the audience feel superior. Although it can be questioned in terms of moral and social values, it is believed to serve two important societal functions: maintaining social class as laughter and reinforcing group unity (Martineau as cited in Wilkins & Eisenbraun, 2009).

Release or Relief theory: Developed mainly in the 19th century onwards, this theory deals with the positive psychological and physiological benefits of laughter. This theory is attributed to psychologists Herbert Spencer and Sigmund Freud. Relief theory suggests that humor serves as a psychological release of tension or emotions like aggression or anxiety. In other words, according to this theory, negative emotions such as stress, nervousness and anxiety could be reduced by laughing (Bakar & Kumar, 2019). The physiological positive affects also mentioned by many scholars. In their study Wilkins and Eisenbraun (2009) state that "The physiological benefits of laughter most closely align with this theoretical perspective as many negative health conditions are exacerbated by stress, and laughter has been shown to reduce the symptoms of such conditions" (p. 351).

Incongruity theory: This theory is credited to Cicero, Kant, Schopenhauer, and Kierkegaard (Kulka, 2007) and it advocates that humor stems from the perception of absurdity or the unexpected clash of ideas, events, or words. When the mind resolves these incongruities, it makes the individual laugh. In other words, according to the incongruity theory, an individual laughs at things that are surprising or violating a commonly accepted pattern—slightly different from the norm, of course it should be nonthreatening. Cognition is important in incongruity theory since the individuals need to have the knowledge of typical patterns to be able to detect these differences (Wilkins & Eisenbraun, 2009).

There are also other theories of humor such as *Script-based semantic theory*, which focuses on linguistic humor such as puns or wordplay; *Benign violation theory*, when something is perceived as a violation of social or moral norms but as non-threatening or benign; Incongruity-Resolution Theory, humor results from the resolution of the irrationality. Although there are several theories on humor, studies in the literature generally take the first three theories into account.

4. Humor in L2 Instruction

In the related literature on teaching, it is very well established that providing an engaging and entertaining learning environment is of great importance since it can significantly affect student motivation, retention, and overall learning outcomes. Another commonly accepted idea is that when students find the learning process or activities enjoyable, they are more likely to take part actively and voluntarily and apply new information. Much research has been done applying different techniques to create engaging and entertaining learning environments such as storytelling, gamification, game-based teaching, using music, humor in the class etc. and has shown that learners who experience positive emotions and enjoyment during their studies tend to exhibit better self-regulation skills, persistence, and problem-solving abilities (Dehghanzadeh et al., 2021; Huy Hoang & Petraki, 2006; Printer, 2021; Saleem, et. al., 2022). These techniques are crucial for language learning, where learners often encounter challenges and complexities. By incorporating elements of enjoyment into language teaching, educators can help students develop the resilience and skills necessary to navigate the intricacies of language acquisition successfully. Researchers have identified that teachers who integrate humor in the teaching process are generally positively rated both by their colleagues and students (Garner, 2006).

Dörnyei (2001) also considers humor as a motivational teaching practice and mentions the importance of integrating humor in teaching to establish an enjoyable classroom atmosphere. Regarding the use of humor in L2 instructional contexts, it could be defined as teacher- or learner-triggered efforts to provoke laughter and amusement in the classroom. As Huy Hoang and Petraki (2006) state, these efforts can arise from the interactions, materials, or the content, and ultimately lead to laughter or smiling. Consequently, the significance of creating engaging and fun learning environments goes beyond the immediate classroom experience; it lays the foundation for a positive attitude toward language learning.

5. Humor as a Language Instruction Tool

Humor can be used as an excellent teaching tool because, not only it prevents classroom boredom and monotony but also it introduces lateral aspects of language such as irony, sarcasm, mockery, elision, ellipsis, and euphemism. It can be used in teaching vocabulary, phonetics, culture and even in teaching syntax and grammar (Guindal, 1985). Humor also serves as an invaluable tool in L2 instruction in various ways:

Motivation, participation, and retention: Humor can help teachers take learners' attention and make the language learning more enjoyable. Thus, it can affect both classroom atmosphere and student motivation. When the learners find the lesson amusing, they will be active participants in the class; moreover, this will lead to a higher level of motivation. Think about yourself, you may not remember a text when you first read or listen to it but when you hear a humorous anecdote you can easily remember and tell it to your friends. That's why we can say that humorous content is generally more memorable and thus humor can help retention. Through the use of humor, L2 learners can recall the vocabulary, grammar, and also cultural issues more effectively (Çopur et al., 2021).

Stress reduction: Learning a new language is a complex and stressful activity for anyone. Humor can be used as a tool to create a stress-free, relaxed, and supportive classroom atmosphere. "Students who perceive an instructor as high in humor orientation were more likely to initiate communication with that instructor. Moreover, students are more apt to discuss personal concerns with a high-humor orientation instructor, which leads to a more meaningful teacher-student interpersonal relationship" (Huss & Eastep, 2016, p. 42). Consequently, reduced anxiety can improve learners' willingness to communicate.

Communication and culture: Current methodologies try to teach not only the language but also the target culture. Humorous texts generally provide real-life examples and also contain cultural references and wordplay. In real-life, when humor takes place, it includes the aspects of real-life communication such as tone, stress, timing, and context. Learners might come across humor while interacting in L2, but they might suffer from anxiety about understanding and engaging in the humor (Shively, 2018). Thus, Rucynski and Prichard (2021) suggest that teachers should help students become familiar with the humor of target-language speaking cultures and this will improve their intercultural communicative competence. They also explain the importance of L2 humor competence as:

> L2 humor competence is an integral component of becoming proficient in a foreign language. This involves not merely appreciating the humor of foreign cultures, but also understanding how it is used. The timing, frequency, and purpose of humor greatly vary from culture to culture. When people use humor, there is often incongruity between the literal and intended meanings of their words. English language learners with a high level of humor competency have the ability to decode the message and to identify the true

purpose of the humor (e.g., just making a joke, criticizing a person or situation) (Rucynski & Prichard, 2021, p. 3).

In today's digital era, through internet, social media and TV platforms, English language learners will come across a great amount of humor. Making sense of humor in a target language is also essential in developing media literacy and critical thinking skills.

Çopur et al. (2021, p. 281) summarize the uses and benefits of using humor in language classrooms basing on the previous research findings:

➢ humor in classrooms is often relaxing.
➢ humor may be facilitative in terms of language learning by helping participants to recall the lesson or topic at a later time.
➢ students can freely practice and discuss humor without being afraid.
➢ humor provides learners with the opportunity to appropriate and experiment with language as well as taking the risk of making mistakes.
➢ humor increases opportunities for interaction, which creates space for learning.
➢ humor can create an interactive environment in classrooms as it has the potential to yield spontaneous and unplanned interaction.

6. Types of Humor

Although humor can provide a good service in education by bringing fun and entertainment to class, it is subjective and a receiver-centered communication (Meyer, 2000). For this reason, Deneire (1995) warns that humor should be used with caution both in the class and other public contexts. Garner (2006) also states that the use of humor could be most effective when it is appropriate to the students, the topic, and the place. These discussions, of course, need to be based on research findings. We believe that the first thing to be considered in discussions about the use of humor in L2 contexts is the categorization of humor. There have been several attempts to classify humor, both in general terms and in L2 context. For example, Schmitz (2002), after analyzing the related literature on the use of humor in L2 settings, organized humorous discourse into three groups as (i) universal or reality-based humor, (ii) culture-based humor, and (iii) linguistic or word-based humor. This categorization was formed to serve as a pedagogical framework for L2. Berger's study (2012) was another attempt to classify humor but in general terms; the result was 41 humor types as demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Humor Types

1.	**Absurdity**	Nonsense, a situation that goes against all logical rules
2.	**Anthropomorphism**	Objects or animals with human features
3.	**Bombast**	Talking in a high-flown, grandiloquent, or rhetorical manner
4.	**Chase**	A pursuit or chase of someone or something
5.	**Clownish behavior**	Making vigorous arm and leg movements or demonstrating exaggerated irregular physical behavior
6.	**Clumsiness**	Lacking dexterity or grace
7.	**Coincidence**	A coincidental and unexpected occurrence
8.	**Conceptual surprise**	Misleading the audience by means of a sudden unexpected change of concept
9.	**Disappointment**	A situation that leads to (minor) disappointment
10.	**Eccentricity**	Someone who deviates from the norms, an odd character
11.	**Embarrassment**	An awkward situation in which someone gets a sense of discomfort, uneasiness, or shame
12.	**Exaggeration**	Making an exaggeration or overstatement; reacting in an exaggerated way
13.	**Grotesque appearance**	Someone who has a bizarre or monstrous appearance with striking features
14.	**Ignorance**	Someone acts or behaves in a foolish, naive, gullible, or childish manner
15.	**Imitation**	Mimicking someone's appearance or movements while keeping one's own identity at the same time
16.	**Impersonation**	Taking on the identity of another person, intentionally or unintentionally
17.	**Infantilism**	Playing with the sound of words
18.	**Irony**	Saying one thing and meaning something else or exactly the opposite of what you're saying
19.	**Irreverent behavior**	Lacking proper respect for authority or the prevailing standards
20.	**Malicious pleasure**	Taking pleasure in other people's misfortune; victim humor
21.	**Misunderstanding**	Misinterpreting a situation
22.	**Outwitting**	Outsmarting someone or the establishment by retort, response, or comeback
23.	**Parody**	Imitating a style or a genre of literature or other media
24.	**Peculiar face**	Making a funny face, grimace
25.	**Peculiar music**	Funny, unusual music
26.	**Peculiar sound**	Funny sound, unexpected sound, as in cartoons
27.	**Peculiar voice**	Funny, unusual voice
28.	**Pun**	Playing with the meaning of words
29.	**Repartee**	Verbal banter, usually in a witty dialogue
30.	**Repetition**	Repetition or replay of the same situation
31.	**Ridicule**	Making a fool of someone, verbally or nonverbally
32.	**Rigidity**	Someone who thinks along straight lines, who is conservative and inflexible
33.	**Sarcasm**	Biting remark made with a hostile tone; sarcasm is always a verbal put-down
34.	**Satire**	Making a fool of or poking fun at well-known things, situations, or public figures
35.	**Scale**	Very large or small sizes of objects that surpass people's logical expectations
36.	**Sexual allusion**	Making a reference or insinuation to sexual or naughty matters
37.	**Slapstick**	Physical pie-in-the-face humor often involving degradation of someone's status
38.	**Speed**	Talking or moving in very fast or slow motion
39.	**Stereotype**	Stereotyped or generalized way of depicting members of a certain nation, gender, or other group
40.	**Transformation**	Someone or something takes on another form or undergoes a metamorphosis; before/after
41.	**Visual surprise**	A sudden unexpected visual/physical change

In Berger's categorization in Table 1, we can see that there are 41 types of humor. Most of these humor types can be regarded as universal; most of these situations or performances would put

smiles on anyone's face in any culture. Although some researchers questioned the merits of humor typologies claiming that "…typologies cannot be relied upon to illustrate how humor is used in interaction" (Bell, 2009, p. 243), we believe that the relationship between the L2 acquisition process and humor typologies needs to be analyzed. At this point, we might ask certain questions especially for the verbal humor types. For example, can these types of humor be used at any L2 proficiency level? Are they sensitive to L2 proficiency levels? Are they at the same difficulty level for L2 learners? How would L2 learners from different cultures regard them? The related literature lacks answers to these questions and many other related ones.

7. Discussion

In general terms, the integration of humor into the teaching and learning process is not a no man's land. For example, Berk (2002) lists five areas that are beneficially affected by the use of humor as: (1) professor-student connection, (2) classroom atmosphere, (3) student responsiveness, (4) test performance, and (5) student attendance. However, using humor in a balanced manner is essential for maintaining an effective and respectful classroom atmosphere. As in any lesson plan, the first step is determining the objectives and learning outcomes of the lesson and the purpose of including humor should be in line with learning objectives. In this framework, some strategies to use humor in classroom have been proposed by scholars and they can be summarized as follows:

- ➢ Set objectives
- ➢ Align humor with the content
- ➢ Set boundaries of the lesson
- ➢ Avoid offensive humor
- ➢ Be careful about the cultural sensitivities
- ➢ Observe student reactions
- ➢ Encourage communication
- ➢ Take students preferences into account
- ➢ Be careful about timing
- ➢ Reflect and adapt

To sum up, humor should support the content of the lesson and be used to reinforce key concepts, vocabulary, or language skills. To keep your professionalism and authority in the class discuss your expectations with your students at the very beginning. Be aware of cultural differences and avoid sensitive topics to prevent any misunderstandings of anything that can

negatively affect the classroom atmosphere and pay attention to the reactions of the students. If you recognize any discomfort or offence, change your approach, and even apologize if necessary. Use humor in the appropriate time in an appropriate manner. Finally, reflection is a vital element in teaching; thus, reflect on your use of humor. If you think that you are doing badly or receive any negative feedback on your use of humor, adjust or use it less.

Obviously, the points made above are about humor as a tool for the instructor and education in general. When we consider the use of humor in L2 contexts, we can say that humor provides many advantages, some of which were discussed previously. However, some problematic aspects of humor have also been discussed. For example, Schmitz (2002) mentions certain risks about the use of humor in L2 textbooks as the discourse in which humor is used might be outdated. The same discussion holds true for the integration of sitcoms or other TV shows into the L2 instruction process. After all, sitcoms and TV shows get their materials from recent and everyday events. In addition to this, Bell (2011) believes that culture-specific aspects of humor might prevent L2 learners from making sense as they might lack specific knowledge required to do so, and this claim can also be regarded as reasonable for sitcoms and TV shows.

Another point that needs attention is how different cultures regard humor. Now we have enough scientific evidence to claim that the attitudes of Eastern cultures towards humor are not as positive as Western cultures (Jiang et al., 2019). For example, Freud (1928) believed that humor is a type of defense mechanism, and it has been suggested that Western cultures associate humor with positivity (Apte, 1985). On the other hand, it has been reported that some Eastern cultures devalue humor. For example, Rudowicz and Yue (2002) claim that Chinese people do not believe that humor is one of the desirable personality traits. The attitudinal differences among different cultures make the use of humor in L2 contexts a more complex issue. In this respect, Schmitz (2002) argues that L2 learners should deal first with universal humor, which is more straightforward compared to the other two. Then they can move on to cultural humor, which will require more effort on the learners' side, and linguistic humor should be the last group that should be dealt with by L2 learners as it involves many other challenges.

When it comes to humor in relation to L2 proficiency levels, the picture is not that clear either. While some researchers believe that there should be a match between the humor types used in L2 contexts and the proficiency levels of the learners (Schmitz, 2002), some others see this attempt as a fallacy (Bell, 2009). According to Bell (2009), "… different types of humor are not categorically more difficult for learners of certain levels of proficiency. … any type of

humor can be constructed at any level of sophistication…" (p. 245). However, research in neuroscience clearly states that, for example, puns are processed differently in the brain and require more complex neural connections (McHugh & Buchanan, 2016). When we consider that they carried out this study in an L1 environment, it would be safe to assume that it will be a much more challenging task for L2 learners to process puns in the target language.

The basic premise of the current chapter is that humor is one of the essential attributes of human nature. How different societies and communities regard humor might be discussed, but it is impossible to find a society or community without any sense of humor. The next and more specific premise in the current context is that anything related to human nature can and should be used in L2 instruction. The corollary that can be based on these two premises is that humor should be a part of L2 instructional process. However, currently we do not have enough evidence to show the practical aspects of using humor in L2 settings.

As L2 instructors and researchers, we are sure that the L2 input sources that learners are exposed to are far more different than the ones a couple of decades ago. Digital games on several platforms, social media, sitcoms, TV shows, and films, i.e., all types of multimedia, that can easily be accessed via the internet now form the bulk of the input that L2 learners are exposed to. For example, modern sitcoms have become an important part of popular culture. They depict real life situations in a humorous way. They are created for native speakers with no intention to be used as language teaching materials, which makes them authentic in nature. They are short compared to films, and the situations are easy to understand and relevant for most people, especially for teenagers. One thing is more obvious than the rest: the stories in sitcoms are narrated in humorous discourse. These features of sitcoms make them preferable to other types of multimedia. In addition to L2 learners, many people around the world watch full episodes of sitcoms in one sitting, which is a new concept among young people all around the world called *binge watching*. These new types of L2 input sources have actually changed the roles of L2 instructors; they are not the only language model for L2 learners anymore. In fact, the input that L2 instructors provide is insignificant compared to the input coming from different types of multimedia. Maybe the best option for L2 instructors now is to become the manager of these input sources and to find ways to integrate them into the L2 instruction process. Sitcoms have great potentials in this respect as they are fun to watch, authentic, short, and easy to understand. However, we must bear in mind that humor is not a concept that we can take for granted and integrate directly into the L2 instruction process.

REFERENCES

Apte, M. L. (1985). *Humor and laughter: An anthropological approach.* Cornell University Press.

Bakar, F., & Kumar, V. (2019). The use of humour in teaching and learning in higher education classrooms: Lecturers' perspectives. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *40*, 15-25.

Bell, N. (2012). Comparing playful and nonplayful incidental attention to form. *Language Learning*, *62*(1), 236-265. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00630.x

Berger, A. A. (2012). *An anatomy of humor*. Transaction.

Bell, N. D. (2009). Learning about and through humor in the second language classroom. *Language Teaching Research, 13*(3), 241–258. doi:10.1177/1362168809104697

Berk, R. A. (2001). The active ingredients in humor: Psychophysiological benefits and risks for older adults. *Educational Gerontology*, *27*(3-4), 323-339. https://doi.org/10.1080/036012701750195021

Berk, R. A. (2002). *Humor as an instructional defibrillator evidence-based techniques in teaching and assessment*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Bell, N. (2011). Humor scholarship in TESOL: Applying findings and establishing a research agenda. *TESOL Quarterly 45* (1): 134–159. https://doi:10.5054/tq.2011.240857.

Çopur, N., Atar, C., & Walsh, S. (2021). Humour as a pedagogical tool in teacher-initiated repair sequences: the case of extreme case formulations and candidate hearing. *Classroom Discourse, 12*(3), 280-294. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2021.1910051

Dehghanzadeh, H., Fardanesh, H., Hatami, J., Talaee, E. & Noroozi, O. (2021) Using gamification to support learning English as a second language: a systematic review,

Computer Assisted Language Learning, 34 (7), 934-957. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1648298

Deneire, M. (1995). Humor and foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Humor Research*, 8 (3), 285-298. https://doi.org/10.1515/humr.1995.8.3.285

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom.* Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (2010). *Second language acquisition* (16. [print.]). Oxford Univ. Press.

Freud, S. (1928). Humor. *The International Journal of Psychoanalysis. 9*, 1–6.

Garner, R. L. (2006). Humor in pedagogy: How ha-ha can lead to aha! College Teaching, 54(1), 177–180.

Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, *40*(2), 97–118. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444807004144

Guindal, A. L. (1985). *Humour: An Excellent EFL Teaching Device [microform]*. ERIC Clearinghouse. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED287322

Huss, J. & Eastep, S. (2016). The attitudes of university faculty toward humor as a pedagogical tool: Can we take a joke? *Journal of Inquiry & Action in Education, 8*(1), 39-65.

Huy Hoang, P., & Petraki, E. (2016). Do Asian EFL teachers use humour in the classroom? A case study of Vietnamese EFL university teachers. *System, 61*, 98–109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.08.002

Jiang, T., Li, H., & Hou, Y. (2019). Cultural differences in humor perception, usage, and implications. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00123

Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics*, *22*(4), 502–530. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/22.4.502

Kulka, T. (2007). The incongruity of incongruity theories of humor. Organon F, 14(3), 320–333.

Larkin-Galiñanes, C. (2017). An overview of humor theory. In S. Attardo (Ed.) *The Routledge handbook of language and humor* (pp. 4-16). Routledge.

Meyer, J. C. (2000). Humour as a double-edged sword: Four functions of humor in communication. *Communication Theory, 10*(3), 310e331. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2885.2000.tb00194.x

Peacock, M. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. *ELT Journal*, *51*(2), 144–156. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/51.2.144

Printer, L. (2021). Student perceptions on the motivational pull of Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS): a self-determination theory perspective. *The Language Learning Journal, 49*(3), 288-301. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2019.1566397

Rucynski Jr, J., & Prichard, C. (2021). Implementing humor instruction into English language teaching. *English Teaching Forum*, *59*(3), 2-13.

Rudowicz, E., & Yue, X. D. (2002). Compatibility of Chinese and creative personalities. *Creativity Research Journal, 14*(3-4), 387–394. doi: 10.1207/S15326934CRJ1 434_9

Saleem, A. N., Noori, N. M., & Ozdamli, F. (2022). Gamification applications in E-learning: A literature review. *Technology, Knowledge and Learning, 27*(1), 139-159. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10758-020-09487-x

Schmitz, J. R. (2002). Humor as a pedagogical tool in foreign language and translation courses. *Humor - International Journal of Humor Research 15* (1): 89–113. doi:10.1515/humr.2002.007

Shively, R. L. (2018). *Learning and using conversational humor in a second language during study abroad*. Walter de Gruyter.

McHugh, T., & Buchanan, L. (2016). Pun processing from a psycholinguistic perspective: Introducing the Model of Psycholinguistic Hemispheric Incongruity Laughter

(M.PHIL), *Laterality,* *21*(4-6), 455-483. https://doi.org/10.1080/1357650X.2016.1146292

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-Cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*(2), 91–112. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.2.91

Wilkins, J., & Eisenbraun, A. J. (2009). Humor theories and the physiological benefits of laughter. *Holistic Nursing Practice,* *23*(6), 349-354. https://doi.org/10.1097/HNP.0b013e3181bf37ad

Wimmer, H. (1983). Beliefs about beliefs: Representation and constraining function of wrong beliefs in young children's understanding of deception. *Cognition*, *13*(1), 103–128. https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277(83)90004-5

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Assoc. Prof. Dr. İhsan ÜNALDI

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0003-0009-3537

ihsan@nevsehir.edu.tr

Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University, Department of English Language Teahing

İhsan Ünaldı holds a Ph.D. in English language teaching. Currently, he is an associate professor at Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University, Turkey. His areas of interest are corpus linguistics, non-native vocabulary, and testing & assessment.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet BARDAKÇI

ORCID ID**:** 0000-0002-0071-0059

mbardakci@gantep.edu.tr
mbardakci@gmail.com

Gaziantep University, Department of English Language Teaching

Mehmet Bardakçı holds an MA and a PhD in English Language Teaching, and currently works as an associate professor of English Language Teaching at Gaziantep University, Faculty of Education. His work focuses specifically on teacher training, teaching English to young learners, critical reading and reasoning fallacies.

To Cite this Chapter

Ünaldı İ., & Bardakçı, M. (2023). Multimedia, humor and language learning: changing roles and perspectives. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *Current studies in foreign language education,* (pp. 404-422). ISRES Publishing.
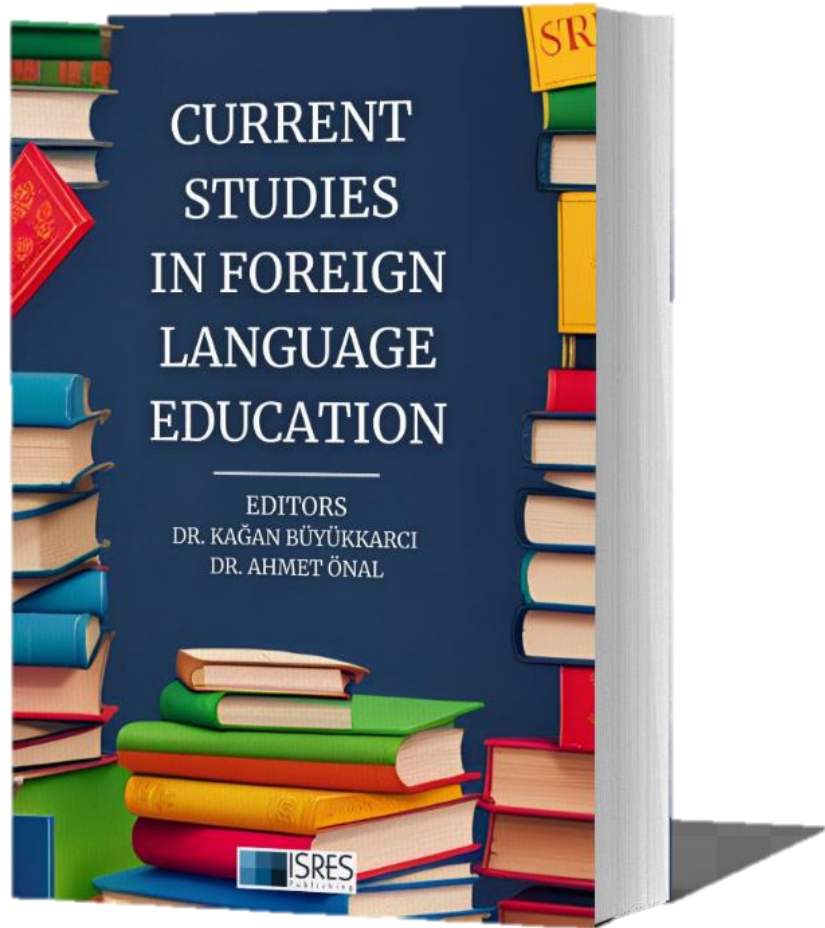
Current Studies in Foreign Language Education has been published from the selected papers invited by the editors.

Embracing up-to-date topics on ELT methodology, assessment, teacher training, professional development and applied linguistics, this comprehensive volume includes 18 chapters and stands out as reflecting the scholarly perspectives and research of academics from Ukraine and Türkiye.

Current Studies in Foreign Language Education is published by ISRES Publishing.